Human Trafficking Course

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Scroll over the yellow "sticky notes" for study helps.

1. Introduction:

Source: https://www.ojp.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/202469.pdf

While there is a significant amount of information regarding the magnitude, causes and practices of trafficking, little information exists on the needs of trafficking victims and the service providers working to meet those needs. In fact, no studies have been conducted on a national scale to systematically assess the needs of victims and those service providers working with them. With the passage of the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000, it is increasingly important to better understand the needs of trafficking victims and service providers.

In response, the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) commissioned assistance from Caliber Associates Inc. (Caliber) under a task order contract to conduct a National Needs Assessment of Service Providers and Trafficking Victims that would provide the Office of Justice Programs and the field at large with information needed to develop more effective programs to service trafficking victims and ensure existing and new programs are both

responsive and effective in meeting the needs of trafficking victims. Specifically, the needs assessment was designed to answer the following questions:

- **What services currently exist for trafficking victims?**
- **How responsive are these services to victims? Are they meeting their needs?**
- **What are the barriers to providing services to trafficking victims? Barriers to accessing services?**
- **What assistance/support do service providers need to effectively serve trafficking victims?**

The following is a report of the findings from the National Needs Assessment of Service Providers and Trafficking Victims. It begins with a review of current literature on the issue of trafficking, continues with a description of the research design and methodology of the needs assessment and presentation of the findings.

Chapter 2: Background and Understanding

1. HUMAN TRAFFICKING DEFINED

The United States Congress defines **trafficking in persons** as all acts involved in the transport, harboring, or sale of persons within national or across international borders through coercion, force, kidnapping, deception, or fraud, for purposes of placing persons in situations of forced labor or services, such as forced prostitution, domestic servitude, debt bondage, or other slavery-like practices. Whether or not an activity falls under this definition of trafficking depends on two factors: the type of work victims are forced to do and the use of coercion, force, kidnapping, deception, or fraud to secure that forced work.

A victim need not be physically transported from one location to another for the crime to fall within this definition.

The TVPA (2020) defines “severe forms of trafficking in persons” as:

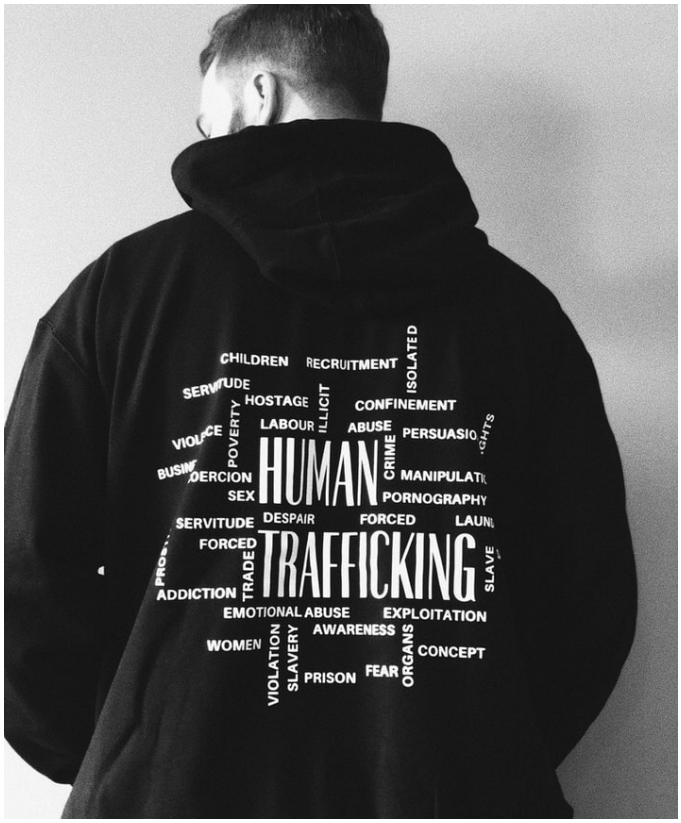
“sex trafficking in which a commercial sex act is induced by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform such an act has not attained 18 years of age; or

the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery.”

The crime of trafficking in persons affects virtually every country in the world. This trade in humans occurs on a global scale, but due to its covert and underground nature, the international magnitude of the problem is difficult to ascertain. A recent United States (U.S.) Government estimate suggests that approximately 800,000 to 900,000 persons are trafficked across international borders each year.3 Traffickers often prey on impoverished individuals who are frequently unemployed or underemployed and who may lack access to social safety nets, such as women and children from certain countries and cultures. Trafficking victims are deceived and duped through false promises of economic opportunities that await them in more affluent destination countries, such as the U.S. Hence, patterns and routes of trafficking often flow from less developed countries to neighboring countries or industrialized nations with higher standards of living.5 Victims are most commonly lured from third world countries in Asia, Eastern Europe, Africa, and Latin America that display consistently high rates of poverty, violence, and corruption.6 Economic and political instability, government corruption, illiteracy, civil unrest, low food production, high infant mortality rates, and internal armed conflict within a country all represent various indicators or “push” factors that increase the likelihood that a country will become a source of trafficking victims.

Upon arrival in a new location, instead of finding the opportunities they were promised, trafficked individuals suffer egregious human rights abuses, such as being held in slavery-like conditions and forced into prostitution, domestic service, or forced labor where they may be held in bondage, raped, beaten, and/or starved.8 In these extreme living conditions, trafficking victims suffer severe physical, psychological, and emotional health consequences as they are subjected to a range of behaviors that may include physical violence, sexual assault, emotional abuse, mind-control, and torture.

Trafficking in persons is the world's fastest growing criminal enterprise, with profits that rival the illegal drugs and arms trades. The Vienna-based International Centre for Migration Policy Development estimates that overall profits from trafficking in persons were as much as $7 billion in 1995. More recent estimates suggest that overall profits from the crime have increased to the current range of $9 billion. The crime receives its name because the perpetrators often move or 'traffic' victims from their home communities to other areas - either domestically within the country of origin or to foreign countries - to make money from their forced labor. Victims are often brought to areas where the demand is highest and most consistent, such as large cities, vacation and tourist areas, or near military bases. Also, in many cases, the trafficker charges the unknowing victim an exorbitant smuggling fee or "employment" fee. These fees range anywhere from hundreds to thousands of dollars. When the victim cannot pay this fee up front, the trafficker locks the victim in a vicious cycle of debt bondage or indentured servitude that prevents victims from ever paying off the original fee. Traffickers capitalize on victims' indebtedness and isolation and combine the use of threats, intimidation, violence, and manipulation to control victims, break their will, confine them in captivity, and force them to engage in sex acts or to labor under slave-like conditions. Types of trafficking include forced begging, bonded labor, forced prostitution, servile marriage, false adoption, domestic servitude, and work in sweatshops. In addition, trafficking may also feed into the industries of agricultural labor, food processing, pornography, sex tourism entertainment, construction, organ, harvesting, and restaurant work.



The networks of international organized crime are attracted to the trade in humans precisely because of low risk and because the criminal penalties for sex trafficking are light in most countries. This year's Trafficking in Persons Report June 2003 reiterates this fact, describing how traffickers enjoy "virtually no risk of prosecution" by using dramatic improvements in transportation and communications to run their trafficking operations. The report describes how traffickers avoid punishment for their crimes by operating in locations where there is little rule of law, lack of enforcement of anti-trafficking laws, and corruption of government and law enforcement institutions. Moreover, trafficking is uniquely lucrative because traffickers can receive steady profits from forced labor or sexual exploitation for prolonged periods of time, as compared to smugglers who receive only one payment for transporting one person. Unlike the sale of drugs, human victims can be sold repeatedly, which creates high profit margins for perpetrators. Furthermore, the practice of trafficking does not require a large capital investment on the part of the trafficker. As a result, the crime of trafficking in persons offers international organized crime syndicates a low-risk opportunity to make billions in tax-free profits by exploiting a system of seemingly unlimited supply and unending demand for a relatively low cost.

2. TRAFFICKING IN THE UNITED STATES

In its most recent yearly report entitled, Trafficking in Persons Report-June 2003, the United States Department of State (the State Department) finds that approximately 18,000 to 20,000 people are trafficked into the U.S. each year for the purposes of forced labor, involuntary domestic servitude, and/or sexual exploitation. Moreover, the 2002 publication of this report asserts that the United States is principally a transit and destination country for the practice of human trafficking. The Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (BICE) has identified numerous brothels throughout the United States that likely involved trafficking victims. Investigative findings such as this one, combined with media stories and government reports, indicate that trafficking for sexual and commercial exploitation is a growing national problem that annually increases in scope and magnitude.

Cruz (2021) described in her article how **California** (1,507 cases in 2019) has consistently garnered the state that has the highest human trafficking rate in the United States, followed by Texas (1,080 cases), Florida (896 cases), and New York (454 cases).

Thus, here are the top ten states with the highest case rate (per 100k) of human trafficking:

1. **Nevada (7.50)**
2. **Mississippi (4.99)**
3. **Florida (4.08)**
4. **Georgia (3.85)**
5. **Ohio (3.84)**
6. **Delaware (3.84)**
7. **California (3.80)**
8. **Missouri (3.78)**
9. **Michigan (3.64)**
10. **Texas (3.63)**

State	Rate (per 100k)	Human Trafficking Cases
Nevada	**7.50**	**239**
Mississippi	**4.99**	**148**
Florida	**4.08**	**896**
Georgia	**3.85**	**417**
Ohio	**3.84**	**450**
Delaware	**3.84**	**38**
California	**3.80**	**1507**
Missouri	**3.78**	**233**
Michigan	**3.64**	**364**
Texas	**3.63**	**1080**
Montana	**3.50**	**38**
Washington	**3.49**	**272**

Louisiana	**3.44**	**159**
Nebraska	**3.18**	**62**
Kansas	**3.15**	**92**
Arizona	**3.11**	**234**
Iowa	**3.09**	**98**
Maryland	**3.08**	**187**
Oregon	**3.08**	**132**
New Mexico	**3.04**	**64**
Kentucky	**3.04**	**136**
North Dakota	**2.99**	**23**
Colorado	**2.99**	**176**
Arkansas	**2.83**	**86**
South Dakota	**2.79**	**25**
New Jersey	**2.78**	**247**
Oklahoma	**2.73**	**109**
Utah	**2.72**	**90**
Maine	**2.66**	**36**
South Carolina	**2.63**	**139**
Tennessee	**2.59**	**180**
Hawaii	**2.49**	**35**
North Carolina	**2.49**	**266**
New York	**2.35**	**454**
Indiana	**2.31**	**157**
Virginia	**2.20**	**189**
West Virginia	**2.15**	**38**
Illinois	**2.12**	**267**
Pennsylvania	**2.12**	**271**
Alaska	**2.07**	**15**
Wyoming	**2.07**	**12**
Minnesota	**1.82**	**104**

Alabama	**1.66**	**82**
Wisconsin	**1.61**	**94**
Massachusetts	**1.55**	**107**
Connecticut	**1.46**	**52**
Vermont	**1.44**	**9**
Idaho	**1.40**	**26**
Rhode Island	**1.32**	**14**
New Hampshire	**1.09**	**15**

[Hotline Statistics| National Human Trafficking Hotline]

While some trafficking victims do enter the United States through legal means, many trafficking victims are transported across America's borders in a variety of ways, such as by plane, boat, car, train, or on foot. Traffickers also deceive BICE personnel by bringing women and children in under the guises of educational visas, tourist visas, or fraudulent entry papers. Furthermore, traffickers enjoy a low risk of prosecution or deterrence from the American criminal justice system. A review of prominent and recent trafficking court cases revealed that criminal penalties for traffickers appear light and harmless compared to sentences given to drug or weapons dealers. For example, the statutory maximum for sale into involuntary servitude is only ten years per count, whereas the statutory maximum for dealing ten grams of LSD or distributing a kilo of heroin is life in prison. Previously convicted traffickers charged with forced prostitution and forced servitude have received relatively light sentences, ranging from seven months to fifteen years of jail time.

Due to its underground nature, the issue of trafficking in persons has received widespread attention within the last decade in the United States, and legislation specifically geared toward trafficking into the U.S. has only recently become a salient issue for U.S. policymakers. Unfortunately, conditions are prime for the trafficking industry to continue to thrive in this country. International trafficking to the United States is likely to increase due to weak economies, unemployment and scarce job opportunities in foreign countries of origin, the low risk of prosecution and enormous profit potential for traffickers, and improved international transportation and communication infrastructures.

3. RESPONSES TO THE TRAFFICKING PROBLEM

Both domestically and internationally, various groups and institutions have made efforts to combat the trafficking problem on multiple fronts. The Federal government, domestic and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs), faith-based organizations, and social service providers have all responded with an array of prevention, intervention, and treatment strategies to address the crime. Because the crime and effects of trafficking in persons have only recently became a salient issue, the national response to the issue is still in its early stages. Consequently, although the groundwork for a coordinated infrastructure of social services is new and developing, noticeable progress has been made during a relatively short period of time.

3.1 The Federal Legislative Response

The 106th Congress passed the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000, which President Clinton signed into law on October 28, 2000.32 This Act is composed of three separate divisions. Division A of this Act is the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, commonly referred to as the TVPA. The TVPA is the first comprehensive United States law to address the various aspects of trafficking in persons. Based on a three-tiered framework of prevention, prosecution, and protection, the TVPA was formulated to reduce the imbalance between the severity of the crime and the average length of criminal sentences, to rectify the inadequacy of past United States' laws, and to begin to systematically and explicitly combat the issue of trafficking in persons on the domestic front. As it is stated in the Act, the purpose of the TVPA is to "combat trafficking in persons, a contemporary manifestation of slavery whose

victims are predominantly women and children, to ensure just and effective punishment of traffickers, and to protect their victims." The TVPA also recognized that, before its enactment, "existing legislation and law enforcement in the United States and other countries are inadequate to deter trafficking or to bring traffickers to justice, failing to reflect the gravity of the offenses involved." As one prevention strategy in the TVPA, Congress directed the President to establish and implement international initiatives to enhance economic opportunities for potential trafficking victims.

Examples of these initiatives include micro-lending programs, job training and counseling, educational programs, public awareness programs, and grants to non-governmental organizations to accelerate and advance the political, economic, social, and educational roles of women in their home countries. In addition, the TVPA also augments prevention efforts by providing for the allocation of grant funds to be set aside for research and evaluation to further explore the practices and effects of the crime.

The TVPA, along with the Immigration and Nationality Act, endeavors to provide Federal prosecutors with more statutes and stricter statutes under which to prosecute human trafficking offenses. For example, the TVPA provides the first definition under Federal law of a "victim of trafficking," and it broadens the definition of involuntary servitude as defined by the Supreme Court in United States v. Kozminski. The Immigration and Nationality Act provides stiffer penalties for trafficking with respect to peonage, slavery, involuntary servitude, or forced labor. These crimes now carry a maximum prison term of 20 years. If from any of these acts death results, or the violation includes kidnapping and/ or aggravated sexual abuse, the defendant could be imprisoned for any term of years to life. Moreover, the maximum prison term for the crime of sex trafficking of children by force, fraud or coercion is now 40 years.

To protect victims, the TVPA creates new standards of eligibility for trafficking victims to receive government benefits under Federal or State programs, regardless of their potentially illegal or undocumented status. To implement the vision outlined in the TVPA, the Federal Departments of Justice and Health and Human Services are working together to certify hundreds of trafficking victims through the Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR), so that to the same extent as refugees, trafficking victims may receive a wide

range of Federal and State benefits including employment authorization, housing, mental health services, medical care, and Supplemental Security Income. The TVPA also provides for the protection of trafficked individuals while they are in the custody of the Federal government or are assisting in the prosecution of a Federal case. In this regard, the TVPA creates eligibility for victims of trafficking to enter the Federal Witness Security Program, which is outlined in and regulated by the Victim and Witness Protection Act (VWPA).

The Immigration and Nationality Act also provides protection to human trafficking victims by granting victims a T visa that gives them temporary residency status in the United States. To be eligible for a T visa, trafficking victims must meet certain criteria including: a) that the victim is or has been a victim of a severe form of trafficking in persons as defined in section 7102(8) of the TVPA; b) the victim is physically present in the United States, American Samoa, or the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, or at a port of entry thereto, on account of such trafficking; c) the victim has complied with requests for help in the investigation or prosecution of traffickers or has not reached the age of 15; and d) the victim would suffer extreme hardship involving unusual or severe harm upon removal from the United States. In addition, the Immigration and Nationality Act outlines criteria for the protection of the families of trafficking victims as well. The Immigration and Nationality Act allows the Attorney General to grant derivative T visas to the victim's spouse and children, and to the victim's parents if the victim is less than 21 years of age. These provisions signify a shift in United States' immigration policy, which previously subjected illegal aliens to deportation, irrespective of the circumstances that brought them to the country.

The TVPA also created new mandates for numerous Federal agencies that would necessarily be involved in some aspect of response to the crime. The TVPA lays out new guidelines for the Departments of State, Justice, Labor, and Health and Human Services to respond to human trafficking in various preventive, protective, and investigative ways. For example, the TVPA calls for the establishment of an Interagency Task Force to Monitor and Combat Trafficking supported by a new office within the Department of State. In addition, the TVPA requires the Secretary of State, with the assistance of the

Interagency Task Force, to submit an Annual Report to Congress on the status of certain aspects of trafficking in persons, such as different countries' efforts to address and combat the issue. Finally, the TVPA recognizes that combating the global issue requires international cooperation between countries of origin, transit, and destination. To this end, the TVPA sets minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking that other countries must satisfy, offers assistance to these countries to meet these standards, and outlines punishments to be taken against countries that fail to meet minimum thresholds, such as economic sanctions. Overall, the passage of the TVPA represents a bold step taken by the United States government to begin to address the crime of trafficking in persons both domestically and internationally.

3.2 Critiques of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000

Although the TVPA is widely regarded as a positive step toward addressing the global crime of trafficking in persons, scholars have offered various critiques and posed numerous questions surrounding certain structural aspects of the Act. With regard to the international standards and minimum thresholds that it sets for other countries, the TVPA has been accused of being culturally imperialistic by imposing United States' requirements and values on other countries and cultures.

In addition, scholars have noted the lack of an enforcement arm built into the TVPA and question whether the Act will have the power to truly enact and enforce its three-pronged strategy of prevention, prosecution and protection described above. These critics point out that while the Act has the potential to do much good, there is no guarantee that its provisions will be enforced. Similarly, some voice concern about certain burdens of proof

being placed on victims and the strict eligibility requirements to obtain a T visa that are built into the TVPA. The TVPA has further been criticized for not providing adequate means of financial restitution for victims because it lacks mention of the awarding of actual and punitive damages, attorney's fees, and litigation expenses to victims. Alternatively, some question whether the TVPA can appropriately balance the human rights of trafficking victims with law enforcement obligations. The crime-fighting mechanism in the TVPA compromises the protection and assistance needs of trafficking victims.59 Many suggest that the protection and services infrastructure that exists for other crime victims in the United States has not yet been applied to victims of trafficking.

Many critical questions surrounding the impact of the TVPA also remain unanswered in the areas of available services, funding, international standards, and the T visa. Having been in existence for only three years, the true impact of the TVPA may be determined once further regulations are produced, implemented, and studied. The TVPA is being considered for reauthorization by Congress as the Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2003 (H.R. 2620). Sponsored by Rep. Christopher Smith (R-NJ), the bill was approved by a voice vote of the House International Relations Committee on July 23, 2003. Among other purposes, H.R. 2620 is intended to reauthorize appropriations for the TVPA for fiscal years 2004 and 2005.

3.3 Other Federal Responses to Trafficking

The White House Office of the Press Secretary offered a press release on February 25, 2003 that outlined the U.S. government's specific efforts to combat trafficking in persons. President George W. Bush has newly signed a National Security Presidential Directive to advance the United States' fight against this modern form of slavery.

This White House press release outlines different aspects of the Federal government's commitment to eradicate trafficking, which are stated as:

- **Vigorously enforcing U.S. laws against all those who traffic in persons**
- **Raising awareness at home and abroad about human trafficking and how it can be eliminated.**

- **Identifying, protecting, and assisting victims who have been exploited by traffickers.**
- **Reducing the vulnerability of individuals to trafficking through increased education, economic opportunity, and protection and promotion of human rights.**
- **Employing diplomatic and foreign policy tools to encourage other nations, the United Nations, and other multilateral institutions to work to combat this crime, to draft and enforce laws against trafficking, and to hold accountable those who are engaged in the practice.**

The press release also lists various ways in which the United States government has addressed the crime since the passage of the TVPA. Drawing from this account as well as other sources, a list of Federal actions to combat human trafficking is shown below, highlighting services that are currently available for trafficking victims from the Federal government:

Establishment of a Task Force-On February 13, 2002, President Bush signed Executive Order 13257 which established a Cabinet-level Interagency Task Force to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons. In addition, a specific agency entitled the Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons was created within the Department of State. This office has assessed the progress of 165 governments in addressing trafficking and published findings in the third annual Trafficking in Persons report submitted to Congress each year by the Secretary of State.

Funding for Anti-trafficking Programs-In FY 2002, the Department of State funded over 110 antitrafficking programs in approximately 50 countries. These programs provide various forms of assistance to victims, such as shelters and reintegration services. Additionally, since January 2001, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) has worked to support anti-trafficking programs and initiatives in developing countries. In FY 2002, USAID spent more than 10 million dollars throughout 30 countries where there are high levels of human trafficking.68 To date, the Department of Health

and Human Services has provided over 4 million dollars in grant funding to service providers throughout the country that provide education, outreach, and direct assistance to trafficking victims.69 Lastly, the Department of Justice Office for Victims of Crime recently awarded 12 grants in January 2003 totaling more than 9.5 million dollars for trafficking-related services. Eight of these grants received funding to establish comprehensive social services for trafficking victims in specific States or regions, such as emergency medical attention, food, shelter, legal support, and mental health counseling. These grants are also designed to focus on those victims of trafficking who have not yet received a certification from the Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR) and are thus in their pre-certification period. Three grants will support similar specialized services to trafficking victims in larger multi-State areas.

Certification for Victims-The Department of Health and Human Services has implemented a process of “certifying” victims of trafficking through the ORR to offer victims short-term eligibility for a wide range of Federal and State social services. To date, the ORR has certified over 370 victims of trafficking.

Granting T Visas-Since Attorney General John Ashcroft announced the implementation of the new T visa status, the BICE has been able to grant 23 T visas to trafficking victims. The BICE has also granted 300 “continued presence” requests and is currently processing 150 new T visa applications.

Increasing Prosecution-Since the passage of the TVPA, the Justice Department has opened a record number of trafficking investigations and prosecuted more traffickers than at any time in recent years. Resulting convictions include 36 defendants in sex trafficking cases. Plus, trafficking investigations have been initiated in 46 States and in all United States territories. As described by Rep. Christopher Smith in his statement to the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on International Relations, Federal prosecutors initiated prosecutions of 79 traffickers in the past two years.

It is evident that the United States government is making numerous multi-pronged efforts to combat human trafficking both at home and abroad. Through the combined efforts of

various offices and agencies within the White House, the Department of State, the Department of Justice, the Department of Health and Human Services, and the Department of Labor, the government has begun to build the foundations of an infrastructure designed to serve and protect trafficking victims.

3.4 Other Responses to Trafficking

Non-governmental Organizations

Numerous domestic and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have taken up the cause of trafficking in persons and are addressing the issue from multiple angles ranging from direct service to policy research.

Although few domestic NGOs have formed for the explicit purpose of serving only trafficking victims, other organizations, such as domestic violence shelters, sexual assault clinics, human rights advocates, and/or refugee services have responded by providing

various direct services to trafficking victims whom they have encountered in their work with other victim populations. These organizations may be Federally-funded, State-funded, and/or privately funded through various foundations. Local advocacy and cultural organizations designed to serve a particular ethnic group also may encounter trafficking victims in their work. Because human trafficking is a complex, multi-dimensional, and often an international crime, trafficking victims present characteristics and needs that overlap and can fit into many areas of service including immigration, legal, health, and/or mental health services. Notably, agencies in these areas vary by scope, size, specialization, and location, which affects the number of trafficking victims that any organization can serve, or the specific needs that any organization can meet. Consequently, because many service agencies specialize in one particular area, these agencies collaborate and piece services together to best meet the numerous needs of trafficking victims. Cooperation between Federal and State government agencies and the NGOs that serve this population is vital for the well-being of trafficking victims. Overall, regardless of whether or not they were formed for the explicit purpose of serving trafficking victims, many non-governmental organizations have responded to the crime of trafficking in persons by offering critical and much-needed direct services to trafficking victims.

Other NGOs that do not provide direct services to trafficking victims also play an important role in the response to the crime of trafficking in persons. These organizations may provide policy research, legislative advocacy, information dissemination, or public awareness campaigns. Efforts of these agencies combat trafficking on many of the necessary fronts that supplement direct services. For example, Vital Voices, a global partnership NGO that supports women's issues, has partnered with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime to launch a global television campaign to combat human trafficking, which includes the distribution of two public service announcements (PSAs) that were released on July 31, 2003. These PSAs have aired in over 35 countries and are being distributed to broadcasters throughout the United States.

As a whole, regardless of their specific focus or mission, NGOs play an extremely important role in the response to human trafficking. Through the combined efforts of

NGOs, a coordinated infrastructure of services for trafficking victims is growing in response to the crime.

Faith-Based Organizations

Faith-based organizations have mobilized to help address the trafficking in persons problem in the United States in various ways. First, two national faith-based agencies, the United States Conference of Catholic Bishops (USCCB) and the Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Services, administer the Federal government's resettlement program for unaccompanied refugee minors in multiple locations throughout the country.80 The program was formed in the late 70's and early 80's and was originally intended solely for the care of unaccompanied refugee entrant minors (UR/EM). However, the program has adapted in recent years to serve trafficking victims under the age of 18. The Department of Health and Human Services Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR) works with these two, national faith-based agencies to shelter and resettle trafficking victims who are minors. Although the incorporation of trafficking victims into these programs is a relatively new phenomenon, linkages and partnerships are in the process of forming, and these shelters now represent a new available service for trafficking victims.

In addition to administering this national resettlement program, faith-based organizations also offer a variety of social services to trafficking victims in general. Both of the aforementioned national faith-based agencies attempt to meet the needs of trafficking victims through the provision of immigration and refugee services, legal services, and services for basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter. Because these agencies have multiple locations throughout the country, the USCCB and the Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Services play a valuable and integral role in responding to the trafficking in persons on the domestic front. Other faith-based organizations, such as the Salvation Army, are beginning to work with trafficking victims by providing shelter and temporary housing services to victims of trafficking. In some locations, the Salvation Army permits its trafficking residents to utilize other social services that the Salvation Army provides (e.g., drug and alcohol treatment, primary health care, employment services, life skills classes).

Social Service Providers

State and local social service providers also play a role in the response to the crime of trafficking in persons. For example, trafficking victims may require services from city hospitals and city and State Health Departments for numerous physical and mental health needs. As collaboration among providers increases to meet the multiple needs of trafficking victims, social service agencies offer another important resource and are often included in the overall nexus of necessary services.

As the various sectors of providers have gained more knowledge of the necessary elements of meeting the needs of trafficking victims, a concurrent recognition has occurred that no one agency can do it alone. Not only do trafficking victims present a comprehensive host of needs, but also trafficking investigations and prosecutions require the coordination of efforts from a multitude of Federal, State, and local agencies. These agencies may include law enforcement entities, government agencies, health services, mental health organizations, legal services, non-governmental organizations, shelters, and social service providers.81 In response to the need for collaboration, many major

cities have formed citywide task forces or formal coalitions to address the trafficking problem in their particular locale or region. Examples of cities that have pioneered such coalitions include Atlanta, Chicago, Dallas, Los Angeles, New York, and San Francisco. In addition, the Freedom Network is a national coalition of non-governmental agencies dedicated to advocating for and empowering trafficking victims. As human trafficking grows in prevalence in the United States, domestic service providers are responding with the necessary steps to build a coordinated and collaborative infrastructure of effective services that meets the comprehensive needs of trafficking victims. While no one agency can complete the task alone, service providers collaborate to help piece their existing services together in an attempt to provide trafficking victims with the unique blend of services they require.

Chapter 3: Methodology

A variety of methods were employed to conduct the needs assessment of US-based service providers and trafficking victims. This chapter presents a detailed description of each methodological facets of the needs assessment.

1. RESEARCH DESIGN

This needs assessment incorporated multiple methods, including a national telephone survey and focus groups with service providers and trafficking victims. This multi-method process allowed Caliber to gather comprehensive information gained. The four overarching research questions of the needs assessment were:

- **What services currently exist for trafficking victims?**
- **How responsive are these victims? Are they meeting their needs?**
- **What are barriers to providing services to trafficking victims? Barriers to accessing services?**
- **What assistance/support do service providers need to effectively serve trafficking victims?**

Additional research methods (e.g., on-site visits, face-to-face interviews, a comparative design with international service providers) were considered but they were not made a part of the research design because of project budget and traveling limitations, and because they were found to be outside the scope of the NIJ task order. Thus, to stay within the confines of the budget and the intention of the task order, the research design was necessarily limited to phone interviews with domestic victim service providers and focus groups with providers and trafficking victims.

2. STUDY SAMPLE

In the original research design, New York City, Florida (Miami and Central Florida), and Atlanta, GA were to be the three sites included in the sample. Caliber was to select a stratified sample of fifty victim service providers at each of these sites for inclusion in the needs assessment study. To ensure the inclusion in the needs assessment study. To ensure the inclusion of a wide range of programs/ services directed toward trafficking victims, more than fifty providers working in programs/services such as community shelters (e.g., domestic violence, homeless) victim and immigrant advocate groups, legal assistance, health clinics, and faith-based organizations were to be contacted.

Modifications to this research design were made for several reasons. The trafficking victim population is difficult to identify, and there is a limited number of service providers that serve this population. In order to reach the desired sample size, the telephone survey was expanded from the original three sites to a national sample (See map of geographical representation in Appendix A). Furthermore, use of a national sample ensured the inclusion of a broad range of service providers, both in terms of regions and types of services provided. The resultant data provided a more comprehensive and complete picture of the complexities surrounding service provision to trafficking victims, which can vary significantly according to types of trafficking victims, countries of origin, types of services provided, and the region/community in which the service provider is located.

In the absence of a recognized and formally established comprehensive listing of service providers for trafficking victims, reaching the desired sample size was a challenge. Based on the sample of eight informal telephone calls to service providers, a review of research studies, trafficking conference materials, grant information to agencies/organizations addressing trafficking, a thorough search of the Internet, and a review of service marketing materials targeting victims of domestic violence and sexual assaults who are immigrants or who were trafficked, Caliber compiled a list of over 1,000 US-based victim service providers. Five service providers, selected for their close association with trafficking victims, helped Caliber narrow the list to approximately 207 service providers that were most likely to have had experience working with trafficking victims in the US.

All of the providers on the list were contacted for the survey which, especially targeting the telephone survey to geographical areas where research has shown there to be a concentration of trafficking victims in the U.S. and a variety of agencies/ organizations addressing the problem and working with this population. In the event that any of the agencies/organizations contacted did not have experience serving trafficking victims or declined to participate in the telephone survey, the names of additional US-based providers of services for trafficking victims not currently on the contact list were solicited from respondents. The expanded list was used to provide an enhanced sampling frame for the survey of providers and enhanced the final provider sample size.

3. DATA COLLECTION

The following sections describe the methods of data collection used for the needs assessment (i.e., telephone surveys and focus groups).

3.1 Telephone Survey

The primary method of data collection for the needs assessment was a telephone survey. Telephone surveys have several advantages over mail surveys. They have higher response rates, are relatively inexpensive compared with face-to-face interviews, and require less time than mail surveys. Additionally, conducting telephone surveys from a central location with a small staff of interviewers allows for greater control over data collection.

The telephone survey was piloted with five service providers and given in hard-copy form to three service providers with extensive experience with trafficking victims. The pilot tested for possible problems with using the computerized survey (e.g., skip patterns, recording and storing data). The pilot also tested for clarity and understanding of questions, item wording, and appropriateness and completeness of response categories. Additionally, the pilot was used to test for the accuracy of predicted time for completing the survey, so that respondents would be given a realistic estimate of how much time would be involved in participating in the survey. Based on the feedback from experts in the field and the pilot, revisions were made to the survey, script and response lists.

The revised instrument was then reviewed by Caliber's Institutional Review Board (IRB) to protect the welfare of human research subjects and to ensure that physical, psychological and social risks to study participants are minimized. Caliber's IRB reviewed and approved the telephone survey and accompanying protocols. The instrument was then submitted to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) for review and was approved for use from October 2002 through January 2003.

The OMB-approved instrument used for the needs assessment was organized in six sections: Background Information; General Knowledge; Client Population; Service Delivery; Barriers to Service; and Collaboration. (See Appendix B for the Telephone Survey Protocol.) Each completed telephone survey lasted an average of 45 minutes.

In total, 311 service providers were contacted for the survey. Of these contacts, 152 were ineligible to complete the survey because they reported that they did not have any experience working with trafficking victims. There were a total of 98 completed interviews and 61 non-responses (7 refusals and 54 non-contacts82). Thus, the valid sample size was 159 service providers and the response rate for the survey was 62 percent, which is a typical response rate for this type of survey. Several factors contributed to the 62 percent response rate. OMB clearance to administer this survey was restricted to three months. In addition, the data collection period for this survey occurred during a seasonal time period (October through January) during which service providers were more difficult to contact. Some respondents indicated that due to limited resources, no staff were available to complete the survey. Also, some providers may not have returned telephone calls because they knew they were ineligible to participate. All of these factors increased the number of non-contacts and resulted in a response rate of 62 percent. The telephone survey was created in Microsoft Access to allow for easier entry of responses, to facilitate skip patterns for the interviewer, and to reduce the amount of time needed for entering data for analysis. As part of the survey, standard scripts were developed and used by staff members conducting the phone surveys. (See Appendix C for the telephone survey scripts.) To help alleviate the burden on respondents, Caliber contacted respondents prior to conducting the survey to set up a time to complete the survey. Contact logs were completed for each successful and unsuccessful contact. Due to the complex nature of

some of the questions, response lists were also generated for several of the questions and sent in advance to service providers as a facilitation tool. (See Appendix D for the telephone survey response lists.)

Staff tasked with conducting surveys were trained to ensure clear understanding of the project and familiarity with the content of the survey, and to ensure standardization in survey administration. Weekly meetings were held to discuss problems or issues that occurred during the interviews and to identify solutions that could be applied systematically by all staff. The database was periodically reviewed for errors or missing information.

3.2 Focus Groups

Following the telephone survey, Caliber conducted focus groups with service providers and trafficking victims. The focus groups were used to explore patterns in the telephone survey data and to gather richer qualitative data about the needs of both trafficking victims and service providers, thereby providing a "check and balance" to the needs assessment data.

Service Provider Focus Group

The service provider focus group was conducted with 20 service providers who attended a trafficking conference in Dallas, TX in February 2003. The focus group lasted approximately 75 minutes, during which time service providers were presented preliminary findings from the needs assessment. The Project Manager presented the findings and facilitated the focus group discussion, and a scribe wrote detailed notes. A discussion on the findings was structured around main topics such as certification process/TVPA, collaboration/communication, training/education, victim identification, outreach, and public awareness.

Trafficking Victim Focus Group

A focus group protocol for trafficking victims was developed based on the extensive literature review as well as a preliminary analysis of the data. Three service providers with extensive experience working with trafficking victims reviewed the focus group protocol to ensure that it was appropriate, sensitive, and clear. Revisions were made to the

instrument, and it was reviewed and approved by Caliber's IRB. (See Appendix E for the victim focus group introductory letter and focus group guide.)

Caliber worked closely with a key agency to help identify and recruit participants for the focus group. Additionally, Caliber offered a modest compensation to victims for their participation ($50 per victim). The Project Manager facilitated the focus group discussion with six labor trafficking victims. Two translators were present to interpret statements made by the facilitator and the participants, a therapist was present to provide services, should they be needed, and a scribe wrote detailed notes.

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in analyzing the needs assessment data. The findings of the analyses are presented in detail in Chapter IV.

Chapter 4: Key Findings

The key findings from the needs assessment (telephone surveys and focus groups) are presented in this chapter. It is important to note that these findings are based on the survey responses of 98 U.S.-based service providers and information gathered from an additional 20 providers and 6 victims of trafficking through focus group interviews. Although every effort was made to reach a representative sample of providers working with trafficking victims (e.g., type of agency, type of victim served, geography), the generalizability of the findings has limitations. The results do, however, identify priority issues and pressing needs of both service providers and victims of trafficking. Where possible, differences in responses by type of respondent are reported for clarification.

1. Demographics

Service providers from 22 States and the District of Columbia completed the telephone survey. As shown in Figure 1, when the sample was aggregated by U.S. region, representation was greatest for the West (33%), Northeast (22%), and Southeast (20%) portions of the country. This pattern is fairly consistent with the documented patterns of trafficking within the United States.

1.1 Types of Agencies Represented

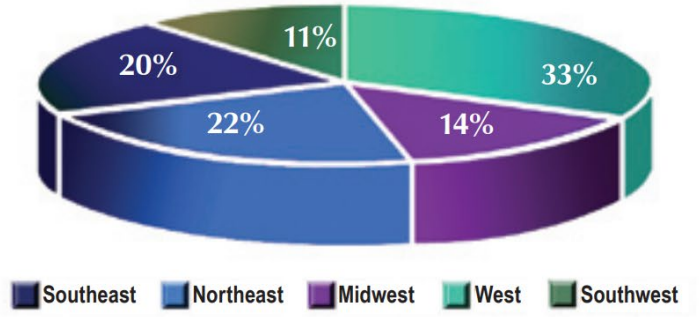
The telephone respondents represented a variety of jurisdictions and types of service organizations. While efforts were made to ensure that telephone calls were spread out over the United States, efforts were also made to ensure inclusion of a breadth of agencies that work with this population. Respondents were asked where their programs were based, and answers were then coded into eleven different categories. The results are shown in Figure 2.

Each agency/organization category is described below:

Legal: These organizations provide legal services to a wide array of victims and encounter trafficking victims in a legal capacity. This category includes Legal Aid organizations, legal non-profits, District Attorney's offices, and private law firms.

Health: These organizations provide health services to wide array of victims and encounter trafficking victims in this capacity. This category may include private doctors, clinics, hospitals, and community health centers.

Fig. 1 Sample Representation by Region



Education: These institutions provide academic-based services to providers in the form of research assistance, training, and classes or workshops. They also may operate clinics such as legal aid clinics where victims can go for assistance.

Police Department/Law Enforcement: These agencies investigate and report trafficking cases, and provide initial social services through their victims' advocate divisions.

Immigrant: These organizations serve immigrants, refugees, and asylum-seekers who may require services for a variety of types of victimization, including domestic violence, sexual assault, and torture. They do not necessarily focus their services specifically on trafficking victims, but due to the large overlap between trafficking victims and these other groups, these organizations often serve trafficking victims as well.

Prostitution Recovery Services: These organizations serve prostitutes who are either currently prostituting or are trying to recover and escape from a life of prostitution. This category encompasses street outreach organizations, prostitution counseling services, and prostitution recovery houses/ transitional living houses. These types of organizations encounter victims of sex trafficking.

Sexual Assault: These organizations serve women and children who have been sexually assaulted. Because sexual assault is one potential factor in the overall experience of trafficking victims, these organizations encounter trafficking victims, these organizations encounter trafficking victims in this capacity.

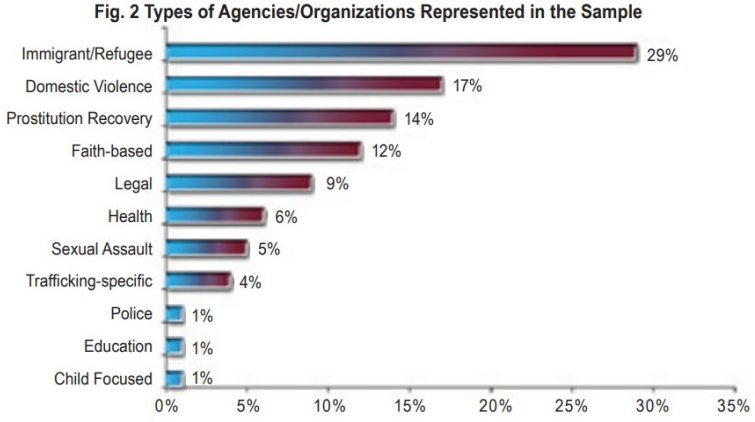
Domestic violence: These organizations serve domestic violence victims but occasionally encounter trafficking victims as well. This category includes domestic violence shelters.

Trafficking: These organizations were created specifically to serve trafficking victims.

Child-focused services: These organizations focus on serving and providing shelter for children who may be homeless, abused, or victimized in some way. These organizations typically encounter children who have been domestically trafficked or recruited into prostitution.

Faith-based services: These religiously affiliated organizations may encounter trafficking victims in their service areas, particularly in the areas of immigrant and refugee services, domestic violence, sexual assault, health services, and legal assistance.

Fig. 2 Types of Agencies/Organizations Represented in the Sample



1.2 Organizational Characteristics

General descriptive information about respondents and their organizations was collected. On average, respondents reported working in their current positions for 6 years. Interviewers spoke with directors (32%), front-line staff (30%), executive directors including founders and presidents (17%), attorneys (12%), case managers/social workers (7%), and volunteers (2%). As shown in Figure 3, most of the respondents reported an average monthly caseload of up to 50 clients.

As shown in Figure 4, respondents generally reported serving victims other than trafficking victims.

A majority of the respondents (75%) indicated that their organizations employ up to five full-time staff who may encounter trafficking victims in their work. Additionally, 90 percent of respondents use the services of up to five part-time staff who can work with their trafficking population. These organizations also utilize a steady stream of volunteers to help out with their caseloads.

While caution should be exercised in generalizing from the information gained from this sample to the service provider population at large, the breadth and experience of the study sample does offer some validation for the quality of the findings.

Fig. 3 General Client Monthly Caseload

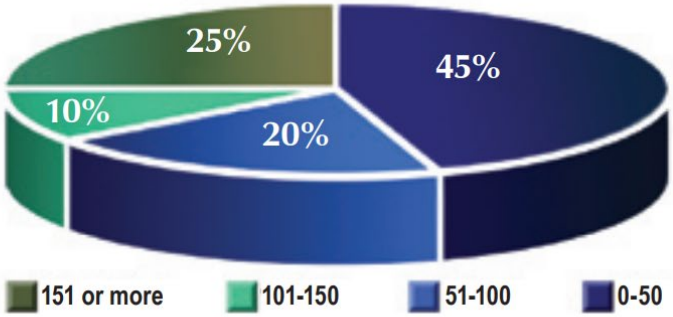
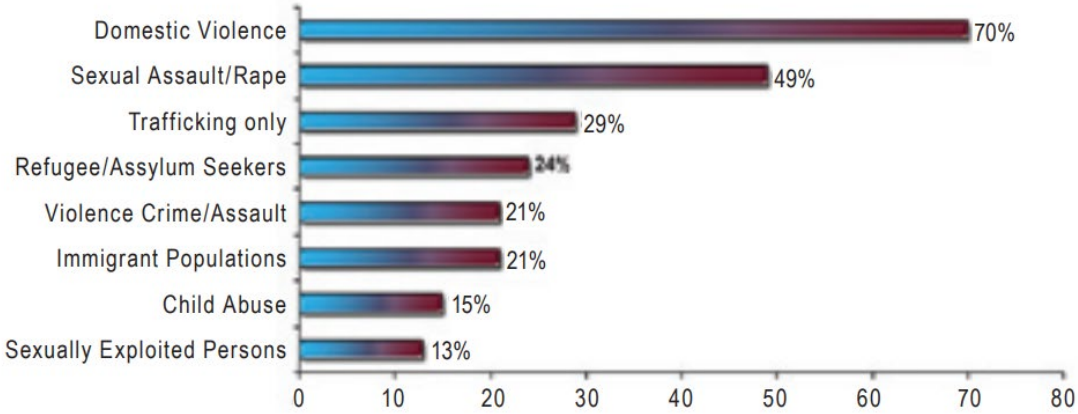


Fig. 4 General Types of Clients Served



1.3 Trafficking Victim Population

As shown in Figure 5, the majority of respondents reported having worked with 20 or more trafficking victims while serving in their current position.

Additionally, as can be seen in Figure 6, one-third of the respondents reported serving at least one to five trafficking victims in the year 2002.

The majority (84%) of respondents identified clients as trafficking victims by an assessment of the victims' problems. Other methods of identification included the victims'

legal status (29%), or the victim's self-identification (14%). A majority of the respondents (75%) classified the legal status of their trafficking victims as undocumented immigrants who are in the United States without a lawful immigration status, either because they came unlawfully, remained in the U.S. illegally after their lawful status expired, or used fake passports or visas. Twenty-six percent of respondents said their trafficking victims either have permanent resident status or are U.S. citizens; 14 percent reported working with victims who had received a T visa, ORR certification, or were waiting for the documents to be processed (pre-certification period); and 9 percent of respondents said their victims were refugees or asylum seekers.

Fig. 5 Number of Trafficking Victims Ever Served

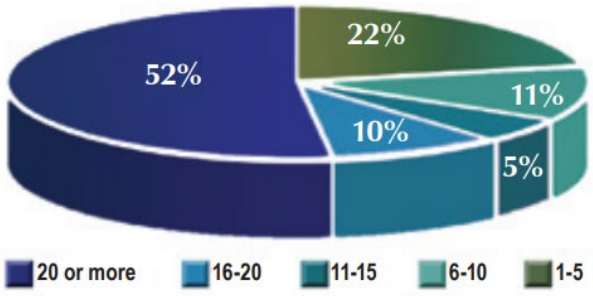
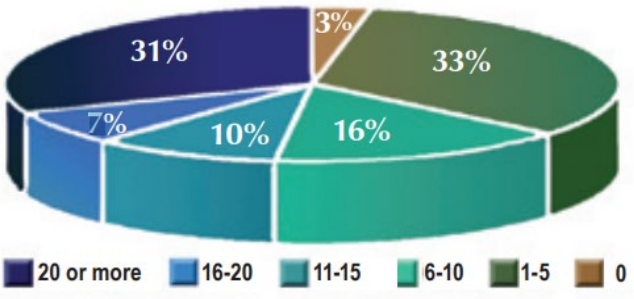


Fig. 6 Number of Trafficking Victims Served in 2002



1.4 Type of Trafficking Victim Served

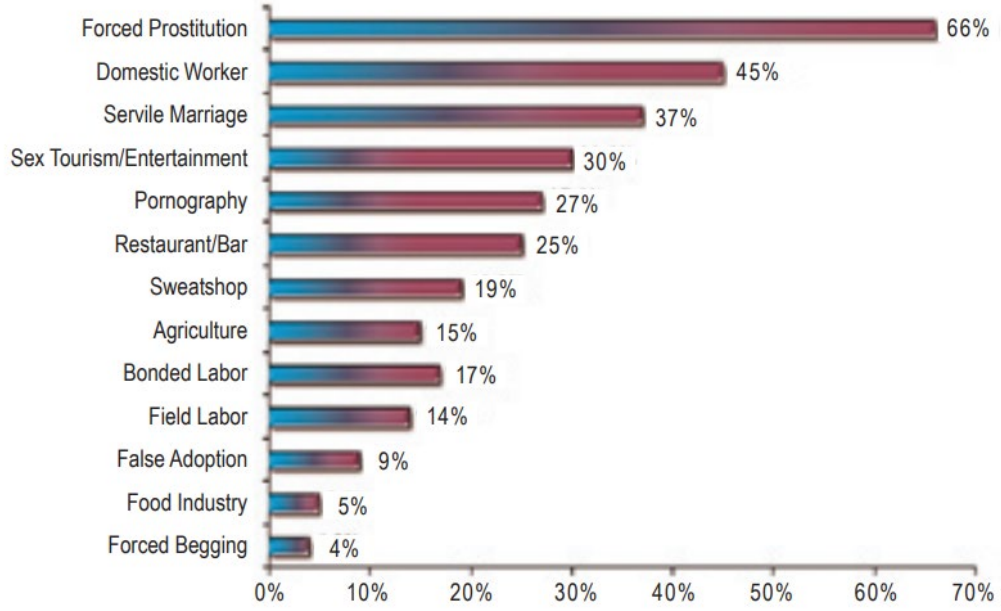
Victimization Categories

A majority of respondents (89%) work with female trafficking victims. Of those working with females, 93 percent reported working with adult women. Forty-five percent of respondents also reported working with male trafficking victims, who are primarily adults. Those respondents who reported working with children (39%) work primarily in organizations that focus their efforts on serving children's needs. The categories and the percentage of respondents who reported working with each victim type are shown in Figure 7.

For some data analysis, the various categories for types of victims served were collapsed into two general categories:

Sex trafficking victims (80% who represent victims of forced prostitution, servile marriage, sex tourism/entertainment, pornography)
Labor trafficking (68% who represent victims forced to act as domestic workers, restaurant/bar workers, sweatshop workers, agricultural workers, bounded

Fig. 7 Types of Trafficking Victims



laborers, field laborers, food industry, forced begging)

Countries Represented and Languages Spoken

Service providers reported that trafficking victims that they work with come from many different countries. Figure 8 presents the region and percentage of respondents who believe their trafficking victims were from a particular location. A complete breakdown of response choices for countries located within each region is included in Appendix F.

Respondents reported working with trafficking victims who speak many different languages. Figure 9 presents the percentage of service providers who reported their trafficking victims speak these primary languages.

Fig. 8 Trafficking Victims' Region of Origin

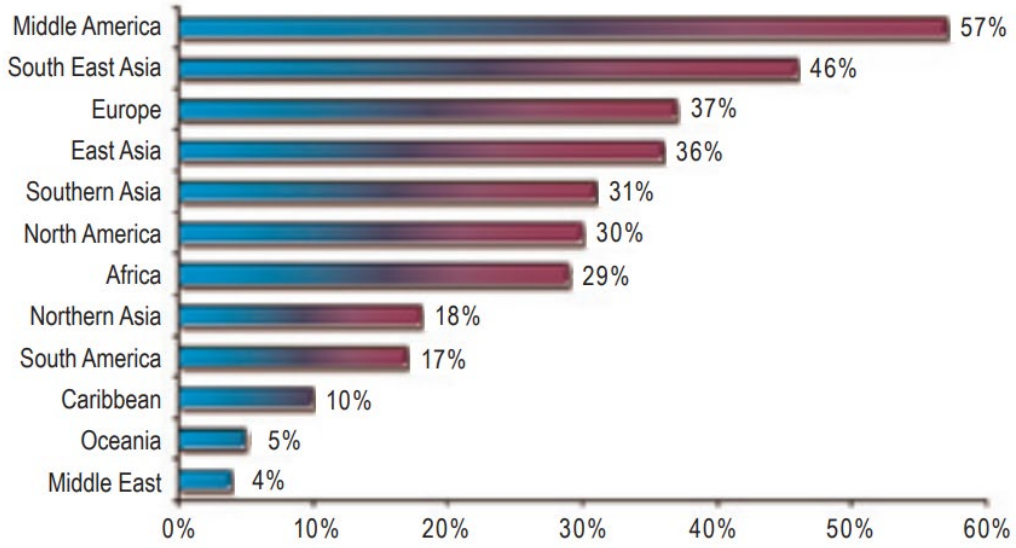
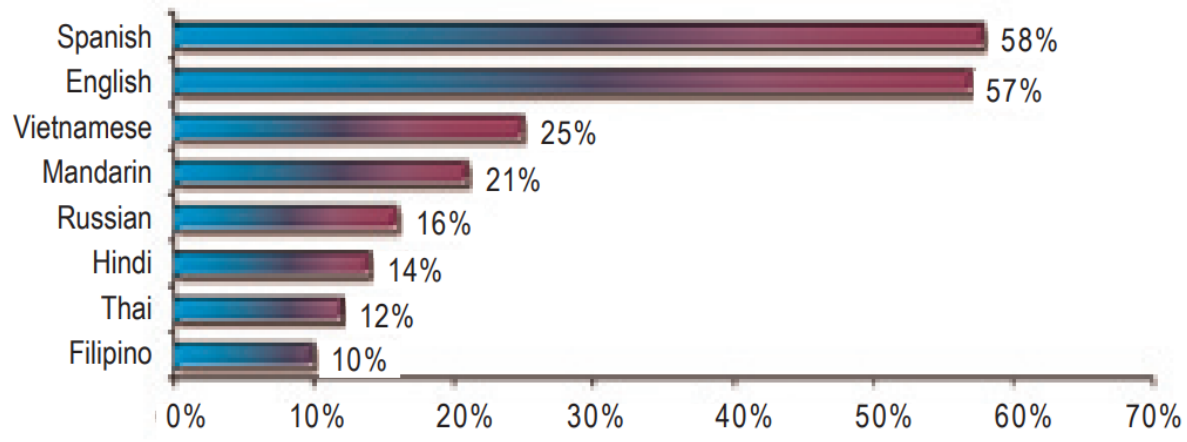


Fig. 9 Primary Languages Spoken by Trafficking Victims



Twenty-eight percent of respondents reported meeting all of their trafficking victims' language needs, while 64 percent reported meeting some of their language needs. A review of the qualitative data show that the respondents meet their language needs in various ways, such as staff, volunteers, interpreter services, victims' family members, other service provider organizations, language banks, or AT&T language lines. Even though 8 percent of service providers responded that they were not able to meet all of their trafficking victims' language needs in-house, they explained that they were able to meet these language needs with outside assistance.

2. NEEDS AND SERVICES

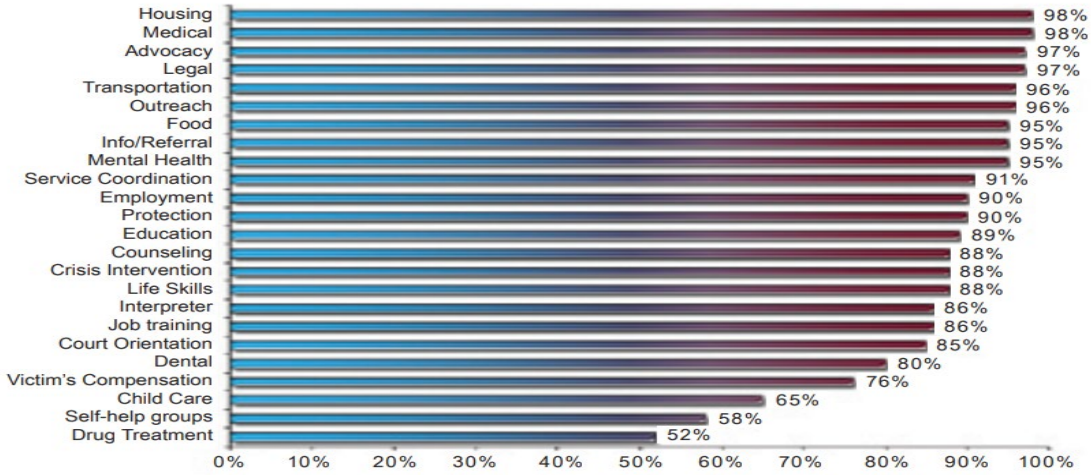
Research participants were asked several questions pertaining to the special needs of trafficking victims and the services that are available to meet these needs.

In this section, the needs of trafficking victims are discussed, followed by the similarity and differences of trafficking victims' needs to other crime victims' needs, the length of service provided, providers' ability to meet needs, and in-house protocols.

2.1 Trafficking Victims' Needs

Respondents reported that trafficking victims were in need of numerous services. Figure 10 illustrates the types of services needed, as reported by service providers. When the data are separated by type of trafficking victim, it appears that respondents believe labor trafficking victims are most in need of advocacy (97%) and medical services (97%). The greatest needs of sex trafficking victims seem to be legal/ paralegal services (99%), medical services (98%), and information/referral services (97%).

Fig. 10 Trafficking Victims' Needs



2.2 How Trafficking Victims Are Both Similar to and Different from Other Victims of Crime

According to respondents, trafficking victims' problems are most similar to the problems of domestic violence victims, immigrants/refugees, and sexually exploited persons.83 However, respondents reported that there were some noticeable differences. While the majority of respondents addressed these questions by listing general similarities and differences between trafficking victims and other victims of crime, 28 percent of respondents made direct comparisons between trafficking victims and the other groups that they serve. For example, respondents who explicitly characterized the differences between domestic violence victims and trafficking victims reported that:

- **Whereas domestic violence victims are running from one perpetrator, trafficking victims may be running from a whole network of organized crime.**
- **Domestic violence victims may be going up against one angry man, whereas trafficking victims may be implicating powerful government-sponsored agencies and organized crime rings by pleading their case.**
- **Trafficking victims seem to be less stable overall than domestic violence victims.**
- **Trafficking victims know much less about the criminal justice system in the United States than some domestic violence victims.**
- **Trafficking victims have less contact with other people; they are more isolated than the average battered woman.**
- **The trauma and mental health needs of trafficking victims are more extreme than what we see with our domestic violence clients.**
- **As compared to domestic violence victim, trafficking victims do not have U.S. citizenship, which makes it harder to serve their needs.**
- **Trafficking victims' cases take longer than domestic violence victims' cases; one trafficking case is about as much work as 20 domestic violence cases.**
- **There is not a web of coordinated support services for trafficking victims like there is for domestic violence victims.**
- **As compared to battered immigrant women, trafficking victims more often come in larger groups have higher safety concerns, are more vulnerable, do not know how many perpetrators there are, and have higher levels of fear.**
- **As compared to battered immigrant women, trafficking victims do not have the same opportunities for healing. They have fewer resources available to them. They lack basic resources, such as where to eat, sleep, or live. They are more vulnerable to exploitation. They have less understanding of what is happening to them or the legal system.**

Respondents also expressed explicit differences between the problems suffered by immigrants/refugees and trafficking victims through the following observations:

- **Trafficking victims were exploited and deceived to come to the United States, while other immigrants often came to the United States willingly.**
- **As compared to asylum seekers, trafficking victims have different protection needs, are more vulnerable to re-victimization, are less educated, and are much more exploited once they arrive in the United States.**
- **Trafficking victims are in much more danger in the United States, as compared to refugees**
- **Trafficking victims are more likely to be uneducated, as compared to refugees, who are more likely to be better educated.**

Respondents directly compared the cases of sexually exploited persons to trafficking victims in that:

Local prostitutes still have contact with their family, whereas trafficking victims often do not at least prostitutes sometimes have a home of their own, but trafficking victims do not have a home.

The purpose of asking respondents, especially those who traditionally work with victims other than victims of trafficking, to compare trafficking victims' problems to those they generally serve, was not intended to diminish in any way the seriousness of other forms of victimization or to minimize the needs of other victims. The question was asked to ascertain more information regarding the complexity of the situation faced by trafficking victims in relation to other victims and to provide some early indication for some of the challenges experienced by service providers working outside their area of expertise.

2.3 Duration of Service

As shown in Figure 11, most respondents reported working with their trafficking victims for more than 12 months.

Those providers who work with trafficking victims for 12 months or more generally are serving victims who are part of a prosecution, which is an extremely complicated and lengthy process. Respondents point out that, while providers are working with these victims for a year or more, the victim does not necessarily have formal legal status in the United States entitling the victim to welfare benefits. Thus, most respondents who work with victims during their pre-certification period must finance their services and find other providers willing to share some of the financial burden.84 This finding supports the notion that working with trafficking victims can be considered more challenging than working with other victims because of, among other things, the extra burden of the pre-certification period. General comments about the pre-certification period include:

While waiting for the ORR letter, victims are left in limbo. The TVPA does not adequately provide means for meeting victims' needs during this initial period.

Service providers have little to no control over the commencement and speed of the certification process.

Victims who are part of a prosecution tend to stay in one location longer, enabling service providers to work with them for longer periods of time. However, if a trafficking victim is not part of a prosecution, the victim tends to access services intermittently, making it more challenging for providers to move the trafficking victim from a state of vulnerability and dependency to a state of stability or independency.

Fig. 11 Average Length of Service Provision

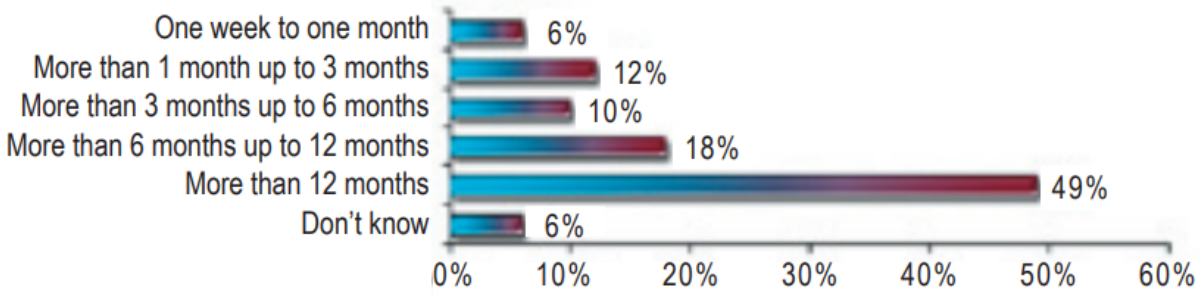
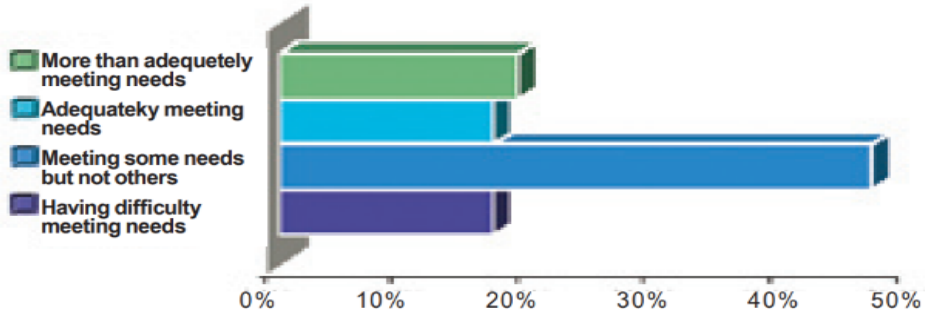


Fig. 12 Ability to Meet Trafficking Victims' Needs



2.4 Ability to Meet Trafficking Victims' Needs

Figure 12 shows that on average, most respondents find that with their existing resources and what they were able to piece together with the help of other service provider organizations, they were able to meet some of their trafficking victims' needs and not others.

When 'ability to meet needs' was broken down by where the service providers' programs are based, it appeared that sexual assault (60%) and prostitution recovery services (43%) had the greatest difficulty meeting their trafficking victims' needs. Faith-based (17%), immigrant (16%) and domestic violence (6%) organizations also expressed difficulty meeting this population's needs, but less so than the other organizations. Qualitative comments from respondents working in faith-based, immigrant, and domestic violence organizations suggest that this increased capacity is due to the breadth of services provided in house by these organizations. In the words of one respondent from a faith-based organization, "[We] are so big and self-contained, [we] refer and collaborate within [our] own agency." Another respondent described her positive experience working with a faith-based organization by saying, "At [faith-based organizations] they can provide almost anything. We didn't really have to refer at all. This is a unique thing about [faith-

based organizations]. They can refer to other departments within their organization because they are so big and comprehensive."

2.5 Trafficking Protocols

Only 28 percent of the respondents noted that they had formal procedures or protocols in place to assist them in serving trafficking victims. The types of protocols that are currently being used by the respondents varied in depth, breadth, and structure. A few service providers have a relatively fluid protocol, whereby each victim is handled on a case-by-case basis, with only a general framework in place. These service providers stressed the importance of having a core course of treatment, while ensuring that the protocols are client centered and victims are decision makers in determining the course of treatment. Several service providers employ existing protocols that have been developed for other clients (e.g., domestic violence victims, refugees, etc.) or have modified these protocols slightly to be used with trafficking victims. These modified protocols are then used in conjunction with more intensive case management. By and large, respondents who utilize protocols tend to have structured tools in place to assist them in assessing the victims' needs and providing the appropriate services. These tools include: intake protocols; needs assessments; initial and intermittent safety planning assessments; confidentiality and consent forms; safety protocols; crisis intervention plans; social service checklists; protocols for obtaining housing and food assistance; health protocols (e.g., medical, dental, mental health, sexual trauma, substance abuse); T visa application packets; and protocols to establish goals for the client (e.g., educational, vocational, personal, etc.).

While a little less than one-third of the respondents use protocols, those that do use them find them extremely useful. On a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 representing "useful," on average, respondents rated the usefulness of protocols at 4.67. All 27 of these respondents also felt that formal protocols were necessary. In fact, whether or not respondents currently use protocols, the majority (81%) felt that protocols were necessary and needed to assist in providing services that meet the needs of victims. In qualitative comments, respondents noted a variety of reasons for needing formal protocols. Many service providers feel it is important to standardize service provision, which will clearly define the roles and

responsibilities of different Federal, State, and local agencies. With such an extensive need for collaboration, it will also standardize the referral process and streamline information sharing among service providers. Respondents also note the importance of using protocols to ensure that victims receive a certain quality of service. In the words of one respondent, “[Protocols] help reduce the potential for institutional memory loss when an experienced worker leaves.” Formal protocols standardize the procedure so that even inexperienced workers will be able to provide the same level of service to victims and prevent any unnecessary trauma. In addition, respondents consider trafficking cases to have an elevated level of trauma and danger, requiring highly structured protocols to handle the nuances of these victims’ needs and the unique safety concerns. Formal protocols would ensure that cases are handled thoroughly and with sensitivity.

Those service providers that did not feel that structured protocols were necessary (19%) gave several reasons. Most commonly, service providers feel that trafficking cases are so unique that any pre-structured protocol would be inappropriate. As one service provider commented, “A provider’s primary responsibility is to listen to victims and let victims set the course of their own treatment.” Case management should be “free flowing, flexible, and always on the victim’s terms.” This ensures that service providers are responsive to each victim and are not “stymied” by a structured protocol. Service providers additionally mention that trafficking cases are so rare that, with limited resources, it was not fiscally sensible to invest resources in the preparation of a protocol that will largely go unused.

3. ACCESSING AND PROVIDING SERVICES

3.1 Knowledge of Trafficking in Persons

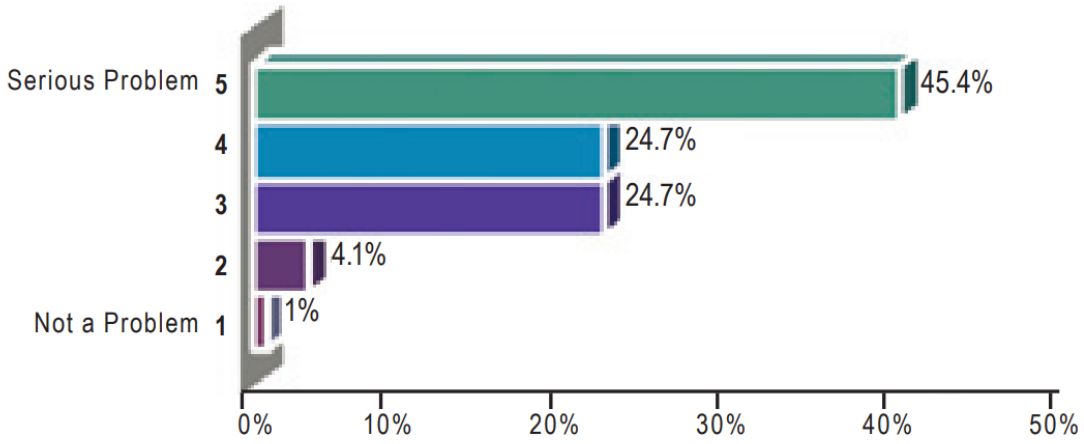
An overwhelming number of respondents (99%) reported learning about the issue of human trafficking from their professional work experience. Professional work experience includes direct work with victims (92%), interaction with co-workers (65%), direct work with other service providers (73%), and professional training (36%). Qualitative data revealed that these training opportunities were offered by service providers who have had more experience working with trafficking victims and thus are looked to by other service

providers, who have recently begun working with and/or reaching out to these victims, for direction and guidance.

Other respondents (35%) reported that their trafficking knowledge was obtained from academic sources. For example, 11 percent of respondents claimed to have attended educational trainings, such as clinics on human trafficking or school courses where the topic was explored in class; 4 percent reported attending academic conferences; and 26 percent read scholarly articles and reports on the issue. Few respondents (17%) gained their knowledge of trafficking from personal experiences (e.g., family member, friend, neighbor, self). In these cases, respondents reported talking to other knowledgeable people, talking to survivors, observing the practice for themselves, and having conducted extensive research on the Internet. Overall, 71 percent of respondents reported having attended formal classes or information-based workshops where trafficking was addressed (e.g., domestic violence workshops), while 48 percent reported having received formal skills-based training on how to service trafficking victims.

Based on their knowledge of the trafficking issue, respondents were asked to rate the seriousness of trafficking in their area. Figure 13 shows that 95 percent of respondents described trafficking in their geographic area to be in the range of somewhat of a problem (25%) to a very serious problem (45%).

Fig. 13 Level of Seriousness of Trafficking in Service Providers' Area



3.2 Knowledge of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000

When directly asked about their familiarity with the TVPA, respondents, on average, only felt 'somewhat familiar' with the ruling legislation, as shown in Figure 14.

Respondents had this to say about their familiarity with the TVPA:

I've read [the TVPA], but I don't really fully understand it because I don't use it on a daily basis.

I heard of [the TVPA] for the first time in November 2002, so I'm learning more about it.

I know [the TVPA] exists. I've read some parts of it, but I don't specifically work with it on a daily basis.

These comments could indicate that service providers would benefit from training and/or workshops on the ruling legislation so that they can more effectively collaborate and communicate with government entities to better serve victims of trafficking.

3.3 Barriers to Trafficking Victims' Accessing

Trafficking victims access services in different ways. As presented in Figure 15, a majority of respondents (95%) stated that trafficking victims come to their agency/organization through referrals from other service providers or law enforcement. As one respondent described, "My agency is dependent on other agencies to bring us trafficking victims." Respondents also noted that victims hear about their services through word of mouth (54%) and through community outreach efforts (51%). These outreach efforts include street outreach (i.e., presentations around the community) as well as outreach to other agencies/organizations.

Fig. 14 Familiarity with the TVPA

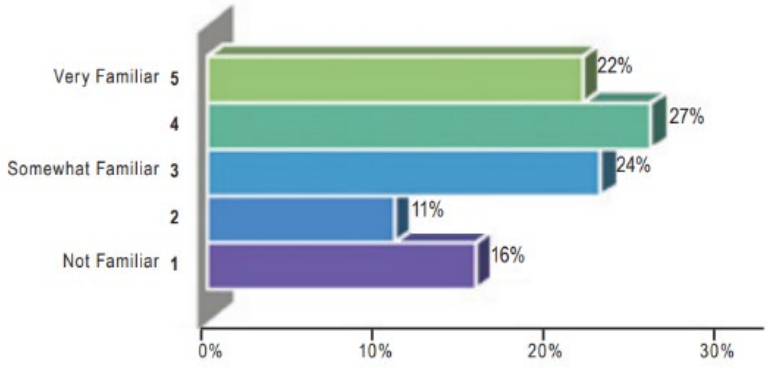
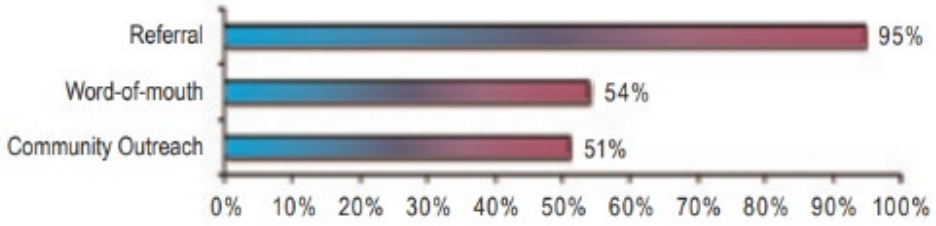


Fig. 15 Victims Accessing Services



Markedly, in response to this question, service providers commonly noted, in qualitative comments, the need for improved outreach, as the nature of trafficking is such that victims are not “touching normal mainstreams at all.” Respondents also noted the need for improved outreach to service providers and the general public about trafficking to develop a heightened sense of awareness of the indicators of trafficking. Respondents offered several suggestions for outreach efforts, including public service announcements and media campaigns. To improve outreach to trafficking victims, service providers mentioned making inroads into ethnic communities through the use of ethnic radio, television, and newspapers. In these efforts, respondents noted the importance of being strategic and culturally sensitive in the message that is sent to communities. Finally, respondents observed a need for training among service providers on how to do effective outreach in their areas and locate victims who are ‘invisible’ and ‘isolated,’ as well as more resources and staff to devote to outreach efforts.

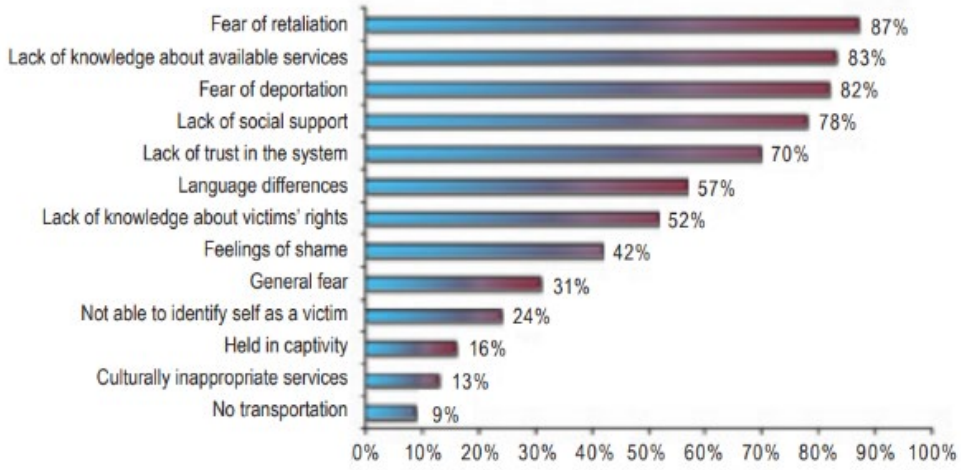
When asked what obstacles exist to trafficking victims' accessing services, respondents noted the following barriers (shown in Figure 16):

While most of the above categories are self-explanatory, a few are described here in greater detail. For example, 'lack of trust in the system' encompassed victims not wanting to testify, fear of the law, fear of arrest, fear of government, fear of police, and a belief that government officials have an anti-immigrant sentiment. 'Culturally inappropriate services' includes responses such as culturally insensitive front-line workers, misunderstood religious beliefs, and cultural differences. The 'general fear' category consists of responses such as brainwashed, learned helplessness, feelings of indebtedness or dependency on perpetrator, mental health issues, fear of the unknown, and lack of self-esteem.

When the data were separated by 'type of trafficking victim served,' it appears that respondents believe labor trafficking victims are most likely to not access services because they fear deportation (91%) and they fear retaliation against themselves or their family members in their home countries (91%). According to respondents, sex trafficking victims do not access services primarily because they fear retaliation against themselves and their families (90%) and because they are not knowledgeable about available services (85%).

Qualitative data generated from telephone interviews and focus groups yielded suggestions that may help more victims get the services they require. Increased outreach in the form of public service announcements and improved collaboration among key partners was reported as a method to help providers identify more trafficking victims. In addition, it was reported that these efforts would help victims self-identify and become more aware of available services.

Fig. 16 Common Barriers to Accessing Services



3.4 Barriers to Providing Services

Key Barriers

Respondents identified key barriers to their ability to provide services to trafficking victims. Figure 17 shows the percentage of service providers who reported having to deal with the common barriers to service. Each of these barriers is described in more detail below:

Lack of Adequate Resources:

Needs housing/shelter, staff, transportation for victims, contacts in home countries, and infrastructures designed for this population.

Lack of Adequate Funding:

Need source of funding, especially during pre-certification period

Lack of Adequate Training:

Need training at all levels; need training on confidentiality issues, how to gain victim trust, outreach methods, how to network and collaborate, cultural/religious competency, identification of victims, how to deal with medical/mental issues, how to service transient populations, and how to manage insufficient number of staff

Ineffective Coordination With Federal Agencies:

Need to share information; poor reporting and prosecution; delays in certification; no specialized unit/agency.

Ineffective Coordination With Local Agencies:

Ineffective communication at the State level; ineffective collaboration with local police.

Language Concerns:

Not able to readily provide interpreters for all languages/ dialects.

Safety Concerns:

Safety for victims and staff from abusers

Lack of Knowledge of Victims' Rights:

Lack of knowledge/understanding of TVPA; lack of knowledge of trafficking issue in general; poorly educated general public

Lack of Formal Rules and Regulations

Inadequate or frustrating rules; need for legislative advocacy; inadequate victim assistance laws; too strict eligibility requirements.

Victim's Legal Status:

Status renders victim ineligible for social services funding; pre-certification period issues; prior criminal histories.

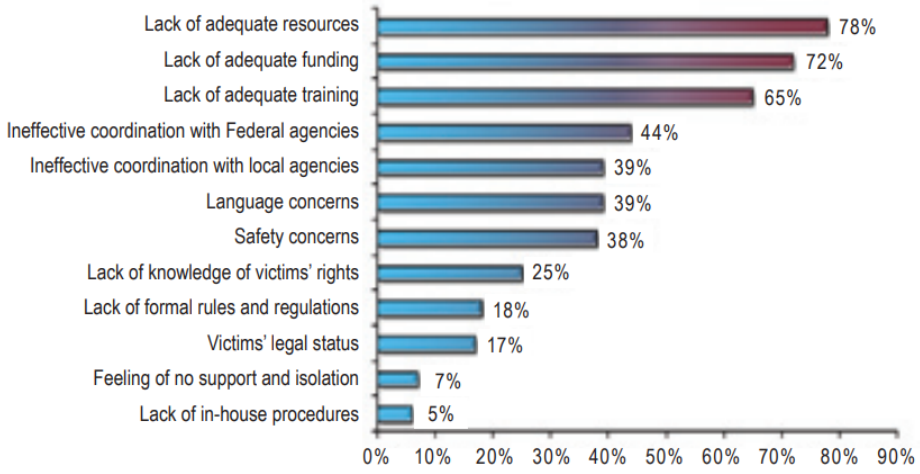
Feelings of No Support and Isolation

Do not know which service providers understand this issue who works with victims of trafficking; do no know how to collaborate

Lack of In-house Procedures:

Do not have effective protocols; no or inadequate data management systems.

Fig. 17 Common Barriers to Providing Services



Resources Needed to Do a Better Job

Respondents were also asked to identify what they would need to do a better job in providing services to trafficking victims. The data were thematically coded and analyzed. The needs most often cited include: funding (72%), especially for pre-certification services; more training (68%) on issues of trafficking, practical information on how to work with trafficking victims and law enforcement, FBI and BICE cultural sensitivity training; collaboration (65%) with other service providers and Federal agencies for specific client issues as well as for general support and sharing of lessons learned in service provision; providing and accessing housing or shelter (43%); resources (40%), such as building space and more staff; community awareness and public education (37%); and outreach to victims (31%). Interestingly, categories on this list demonstrate multiple aspects of how service providers view their own needs. Some listed needs are internal to the service providers themselves, such as funding and resources. Other needs relate to ways in which service providers can work together more effectively, such as through cross-training and better collaboration. Greater community awareness and public education about the issue of trafficking represent two external needs that service providers mentioned during the telephone surveys and focus group.

Respondents also identified what they believe other service providers could use to help improve services to trafficking victims. Similarly analyzed, the needs most often cited include: resources, such as funding, staff, and language services (65%); training, including cultural sensitivity training (43%); and general information on the issue of human trafficking (9%).

TVP as a Barrier

Analysis of the qualitative data revealed that respondents voiced several concerns about the TVPA as a barrier to service provision. Some service providers (20%) expressed that certain aspects of the TVPA created external barriers to service. Many critiques involved the TVPA's definition of "severe forms of trafficking in persons," which is structured such that the victim must prove "coercion, force, kidnapping, deception, or fraud" to be "certified" as a victim of the crime to receive government-sponsored services. Service providers elaborated how this definition limits the amount of victims that can be eligible for Federal and State benefits because of the burden of proof, especially in trafficking cases of servile marriage and domestic workers. Because threats, intimidation, false promises, and other behaviors of the trafficker in foreign countries are often not recorded or documented, these respondents assert that this high burden of proof imposes a serious hindrance to victims. By defining the crime in this particular way, respondents explain how the legal requirements of the TVPA could contribute to a form of re-victimizing the victim and preventing certain trafficking victims from receiving services.

Further structural critiques of the TVPA surround its heavy emphasis placed on the role of law enforcement. The role of law enforcement is built into the very structure and ideology of the Act, which forces victims to depend on the approval of law enforcement before they can be considered eligible for services. For instance, stipulations within the TVPA ensure that law enforcement agencies are inextricably involved in all three eligibility requirements for an ORR certification letter, which entitles trafficking victims to Federal and State benefits and services. A respondent explained the certification process as such:

“First, law enforcement officials make the initial determination if a victim qualifies as meeting the standards of proof to be considered within the definition of a severe form of trafficking in persons. Second, law enforcement officers endorse whether or not the victim is cooperating with the criminal investigation. Lastly, if the victim has not applied for a bona fide T visa, law enforcement officials must request a status of continued presence.”

Respondents described how the TVPA structurally places law enforcement in a gate-keeping role, in which officers can essentially determine whether or not a trafficking victim receives services and is certified. Numerous service providers in the study indicated a desire to have a more direct influence on the “certification” process and not be so dependent on law enforcement. One provider even compared the TVPA to other similar legislation, such as the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), but VAWA does not require domestic violence victims to assist or cooperate with law enforcement to self-petition for services. The TVPA is structured such that law enforcement is inextricably involved in the certification process, and respondents viewed this structure as an external barrier to providing services.

Respondents further explained other obstacles with the certification process. Through such a complicated process that involves the coordination and collaboration of multiple agencies, ORR is unable, in most cases, to certify victims within days or even weeks. Therefore, service providers encounter what is commonly referred to as a “pre-certification period,” during which time the trafficking victim(s) has (have) arrived at the organization and need immediate services but is not certified yet and therefore cannot be eligible for government-sponsored services. While waiting for the ORR letter, victims and local service providers are left in a very difficult limbo period. In this limbo, victims may have no housing, no money, and nowhere to go. Many providers, such as a doctors, lawyers, landlords, and mental health professionals, are reluctant to provide services because of high risk and because they have no guarantee of how they will be paid. Respondents described how this situation requires local providers to provide emergency services by soliciting help from local churches or food banks and to invent creative ways to serve the victims, who are often undocumented immigrants. Although the Federal government has not yet ‘certified’ the individual as a victim of trafficking, the victim’s

immediate needs do not go away. Plus, as the lag time increases between the point of initial identification and receiving the certification letter, uncertainty of what is going to happen to them builds in the minds of the victims, and some providers believe that this may lead to increased anxiety and fear. In a related comment about the pre-certification period, one respondent noted, " I do not think that the TVPA is a real support for victims because it doesn't help provide housing, it doesn't provide a stipend that they can live on, and they basically have to wait for paperwork and have to fend for themselves in the meantime."

Additionally, respondents detailed how service providers have little to no control over the speed and commencement of the certification process. If law enforcement does not offer a speedy endorsement, service providers must still attempt to serve the victims in the interim. Plus, respondents believe a builtin clash of incentives may prevent law enforcement agencies from offering their endorsements. Some respondents mentioned that it might not be in the best interest of the law enforcement agency to offer their endorsement prematurely before they have ensured continued cooperation from the victim. In addition, the law enforcement certification for "continued presence" entails tracking, monitoring, and reporting requirements, which all may serve as disincentives for the particular law enforcement agency to sign. For all of these reasons, many respondents in the needs assessment declared this pre-certification period to be one of the most challenging barriers to overcome.

Furthermore, respondents spoke about the barriers associated with obtaining derivative T visas and the need for regulations regarding the T-2, T-3, and T-4 visas. From completing the actual application to the entire process of obtaining derivative T visas, respondents described the procedure as "nearly impossible" and "a very onerous process." Respondents also spoke of the critical role that foreign governments play: "The way that the process is currently structured is that all the immigration documents for family members have to be prepared by the government of the home county, and who can ensure that any government will do that? What incentive does that government have? What will force that government to do that?" Without cooperation from foreign

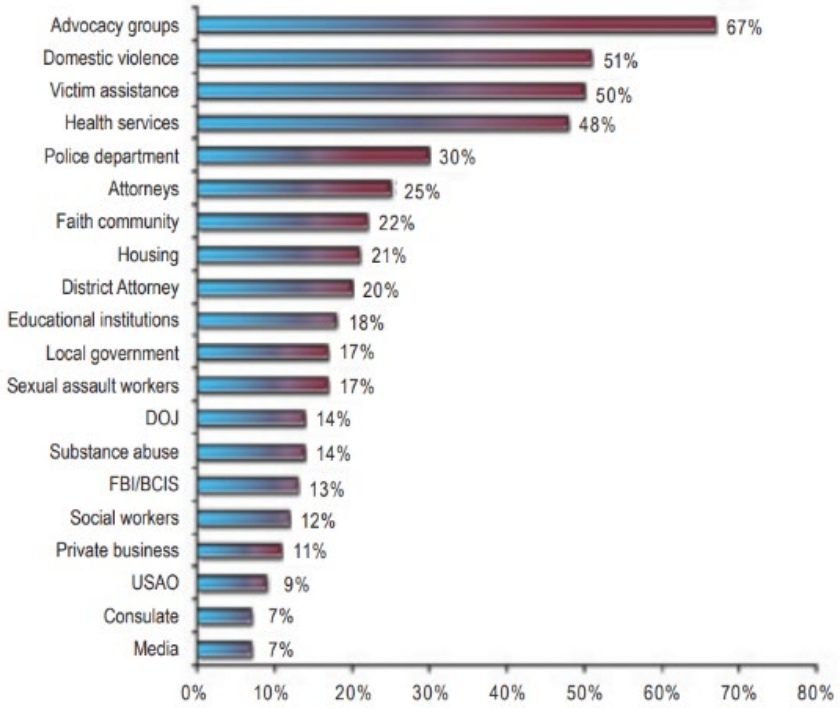
governments, victims face an insurmountable obstacle in obtaining derivative visas for family members.

Lastly, the qualitative data also described the view of some service providers, who feel that the TVPA is dichotomous in nature or has competing built-in interests. Clearly, the TVPA seeks to enhance the well-being of trafficking victims in the United States with all the remedies it offers; however, the legislation also is structured such that assistance to victims is not granted without proof and cooperation on the part of the victim. Hence, certain providers described the TVPA as functioning as a law enforcement tool and a humanitarian measure and claim that it is difficult to serve both purposes.

4. COLLABORATION

Victim service providers who work with trafficking victims are often not equipped to meet all of the needs of a victim in house. Providers instead must often collaborate with other agencies to meet the comprehensive needs of trafficking victims. A list of agencies/ organizations and the proportion of respondents reporting collaborating with such entities for the purpose of better serving trafficking victims are shown in Figure 18. When asked about the affiliations of these collaborative organizations, respondents noted that a majority of these agencies/organizations are local (94%), and many are State operated (40%) or affiliated with national agencies/organizations (33%). Only 19 percent of respondents reported collaborating with Federal agencies. None of the respondents noted collaborating with international organizations, and in qualitative comments service providers expressed a desire to network with other service entities on a local as well as international level.

Fig. 18 Primary Collaborative Partners



Respondents noted the primary purposes for their collaboration with any of the agencies/organizations are to share information (88%), provide training (49%), receive training (45%), share resources (36%), and share staff (13%). In addition, respondents made a distinction between collaboration at the administrative and 'front-line' levels. Comments revealed a need for collaborative activities among front-line workers, so that advocates can share lessons learned, identify best practices, and develop a professional support base at a local and national level. Most frequently noted in comments was a need for "concrete referral processes that are functioning." Several respondents suggested a resource manual or national referral list of service providers, along with respective areas of expertise and/ or the scope of services provided. While respondents did note a number of effective collaborative networks currently in existence (e.g., Bay Area Task Force Against Trafficking, Bilateral Safety Corridor Coalition, Stop Trafficking listserv, National Immigration Lawyers listserv, Victims of Trafficking Initiative in Dallas, the Freedom Network, Florida Collaborative Network Against Trafficking), comments demonstrate a need for greater collaboration.

Interestingly, although 98 percent of respondents stated that housing is a primary need for victims, only 21 percent of respondents report that they collaborate with housing organizations. This 'housing' category includes emergency and homeless shelters and child foster care or group homes. The second most cited need is 'health' services (98%); however, only 48 percent of respondents report collaborating with health services such as clinics, hospitals, emergency clinics, dentists, and mental health services. Providers need to form collaborative partnerships, not just with other similarly situated providers, but also with those organizations and agencies that can help them improve their service provision for trafficking victims' extensive needs.

A few respondents did report collaborating with police (30%), FBI (5%), BICE (7%), and the U.S. Attorney's Office (9%). Because these agencies are vital to helping trafficking victims obtain legal access to social services, such as getting a social security card so they can work and better support themselves, greater efforts should be made to build or develop working partnerships with these Federal organizations and agencies. Many service providers recognized the importance of working with Federal agencies, noting a need for more "formalized access" to Federal agencies and "better coordination between Federal and local agencies." Better collaboration with Federal agencies may potentially lead to a streamlined process of obtaining the necessary documentation (certification, T visa) for victims to meet basic needs, such as transportation, food, clothing, and employment. Without proper documentation, it is extremely difficult for victims to secure employment or welfare benefits so they can acquire or sustain their basic life needs.

5. VICTIMS FOCUS GROUP

Data from the focus group with trafficking victims was gathered to enrich and supplement the findings from the telephone surveys. This focus group provided valuable insight from the victims' perspectives regarding their experience of receiving services as trafficking victims in the United States. Key areas of interest for this assessment discussed during the victim focus group are:

Services Received:

The victims received services from a variety of providers, including a local church, a lawyer, a local social service agency, a shelter, a hospital, and various governmental agencies.

Obstacles Faced in Accessing Services:

Receiving a social security card was cited as being the biggest obstacle to accessing services and being able to find a job for the victims. It was their understanding that they would receive their social security card within 4 to 6 weeks, yet they had been waiting for 9 weeks and still had not been sent their cards. Without this card, no one will hire them. As a result, they cannot get jobs and are dependent on others for finances. In addition, this group of victims felt that the 8-month timeframe to receive medical services was a barrier because some medical needs were more serious and extensive and required longer-term care. The victims explained how something similar to a 'clinic card,' with which they could always access medical services, would be extremely beneficial to them.

Level of Comfort Talking with Service Providers About Their Experiences:

This group of victims felt comfortable talking about their case with their case managers. Their case managers do a good job of making them feel "happy and safe." They like that the case managers are of their same ethnicity because the caseworkers understand their culture and speak their native language. This was best expressed by one focus group participant, who said, "[service providers] were very believable, and they believe you when you come here."

Unmet Needs:

They have not received financial aid to help them obtain job training. Moreover, they have not received their social security cards and therefore cannot secure employment.

Advice to the Service Provider Community

This group of victims would like their story and similar stories like theirs broadcast in American newspapers and other media outlets, so others can be made aware of what happened to them and what is happening to other victims.

They would like an increased level of public awareness about trafficking. They also would like for providers to reach out to other victims and try to find other victims who might be held captive in a trafficking situation. In the words of one participant, “[We] know that if outside people are coming to interview [us], that our story must be getting out and around. It’s hopeful and reassuring to see that more and more people are starting to care... [We] want you to continue to help us, and help others who are like us.” Another participant commented, “[I] am glad that [we] came here and spoke up for [our] friends, and shared what they need. Now [I] feel like a weight has been lifted off [my] shoulders.” Lastly, they wanted to thank the United States government for all the aid and assistance that they received.

How to Improve Services to Trafficking Victims:

These victims wished that the United States could give more aid to impoverished third world countries, so that these countries would have fewer incentives to export the labor of their citizens. They stressed that they would not like to be sent back to their home country. Furthermore, they are eager to see their families and would like the derivative T visa process to assure them that they can bring their families to the United States or have their family members remain in the United States. In closing, they stressed that they still have friends back home in their home country who were trafficked but who have not received United States services like they have. They feel “guilty that their lives are safe now when their friends are still suffering.” They wish that United States service providers could do something to help their friends, too. This sentiment was expressed by one participant, saying, “Help us as much as you can, because victims need help. And we appreciate every help that providers can give.”

Chapter 5: Recommendations for the Field

This report concludes with a list of recommendations for the field that has been generated from the literature and the data obtained from the telephone surveys and focus groups. These recommendations have been grouped into five categories (i.e., Collaboration and Communication, the TVPA, Training, Education and Outreach, and Case Management) for ease of presentation and are by no means an exhaustive list. Rather, they represent common themes across respondents and are intended to serve as a starting point for discussion and a catalyst for change.

1. COLLABORATION AND COMMUNICATION

1.1 Build Interagency Relationships & Identify a Point of Contact (POC) Within Each Organization to Streamline Interagency Collaboration

Effectively serving large trafficking cases requires efficient and streamlined collaboration between numerous Federal, State, and local agencies that often include local law enforcement, BICE, FBI, ORR, U.S. Attorney General's Office, local non-governmental organizations, and other direct service providers. The data from the needs assessment indicate that it would be helpful for these agencies to develop more familiar and stronger working relationships as well as specific protocols for working together. Close communication and frequent meetings might foster better collaboration. Cross-training is one particularly effective way for collaborating agencies to eliminate misperceptions and enhance an understanding of each other's protocols. Agencies that understand each other's standard operating procedures can identify areas of overlap where increased cooperation could be particularly useful. Moreover, the identification of a specific Point of Contact (POC) within each organization could potentially facilitate the process of building interagency relationships and might reduce confusion or conflicting information about how the agencies should contact each other.

In addition to the agencies mentioned above, data from the needs assessment also identify gaps in levels of collaboration and highlight key players that may often not be included in a collaborative service response. To effectively and efficiently respond to the

comprehensive needs of trafficking victims, relationship-building efforts should also be extended to housing entities, local employers, translation/interpretation services, and medical, dental, and mental health providers. In sum, efforts to build interagency relationships and enhance levels of collaboration should be extended not only to relevant Federal agencies but also to local providers that can assist in meeting the specific needs of trafficking victims.

1.2 Increase Sharing of Information Between Domestic and International Service Providers

The numerous agencies that have responded to the trafficking-in-persons problem vary in scope and breadth. Some local agencies spend a majority of their efforts directly serving the needs of trafficking victims in their particular target area. Other international agencies/organizations work on a multinational scale to address the root causes of trafficking. An information gap has the potential to emerge between service providers with such varying goals and purposes. However, the data from the needs assessment highlight the untapped strength that could result if both of these types of entities joined forces by increasing their sharing of information. Moreover, for agencies that are doing similar work on different scales and in different countries, the sharing of promising practices could foster more effective service provision, both domestically and internationally.

1.3 Use Protocols to Clearly Define Agency/ Organization Roles to Reduce Duplication of Efforts

Collaboration is often impeded when partnering agencies do not have specific and clearly defined roles or protocols for working together. A lack of defined roles and protocols also poses the tendency to lead to power struggles, muddled information, inconsistent service delivery, and uncorrected assumptions about which agency is responsible for which tasks. To enhance the effective and efficient teamwork between collaborating agencies in serving trafficking cases, the data from the needs assessment suggest that service provision might be improved through the employment of collaborative protocols to more clearly delineate roles. Cross-training has the ability to assist in the development of shared protocols because it enhances understanding between agencies and

organizations and can help identify similarities and differences in individually pre-existing protocols.

For example, immediately after a victim is identified, numerous staff from multiple agencies must be contacted to initiate the process of a Federal investigation, legal prosecution, and service response. In essence, collaboration between agencies is required from the first moment a trafficking victim comes to the attention of the authorities. Shared protocols that specifically define each agency's role and responsibilities could potentially streamline and standardize the collaborative response to the identification of a trafficking victim (e.g., shared intake procedures, shared case notes with builtin protections of confidentiality). These protocols might outline various aspects of the service response, such as which agency talks to the victim first, which agency inquires about the case history (to prevent repeated intrusive case interviews and avoid unnecessary repeated trauma), which agency transports the victim to safety, and in what chronological order all these case developments should occur.

1.4 Provide Training in Collaboration, Coalition Building, and Team Building

Although serving a trafficking case often requires effective collaboration among many different types of agencies and organizations, the results of the needs assessment indicate that many service providers are not necessarily well prepared for such an increased level of interagency cooperation. Because effective case management entails the coordination of efforts from so many varying sources, the ability to collaborate becomes a requisite skill for trafficking service providers as they try to meet the many needs of trafficking victims. This being the case, training in the areas of collaboration, coalition building, and team building might provide useful information and skills for service providers as they attempt to work together. More specifically, this training could potentially pertain to the development of interagency Memoranda of Understanding (MOUs), the creation of shared terminology between agencies, and the formulation of guidelines and procedures for working through a case in a collaborative manner.

1.5 Establish a Trafficking Experts Database

Data from the needs assessment indicate that many trafficking service providers seek support in the areas of organizational development, program implementation, collaboration, and service delivery. For many victim assistance professionals, the issue of trafficking in persons is still very new and relatively unfamiliar. There is a clear need for the sharing of information and expertise between providers with varying levels of experience with this issue. A repository of experienced consultants represents one promising method that could facilitate information sharing and foster the exchange of technical assistance. For example, the Office for Victims of Crime Training and Technical Assistance Center (OVC TTAC) maintains a national database of expert consultants who have years of hands-on experience working in specific areas of victim services.85 Through the use of these consultants, OVC TTAC offers expert support, mentoring, and customized response resources to members of the field and service providers around the country.86 Victim assistance professionals who work with trafficking victims could capitalize on the pre-existing structure of the OVC TTAC consultant database in the creation of a repository of trafficking experts. Experienced trafficking service providers clearly exist throughout the country, and the need for information sharing, training, and technical assistance is also evident; the establishment of a trafficking experts database will help channel this supply and demand in an organized way and structure the process of mentorship and program support.

1.6 Develop a National Trafficking Victim Service Provider Referral List

The data from this study point to a need for more effective information dissemination regarding available service providers within the United States. Certain providers may be unaware of other agencies in their region and outside of their region to which they could refer victims for similar or complementary services. A comprehensive national trafficking victim service provider referral listing could play a valuable role by filling the information gap between providers and offering each organization a critical resource that would help enhance collaboration and information sharing. Numerous respondents in the assessment identified a need for this resource. However, because the referral list could serve as a mechanism for how traffickers locate victims or places where services are rendered, providers and researchers should take into careful consideration issues of

safety for the victim and the provider when constructing such a national referral list. Online referral lists can be protected in various ways, including creating a password or only listing the name of the agency and the 800 telephone number.

Data from the needs assessment identify a large disparity among service providers regarding levels of knowledge about available interpretation services and language hotlines. While some providers used accessible national hotlines that offered an exhaustive array of available languages, other providers were not aware that such hotlines even existed and struggled to find interpreters. The National Domestic Violence Hotline at 1-800-799-SAFE, for example, has the ability to access over 100 languages on the telephone.87 In addition, the Trafficking in Persons and Workers Exploitation Task Force complaint line, at 1-888- 428-7581, has a similar extensive language access capability.88 This disparity of information about language services can be alleviated with more effective information dissemination activities. Interpretation services are just one area where a national referral list could greatly assist information sharing among service providers.

1.7 Analyze Interagency Processes and Their Communication/Collaboration with Victim Service Providers

Findings learned from the needs assessment suggest that further research might illuminate interagency processes that could help in the development of specific protocols for identifying and helping trafficking victims. Furthermore, while cooperation and coordination between different agencies are obviously necessary, the specific implementation procedures are still being developed. A systematic look at the developmental stages and implementation procedures used in communication and collaboration will greatly shed light on best practices for service providers who are working with trafficking victims and for those organizations that are just beginning to work with this population.

2. THE TVPA & THE CERTIFICATION PROCESS

2.1 Increase Awareness and Understanding of the TVPA and Its Accompanying Rules and Regulations

A thorough understanding of the TVPA and its accompanying rules and regulations can greatly assist service providers as they attempt to meet the needs of trafficking victims. From the first contact of identifying victims of trafficking, through the certification process, to the end of obtaining a T visa, the TVPA contains specific regulations and stipulations that service providers must closely follow. Data from the needs assessment identify varying levels of knowledge of the TVPA throughout the community of providers that work with trafficking victims that range from complete unfamiliarity to intimate expertise. Efforts to generate a more widespread understanding of the TVPA represent a positive step towards more effective service provision for trafficking victims. These efforts may include trainings, workshops, conferences, essays, publications, and policy analyses. In addition, the focus of these endeavors should not be limited to fostering an information-based understanding of the TVPA. To effectively serve victims while adhering to the regulations of the TVPA, providers must be able to apply their understanding of the legislation. Therefore, skill-based “how to” training might also assist providers as they attempt to navigate the requirements and criteria of the Act. Moreover, with the proposed changes to the TVPA contained in its pending reauthorization, it is important that mechanisms be provided to ensure that service providers are made aware of any modifications and resulting implications for their clients (e.g., amendments to the Immigration and Nationality Act, such as definitions and admission criteria of nonimmigrants).

2.2 Provide Increased Funding for the Precertification Period

Data from the needs assessment consistently highlight the difficulty of service provision during the time period when the ORR has not yet certified trafficking victims. Although the ORR certification letter does make trafficking victims eligible for many much-needed services once it is approved, issued, and received, the certification process takes time while trafficking victims’ needs often go unmet. Service providers report difficulties meeting the immediate needs, such as housing, medical care, mental health counseling, child care, and even basic food and clothing when trafficking victims are not yet certified

by the ORR. It would be helpful for the service provider community to continue to develop creative, innovative, and collaborative ways to care for victims during this onerous pre-certification period, especially in the areas of emergency housing and medical care.89

Some providers in the needs assessment suggested solutions to the difficulties of the pre-certification period. A few respondents mentioned the possibility of an “interim” period of eligibility for services and government benefits while a victim is waiting for his or her certification letter. Others described the potential positive results of the creation of formal timetables and deadlines to speed up the certification process and prevent delays. Both of these suggestions have merit and warrant further consideration by service providers and policy makers.

2.3 Explore the T Visa Application Process for Ways It Can Be Streamlined

Numerous respondents described the intricate difficulties of the T visa application process and how such complexities can become a barrier to service. Detailed eligibility requirements and heavy demands for documentation both can obstruct efficient and effective service delivery. Consequently, data from the needs assessment suggest that an examination and potential revisions of the T visa application process could greatly assist more trafficking victims in obtaining the protections that they need.

For example, some respondents described the unrealistic requirements to obtain a derivative T-2 or T-3 visa for a family member living in a foreign country, specifically with regard to the inclusion of a precise type of photograph. As it reads in form I-914, Application for T Nonimmigrant Status, and Form I-914, Supplement A, Application for Immediate Family Member of T-1 Recipient, “...the application package shall include three identical photographs of the applicant. The photographs must have been taken within six months of the filing the application, and be un-mounted and un-retouched. The photographs shall be three-quarter views of the right side of the applicant’s face, showing the applicant’s entire face, including the right ear and the left eye. The photographs shall be 1 1/2 X 1 1/2 inches. The applicant’s head shall not make up less than 3/4 of the photographs. The background must be consistent and light in color. The applicant’s name and A#, if known, shall be lightly printed on the back of each photograph with a pencil.... The photographs of the derivative must comply with the same requirements as the

photographs of the Principal Applicant, described above."90 These respondents described how such detailed and specific requirements could be next to impossible to meet for an impoverished family member living in a rural area of a foreign country without access to the necessary equipment for such a photograph. Thus, modifications to the T visa application process might better assist victims of trafficking. Moreover, findings learned from the needs assessment suggest that further study of the victim certification and T visa application process would be useful in order to understand whether the recommended streamlining of the process is necessary or feasible.

3. TRAINING

3.1 Provide Training and Develop Protocols to Assist Providers in Identifying Trafficking Survivors

Although increased knowledge of the definition of human trafficking may lead to an improved ability of service providers to identify victims, awareness alone is not sufficient to eliminate or reduce victim identification as a critical barrier to service. Data from the needs assessment indicate that service providers need to develop enhanced mechanisms or screening procedures to better identify victims. Many respondents voiced the general perception that more victims were 'out there' but were hard to locate or find. The provision of more training and the development of tailored protocols, specifically in the area of victim identification, will respond to service providers' desire to enhance their ability to detect and distinguish trafficking victims. As stated above, law enforcement agencies are one area of service where training and identification protocols might have a substantial positive impact. Specifically tailored PSAs or instructional materials for service providers and law enforcement agencies may assist in the identification of victims.

3.2 Seek Out and/or Develop Skill-based Trainings on How to Work with Trafficking Victims

Trafficking victims are a unique victim population with a wide array of needs. Working with these victims can be a very delicate and sensitive task, especially due to the high potential for re-victimization. Unnecessary or duplicative probing case interviews can be an exhausting and traumatizing experience for victims of trafficking. The results of the

assessment highlight the need for increased and continued skill-based training to offer more guidance to service providers as they attempt to work with this distinct victim population. For example, front-line workers in immigration and other government offices need to become culturally aware of how trafficking victims may have completed government forms with customs from their home countries (e.g., last name is given first, birth date is in reverse order). Awareness of these cultural differences can reduce confusion and waiting time for forms to be processed or re-processed. Furthermore, trainings should also work to differentiate trafficking victims from other populations, such as refugees or sexual assault victims, so that each different population is served in a sensitive and responsive manner that addresses its particular set of needs.

Skill-based training on how to work with trafficking victims could benefit a wide spectrum of service professionals that might encounter these victims in their work, ranging from FBI and BICE Victim Witness Coordinators to front-line workers in other social service arenas, such as welfare, hospitals, health clinics, or public assistance offices that offer Food Stamps or child care. While training is essential for the providers that will inevitably come into the most contact with the victim, guidance and education should also extend to a wider net of providers from whom trafficking victims may require services.

3.3 Develop Protocols Specifically Geared for Working with Victims of Trafficking That Can Be Shared With the Field (e.g., client intake forms, mental health assessment instruments, computerized case summaries)

Tailored service protocols for trafficking victims can be a useful tool for service providers as they work with this unique victim population. These protocols should be specifically developed with the presenting needs of trafficking victims in mind. The results of the needs assessment highlight gaps in service protocols, such as the lack of tailored intake forms or customized case history interview procedures. Mishandling either of these aspects of case management possesses the potential cost of unnecessary trauma to the individual victim. Consequently, the development of protocols that are specifically geared for trafficking victims could greatly assist the field with effective case management practices. However, the needs assessment also highlighted a difference in service ideology about the need for such protocols among various providers. While some

providers viewed standardized protocols as an essential feature of case management, other providers felt that such protocols might impose a restrictive structure on an already-traumatized victim. Data from the needs assessment suggest that this conceptual difference should be considered in the development of tailored service protocols for trafficking victims. For example, when developing potential protocols, providers might consider ways that the protocol could provide an overall format for services but still allow for considerable individualized flexibility.

3.4 Increase Training for Local Law Enforcement on How Best to Serve This Population

The structure and ideology of the TVPA places law enforcement entities in a very important and unavoidable role in the service response to a trafficking case. For example, law enforcement agencies are inextricably interwoven into all three eligibility requirements for an ORR certification letter. Hence, trafficking victims must depend on law enforcement for an endorsement that confirms their cooperation with the criminal investigation and that correctly identifies them as a victim of a "severe form of trafficking in persons." Victims must receive this approval from law enforcement before they can receive a wide array of government-sponsored services. Data from the needs assessment indicate that increased training of local law enforcement agencies could greatly enhance services rendered to trafficking victims, largely because law enforcement plays such a critical role in the process. Such trainings could focus on identifying victims and working with victim advocates or other service providers. Training could also concentrate on reporting, outreach, cultural sensitivity, and/or increasing the knowledge base of law enforcement about human trafficking in general.

3.5 Evaluate the Effectiveness of Training Protocols and Programs

Service providers who have experience working with numerous trafficking victims and those advocates and researchers who are familiar with this issue provide training to their co-workers and others in the field interested in learning more about this topic and how best to serve its victims. While these efforts are commendable, evaluation of these trainings is imperative to ensure their appropriateness, effectiveness, and uniformity of information dissemination for those instances where information can be standardized.

4. EDUCATION AND OUTREACH

4.1 Raise Awareness and Understanding of the Definition of Trafficking in Persons for Service Providers and the General Public

Despite the occurrence of the practice of trafficking in persons in the United States, the results of the needs assessment indicate that service providers perceive a substantial information gap in awareness of the crime. This lack of awareness occurs for the service providers themselves, for victims, and throughout the general public. The reality remains that many people do not know or understand very much about human trafficking as it occurs in the United States. Data point toward the need for increased awareness of the crime on many fronts. Related to the lack of awareness, respondents reported a lack of a clear understanding of the definition of trafficking in persons. In addition, they also described the service-related implications of low levels of awareness or confusion about the definition of the crime. Vigilant awareness and a sound understanding of the definition of trafficking lead to service providers' increased ability to identify and differentiate trafficking victims as a unique victim population. To prevent service providers from misidentifying trafficking victims or inadvertently denying services to a victim who may otherwise be eligible by definition, this study highlights the need for increased awareness and understanding of the specific definition of trafficking in persons. Public service announcements (PSAs) offer one potential means of disseminating information about human trafficking to victim assistance professionals and the general public.

Awareness-raising efforts should also focus on law enforcement agencies. Because of their critical role in making the initial determination of which victims meet the definition of trafficking and are thereby eligible for services, law enforcement agencies represent one particular area where awareness efforts could be of great benefit to victims.

Awareness-raising efforts to assist identification of victims might also be particularly well targeted towards BICE officials. Educating these professionals about the tactics of traffickers (e.g., fraudulent entry papers, posing as family members, answering for the victim during interview questions) will identify clues and behaviors to red flag and to look for. Through increased training, immigration and border authorities might learn to more effectively identify suspicious trucks or recognize predictable answers to certain

immigration questions. These training efforts might lead to the creation of trafficking victim identification protocols to be used by the officers that make decisions regarding entry into the United States.

Lastly, awareness-raising efforts could also affect the 'demand-side' of human trafficking. By educating potential 'buyers' of trafficked persons, such as "Johns" who purchase the sexual services of a prostitute, an increased understanding of the horrors of the crime of human trafficking might have a deterrent effect. With increased knowledge of the far-reaching effects of human trafficking, socially minded consumers might also avoid buying certain products that resulted from the forced work of labor trafficking victims.

To operationalize increased awareness efforts, the results of this study highlight the need for the victim services community to explore methods of more effective information dissemination between providers, among collaborative partners, and to the general public. These methods may take on many forms but might include conference presentations, local trainings, research roundtables, cultural competency workshops, and PSAs geared to the general public. Incorporating the issue of trafficking in persons more directly into college-level courses might also inform the population of our nation's college students. Information dissemination activities such as these will help bring human trafficking to an issue of salience in people's minds. By getting the word out through such methods, increased general awareness of the crime could potentially lead to better victim identification, increased vigilance for cases of human trafficking, and more effective collaboration between service providers. Furthermore, these efforts should include, but not be limited to, major cities. Information dissemination is also needed throughout more rural or agricultural areas and tribal communities within the United States.

Specifically, information dissemination would be helpful with regard to the United States Department of Justice Trafficking Hotline, at 1-888-428-7581. This hotline enables individuals to report a case of human trafficking or involuntary servitude directly to the Federal government.91 Administered by the Trafficking in Persons and Worker Exploitation Task Force, this hotline is toll free and offers extensive foreign language translation services in most languages.

4.2 Improve Victims' Understanding of the Criminal Justice Process to Enhance Their Cooperation With Law Enforcement and Prosecutors

As one of the many eligibility requirements for both the ORR certification and the T visa, victims' cooperation with law enforcement is explicitly incorporated into the structure of the TVPA. Unfortunately, for a variety of reasons, trafficking victims may be fearful of cooperating with law enforcement, which potentially denies them the much-needed assistance that could significantly impact their well-being. Hence, improved ways to educate victims about the United States criminal justice system may reduce the uncertainty and unfamiliarity that frequently prevent victims from cooperating with law enforcement and prosecutors.

4.3 Develop Outreach Materials for Trafficking Victims in Different Languages That Are Publicized in Specific Immigrant Communities That Are Easy to Understand and Do Not Require Much Reading (e.g., advertisement on ethnic radio/TV, newspapers, Laundromat, supermarket, churches)

One of the reasons why trafficking victims are so hard to locate is because they may be isolated or live in specific self-contained immigrant communities. Not only might these communities predominantly speak a language other than English, but residents may not have fully integrated into American institutions as well. Targeting these communities with outreach efforts might be a good strategy for identifying more trafficking victims. The development of PSAs in multiple languages for targeted media outreach efforts in these communities is one way to spread the word about what services are available to victims of trafficking. These PSAs can work to reduce the information gap and encourage more victims to come forward and access services. As an example, radio PSAs might have a uniquely far-reaching effect if many residents of these ethnic enclaves listen to a popular radio station that is broadcasted in their language of origin.

Victims of trafficking display a wide range of demographic characteristics. As such, while this specific victim population may include highly educated individuals, a majority of trafficking victims are relatively uneducated and come from third world countries with high rates of poverty. Because of these low levels of education and literacy, numerous service providers in the needs assessment noted that outreach materials to trafficking victims

should not be wordy, lengthy, or difficult to understand. In addition, victims of trafficking may only have a brief period of time to read informational flyers and materials, simply because their actions may be closely watched and monitored.

4.4 Assess Providers and Victims' needs in all 50 States and Abroad

As the trafficking in persons problem grows and as the United States attempts to deal with it, both domestically and abroad, a thorough understanding of services available throughout the United States and abroad will prove useful. Efforts should be made to conduct a similar study, including more geographical diversity as the provision of services for trafficking victims expands. Continuously learning about the needs of trafficking victims and what service providers need to best serve this population will only prove to enhance service provision.

5. CASE MANAGEMENT

5.1 Employ Case Managers of the Same Ethnicity and Culture as Victims to Increase Cultural Sensitivity

Cultural differences and language barriers both can impede the service response to a trafficking case when a case manager is of a different ethnicity and background than the victim. In addition, trafficking victims may exhibit a decreased likelihood to trust a case manager of a different ethnicity, especially given already-elevated levels of fear, anxiety, and distrust. Case managers of the same ethnicity as the victims can begin to ease distrust and fear by overcoming language differences and by providing culturally sensitive services through intimate knowledge of the cultural system of values. Numerous service providers and victims themselves reported the various ways that case managers of the same ethnicity as the victims greatly assisted their agency in meeting the victims' needs. As such, the data from the needs assessment indicate that efforts to employ a culturally diverse staff of multi-lingual case managers can lead to more effective case management.

A few providers also stated their belief in the importance of employing past victims or 'survivors' as service advocates. These past victims might not only be able to help

alleviate cultural and language needs, but they also can offer insight and empathy into the intimate emotions and mental health effects of the experience of being trafficked. By fostering trust and demonstrating a unique sense of empathy, survivors of human trafficking can serve as effective victim assistance professionals. Moreover, for certain survivors, involvement in prevention efforts to assist other victims might become part of the process of healing and empowerment.

5.2 Focus Efforts to Develop More Housing and Shelter Resources for Trafficking Victims

Service providers in the needs assessment consistently voiced concern about the housing and shelter needs of trafficking victims, especially during the precertification period, when they are not yet eligible for government services. Providers who had experience attempting to serve trafficking victims during this pre-certification period described the difficulties in obtaining housing and shelter for the victims as a primary unmet need. Currently, there are limited outlets and almost no specific funding for trafficking victims to secure housing and shelter while they receive emergency social services. Data from the needs assessment highlight this shortage of housing options for trafficking victims. As a result, focused efforts to develop more housing and shelter resources might be a crucial benefit to trafficking victims as they receive services. Furthermore, trafficking victims display housing needs throughout their course of service. Not only do trafficking victims need immediate emergency housing, they also need safe transitional housing (e.g., halfway houses) as they attempt to reintegrate into American life and need secure long-term housing after their initial service response has ended. These various tiers of housing needs are all areas identified by the present research project as requiring further attention and response efforts.

These recommendations and suggestions for future research are intended to serve as a springboard for generating ideas and discussion on how to better service provision for humans trafficked in the United States. Research such as this can ensure that funds are appropriately allocated to best meet the current needs of victims.

PART 2: EVIDENCE-BASED MENTAL HEALTH TREATMENT FOR VICTIMS OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Source: https://aspe.hhs.gov/system/files/pdf/76116/index.pdf

Introduction:

In 2008, the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation (ASPE) within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services published an issue brief, entitled *Treating the Hidden Wounds: Trauma Treatment and Mental Health Recovery for Victims of Human Trafficking*, which focused on the mental health needs of victims of human trafficking.[1] This issue brief highlighted the impact of trauma on this population and the need for trauma-informed care. The same year, ASPE sponsored a National Symposium on the Health Needs of Human Trafficking Victims, which reiterated the complex health issues of this population and discussed the role of healthcare workers in addressing these needs.

While these forums, as well as others, have served an important role in documenting the mental health needs of victims of human trafficking, questions regarding the best treatment options for this population remain. To date, limited research has been conducted to assess the impact of various mental health therapeutic treatments, hindering mental healthcare providers understanding of which therapeutic methods work best when treating this population. To begin addressing some of the questions regarding mental health treatment, this issue brief examines the evidence-based research for treating common mental health conditions experienced by victims of human trafficking.

Mental Health Needs Of Victims of Human Trafficking

A number of studies have identified the serious and often complex mental health needs of victims of human trafficking. The majority of research related to the mental health needs of this population focuses on the significant levels of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (International Organization for Migration, 2006; Pico-Alfonso, 2005; Zimmerman et al., 2006). Victims of human trafficking have often experienced, witnessed, or [been] confronted with an event or events that involved actual or threatened death or serious injury, or a threat to the physical integrity of self or others and their response to these events frequently involves intense fear, helplessness, or horror. This exposure and common reaction are two of the main criteria for PTSD (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2005, p. 467). While there is some evidence that preexisting conditions related to social supports, history, childhood experiences, personality variables, and preexisting medical disorders can factor in the diagnosis of PTSD, exposure to trauma is the most important feature in the development of PTSD. An official diagnosis requires that symptoms be present for more than 1 month, before which a differential diagnosis of acute stress disorder may be made (APA, 2005). PTSD often presents itself within the first 3 months after a traumatic event; however, it can also have a delay in presentation for months or even years (APA, 2005). While both adults and children can be diagnosed with PTSD, studies have demonstrated that women tend to be more vulnerable than men to developing PTSD upon exposure to life-threatening events (Seedat, Stein, & Carey, 2005). In about half of patients, a complete recovery occurs within 3 months (APA, 2005);

however, PTSD has been shown to last significantly longer in women than men (Breslau et al., 1998).

PTSD Associated Symptoms and the Percent of Trafficked Women Ranking These Symptoms as Severe	
Recurrent thoughts/memories of terrifying events	75%
Feeling as though the event is happening again	52%
Recurrent nightmares	54%
Feeling detached/withdrawn	60%
Unable to feel emotion	44%
Jumpy, easily startled	67%
Difficulty concentrating	52%
Trouble Sleeping	67%
Feeling on guard	64%
Feeling irritable, having outbursts of anger	53%
Avoiding activities that remind them of the traumatic or hurtful event	61%
Inability to remember part or most of traumatic or hurtful events	36%
Less interest in daily activities	46%
Feelings as if you didn't have a future	65%
Avoiding thoughts or feelings associated with traumatic events	58%
Sudden emotional or physical reaction when reminded of the most hurtful or traumatic events (Zimmerman et al; 2006)	65%

In addition to PTSD, victims of human trafficking have been found to suffer from other anxiety and mood disorders including panic attacks, obsessive compulsive disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, and major depressive disorder (Alexander, Kellogg, & Thompson, 2005; APA, 2005; Family Violence Prevention Fund, 2005; Zimmerman et al., 2006). One study found that survivors of human trafficking reported the following anxiety and depression symptoms: **nervousness or shakiness inside (91%), terror/panic spells (61%), fearfulness (85%), feeling depressed or very sad (95%), and hopelessness about the future (76%) (Zimmerman et al., 2006).**

Individuals with traumatic histories of physical and/or sexual abuse have also been found to be at increased risk for the development of dissociative disorders (International Society for the Study of Dissociation, 2004). The correlation between dissociation and human

trafficking has been demonstrated through both research and the testimony of mental healthcare providers (Williamson, Dutch, & Clawson, 2008; Zimmerman, 2003). **Dissociative disorders are characterized as a disruption in the usually integrated functions of consciousness, memory, identity, or perception (APA, 2005, p. 519).** One study conducted in Europe found that 63 percent of victims of trafficking have memory loss (Zimmerman et al., 2006). Dissociative disorders can present themselves suddenly or gradually and can be either transient or chronic (APA, 2005). Some victims may simply not be able to recall certain events or details of events while others may continue to disassociate in an effort to prepare for future threats (Zimmerman, 2003). When making a diagnosis of dissociative disorders, mental healthcare providers should assess dissociative states through a cross-cultural perspective as they are common and accepted in many societies. For example, in some societies, dissociative states such as voluntary trances are not pathological and do not cause clinically significant distress or functional impairment. Local instances of culturally normative dissociative states vary cross-culturally in terms of the behaviors exhibited during altered states, the presence or absence of dissociative sensory alterations (e.g., blindness), the various identities assumed during dissociation, and the degree of amnesia experienced following a dissociative state. By assessing dissociative states through a cross-cultural perspective, providers can identify whether individuals are undergoing culturally normative dissociative states that align with their cultural beliefs or whether they are experiencing states causing clinical distress or impairment (APA, 2005).

Substance-related disorders are often found to be co-morbid in victims of human trafficking (International Organization for Migration, 2006; Zimmerman, 2003). While a few victims of trafficking reported prior substance addictions, the majority of victims who reported alcohol and drug use said they began using after they were in their trafficking situations (Raymond et al., 2002; Zimmerman, 2003). Some victims reported using alcohol and drugs to help them deal with their situations; however, others reported being forced or coerced to use drugs or alcohol by traffickers (Raymond et al., 2002; Zimmerman, 2003).

Complex trauma, defined as a type of trauma that occurs repeatedly and cumulatively, usually over a period of time and within specific relationships and contexts (Courtois, 2008, p. 86) is receiving increasing attention in the mental health field. While this disorder is not currently incorporated into the fourth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV), mental healthcare providers, particularly those working in the field of child trauma, are advocating for its inclusion in the DSM-V (Moran, 2007). Complex trauma has been linked to trauma endured during periods of extended captivity and has been directly associated with human trafficking (Courtois, 2008). Victims suffering from complex trauma often experience depression, anxiety, self-hatred, dissociation, substance abuse, despair, and somatic ailments. Individuals exposed to this type of trauma are also at heightened risk for self-destructive and risk-taking behaviors as well as re-victimization, and tend to experience difficulty with interpersonal and intimate relationships (Courtois, 2008). Future incorporation of this diagnosis into the DSM-V may have significant implications for the diagnosis and treatment of victims of human trafficking.

While victims of human trafficking can suffer from a range of mental health problems, the most prominent and those for which there is significant research documenting their presentation tend to be anxiety disorders, mood disorders, dissociative disorders, and substance-related disorders. While the future diagnosis of complex trauma in this population is possible, the uncertainty of its inclusion in the DSM-V prohibits extensive examination of evidence-based research regarding the treatment of this disorder.

Evidence-Based Mental Health Treatment

Trauma-informed services are a crucial part of a victims recovery (Clawson, Salomon, & Grace, 2008). In trauma-informed care, treatment is guided by practitioners understanding of trauma and trauma-related issues that can present themselves in victims. Trauma-informed care plays an important role in service delivery by providing a framework for accommodating the vulnerability of trauma victims. It is not, however, designed to treat specific symptoms or syndromes (Office of Mental Health and Addiction Services, 2008). The treatment of specific mental health symptoms and syndromes requires evidence-based therapeutic and sometimes pharmacological approaches.[4]

Evidence-based mental health treatment is guided by the idea that scientific evidence should be assessed when determining and implementing treatment options for patients (Drake et al., 2001; Howard, McMillen, & Pollio, 2003). It stresses the importance of grounding practice decisions in empirical evidence that supports specific treatment options for particular types of clients. Additionally, services should be implemented with adherence to evidence-based methodology; otherwise, treatment can

be ineffective and, in some cases, can even cause harm (Drake et al., 2001). Effective implementation requires training in therapeutic techniques. In the field, mental health practitioners engage in evidence-based practice by successfully integrating scientific findings with professional judgment and clients personal preferences (Howard, McMillen & Pollio, 2003). Non-licensed counselors may not only lack the unique skill set required for proper treatment implementation, but they may also lack testimonial privilege in court. Therefore, victims may be re-victimized if these counselors are called upon to testify during court proceedings since these counselors may have to disclose information that the victims believed to be confidential [5] (Office for Victims of Crime, 1998).

Evidence-based practices target improved outcomes in terms of symptoms, functional status, and quality of life. Therefore, progress is not only assessed in terms of relapse and re-hospitalization, but also positive outcomes such as independence, employment, and satisfying relationships are evaluated (Drake et al., 2001). Over the years, evidence-based practices have been shown to improve healthcare outcomes as well as conserve resources by removing unnecessary and ineffective healthcare treatment (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2003).

Hierarchical Standards for Evidence-Based Studies

1. Randomized Clinical trials
2. Quasi-experimental studies with comparison of groups not assigned through randomization
3. Open clinical trial that lack independent comparison groups
4. Clinical observation as expert opinion (generally, these should not be considered research evidence).

Due to the fairly new development of anti-human trafficking activities and initiatives and the recent recognition of the phenomenon of human trafficking in the field of mental health, there is little evidence-based research on the treatment of victims of human trafficking. However, as noted in other reports on human trafficking, it appears the health needs of this population are similar to those of other marginalized groups such as migrant laborers, victims of sexual abuse or domestic violence, and victims of torture (Clawson,

Dutch, & Williamson, 2008; Fassa, 2003; International Organization for Migration, 2006; Zimmerman, 2003). Therefore, pending sufficient evidence-based research on the direct treatment of human trafficking victims and the treatment of mental health disorders experienced by these individuals, research conducted with similar populations can be examined to provide a foundation for the treatment of this population.

Evidence-based treatment for Symptoms and Diseases associated with Human Trafficking

Processing the psychological consequences of human trafficking requires long-term, comprehensive therapy. Mental health therapy is typically based on one or more theories of psychological treatment, the most prominent being behavioral, cognitive, and psychodynamic. Behavioral therapy focuses on increasing desired behaviors and decreasing problem behaviors through environmental manipulation. Cognitive therapy works to change behaviors and feelings by altering how patients comprehend and understand significant life experiences. Psychodynamic therapy explains behavior and personality as being motivated by inner forces, including past experiences, inherited instincts, and biological drives, and targets patients unconscious (APA, 2008).

Evidence-Based Therapeutic Treatment Options for PTSD
Cognitive Therapy Aims to challenge dysfunctional thoughts based on irrational or illogical assumptions.
Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy Combines cognitive therapy with behavioral interventions such as exposure therapy, thought stopping, or breathing techniques.
Exposure Therapy Aims to reduce anxiety and fear through confrontation of thoughts (imaginal exposure) or actual situations (in vivo exposure) related to the trauma.

Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing

Combines general clinical practice with brief imaginal exposure and cognitive restructuring (rapid eye movement is included during the imaginal exposure and cognitive restructuring phases)

Stress inoculation Training

Combines psycho-education with anxiety management techniques such as relaxation training, breathing retraining, and thought stopping (Rauch & Cahill, 2003).

Over the years, research has found that complete psychiatric evaluations are preferable when working with victims of human trafficking. Comprehensive psychological evaluations offer mental healthcare providers a complete understanding of patients psychological needs, including those related to prior traumatic experiences and presentation of co-morbidity. Psychological evaluations can also assess patients functioning and availability of basic resources (e.g., food, shelter, clothing, income), both of which can have a significant impact on mental health as well as the benefits derived from treatment (Ursano et al., 2004). Once patients have received a full psychological evaluation, scientific literature should be examined to determine the most effective evidence-based treatment options available for care.

Empirical evidence on the treatment of PTSD increasingly supports the use of cognitive-behavioral therapy that incorporates cognitive restructuring and exposure therapy (Rauch & Cahill, 2003; Ursano et al., 2004). Cognitive-behavioral therapy combines cognitive therapy, including cognitive restructuring, with behavioral interventions such as exposure therapy, thought stopping, and breathing techniques. When exposure therapy is introduced, patients confront their fear through progressively intense exposure to the anxiety-provoking stimuli until habituation is reached. Exposure therapy can involve imaginal exposure, with confrontation occurring through thought only, or in vivo exposure, during which patients are exposed to the actual stimuli (Rauch & Cahill, 2003). For

example, medical professionals serving victims of sex trafficking cite provocative images of victims posted online during their victimization as a major factor in computer aversion (Williamson, Dutch & Clawson, 2008). Exposure therapy for computer aversion might begin by having patients imagine and work through what it would be like to simply type on a computer. The imaginal exposure would then slowly increase in intensity until patients were asked to imagine and work through what it would be like to find images of themselves online. Exposure treatment relies on patients active engagement in challenging their automatic fearful assumptions and responses through an objective assessment of what results from exposure to feared stimuli (Otto, Smits, & Reese, 2004).

In addition to cognitive-behavioral therapy that includes cognitive restructuring and exposure therapy, eye movement desensitization and reprocessing and stress inoculation training have both been found to be effective treatments for PTSD (Bradley, Greene, Russ, Dutra, & Westen, 2005; Rauch & Cahill, 2003; Ursano et al., 2004). Eye movement desensitization and reprocessing focuses on processing memories, and combines general clinical practice with brief imaginal exposure and cognitive

restructuring. During the imaginal exposure and cognitive restructuring phases, mental healthcare providers induce bilateral stimulation through rapid eye movement, bilateral sound, or bilateral tactile stimulation to decrease the vividness and/or negative emotions associated with the traumatic memories. Stress inoculation training, on the other hand, combines psycho-education with anxiety management techniques such as relaxation training, breathing retraining, and thought stopping (Rauch & Cahill, 2003). Cognitive-behavioral therapy, exposure therapy, and stress inoculation training have been found to be particularly successful in preventing the development of chronic PTSD as well as speeding recovery from PTSD when used with female victims of sexual violence (Rauch & Cahill, 2003; Ursano et al., 2004).

According to the American Psychiatric Association, randomized control trials do not support the effectiveness of psychological debriefing, or applying very brief intervention shortly after traumatic events, with patients presenting symptoms of PTSD (Rauch & Cahill, 2003; Ursano et al., 2004). Psychological debriefing has actually been found to increase symptoms of PTSD in some settings (Ursano et al., 2004). While the use of psychological debriefing is not supported, early supportive intervention, psycho-education, and case management have been found to facilitate victims continued utilization of mental health services (Ursano et al., 2004).

Cognitive-behavioral therapy is also at the forefront of evidence-based treatment for other anxiety and mood disorders (McIntosh et al., 2004; Otto, Smits, & Reese,, 2004; Weersing, Lyergar, Kolko, Birmaher, & Brent, 2006). While many practitioners continue to employ psychodynamic therapy, family systems intervention, or a combination of techniques from multiple theoretical practicum, the effectiveness of these treatment options lack evidence-based support at this time (Weersing, Lyergar, Kolko, Birmaher, & Brent, 2006). However, lack of evidence regarding other types of interventions does not necessarily mean they are ineffective, but rather that recommendations regarding the use of these treatment methods cannot be made based on current available research.

For individuals presenting with anxiety disorders, cognitive-behavioral therapy that combines psycho-education with exposure therapy and cognitive restructuring is especially beneficial in helping patients reevaluate automatic thoughts related to fears so

they can eliminate dysfunctional thoughts and create new frameworks for interpretation (Otto, Smits, & Reese, 2004). Cognitive-behavioral therapy, when offered by trained mental healthcare providers, has demonstrated long-term effectiveness (814 years) in patients suffering from anxiety disorders (McIntosh et al., 2004).

The most common diagnostic mood disorder among victims of human trafficking is major depressive disorder. Effective, evidence-based treatments for major depressive disorder include cognitive-behavioral therapy and interpersonal psychotherapy (Karasu, Gelenberg, Merriam, & Wang, 2000; McIntosh et al., 2004; Weersing, Lyergar, Kolko, Birmaher, & Brent, 2006). Unlike, cognitive-behavioral therapy, which targets dysfunctional thoughts while integrating behavioral interventions, interpersonal psychotherapy focuses on interpersonal relationships and the correlation between mood and interpersonal connections. The goal of interpersonal psychotherapy is to help patients improve their mood by seeking improvements in their interpersonal relationships (National Institute for Clinical Excellence, 2004).

Patients with substance-related disorders should be assessed to differentiate between use, misuse, abuse, and dependence. Psychotherapy, sometimes coupled with pharmacological treatment, can be an essential part of treatment of substance-related disorders. Evidence-based treatment includes cognitive-behavioral therapy, motivational enhancement therapy, behavioral therapy, 12-step facilitation, and psychodynamic/interpersonal therapy. Additionally, self-help manuals, behavioral self-control, brief interventions, case management, and group, marital, and family therapies can also benefit individuals suffering from substance use disorders (Kleber et al., 2006). Motivational enhancement therapy is a client-centered approach that induces motivation to create a personal decision and plan for change (Miller, 2003). Twelve-step facilitation programs for a variety of substances are based on the theoretical framework that willpower alone is not enough to attain sobriety and that long-term recovery involves spiritual renewal and acceptance of a higher power (Nowinski, 2003). When victims of human trafficking present with substance-related disorders, no matter what therapeutic method is used, treatment should focus on both the trauma and the consequential issues of victims drug abuse; if treatment only focuses on the consequential issues of victims

drug abuse without addressing the underlying trauma that caused the drug abuse victims will be less likely to succeed in treatment and more likely to relapse (Alexander, Kellogg & Thompson, 2005).

While significant research has been and continues to be conducted regarding the treatment of various anxiety and mood disorders, there is a more limited understanding regarding the treatment of dissociative disorders. According to the Mayo Clinic, treatment for dissociative disorders typically involves psychotherapy that incorporates various techniques, including techniques such as hypnosis, to trigger dissociative symptoms and help patients process their trauma. Treatment can include cognitive therapy as well as art therapy, where expression through art can help individuals who may have difficulty expressing themselves through words (Mayo Clinic, 2007).

In the absence of research pertaining to the mental health treatment of victims of human trafficking, mental health professionals working with this population must educate themselves on the evidence-based research related to the treatment of common diagnoses and similarly marginalized populations to ensure proper provision of the best mental health care possible. Mental health care providers should also educate themselves about effective pharmacological treatments for patients presenting with anxiety, mood, dissociative, and substance-related disorders. Some evidence suggests that selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors can effectively complement the psychotherapeutic treatment of PTSD as well as other anxiety and mood disorders (Seedat et al., 2005; Ursano et al., 2004; Weersing, Lyergar, Kolko, Birmaher, & Brent, 2006). Mental health care providers must remain up-to-date about new medications and research regarding pharmacological treatment to ensure proper coordination with psychiatrists and other medical providers, and to incorporate new scientific findings about medications.

Child Victims

Child victims of human trafficking require specialized attention by mental healthcare providers. The **most common presentations for victims of child sexual exploitation are substance-related disorders, dissociative disorders, impulse control,** conduct disorder, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, antisocial personality traits, and most or

all of the Axis IV psychological and environment problems. Mood and anxiety disorders such as obsessive-compulsive disorder and PTSD are also common; however, presentation for these disorders may be less overt due to self-medication and/or use of other survival skills (Alexander et al., 2005). Some studies have found that concurrence of victimization and developmental milestones can exacerbate psychological consequences (Office for Victims of Crime, 1998).

Little is known about the presentation of PTSD in children. Lack of information is due, in part, to the fact that identification of PTSD in children has been more recent than its recognition in adults (Pfefferbaum, 1997). One study found that while children might initially respond to trauma through a fight or flight response, long-term trauma without relief can result in children responding through immobilization followed by dissociation (Perry, Pollard, Blakley, Baker, & Vigilante, 1995). Some evidence suggests that girls are at higher risk for re-victimization than boys, while boys are more likely to develop aggressive behavior as a result of their victimization. This evidence suggests the need for distinct, targeted treatment for boys and girls (Office for Victims of Crime, 1998).

Reviews of controlled trials for the psychological treatment of sexually abused children have found that the best treatment for these children is cognitive-behavioral therapy. It is important to note that the majority of these studies have focused on younger children. While studies of older children have not demonstrated such consistent findings, the results from cognitive-behavioral therapies remain more compelling than those associated with other therapeutic models (Putnam, 2003; Ramchandani & Jones, 2003). As mentioned previously, other types of therapeutic interventions may be effective

in treating children victims of sexual abuse; however, the limited number of randomized controlled studies investigating these models precludes thorough assessment of their efficacy and assurance they do no harm (Ramchandani & Jones, 2003).

While evidence suggests that a significant percentage of children who have been sexually assaulted may experience long-term psychological problems and/or a later onset of problems, it also shows that the majority of children do not benefit from long-term therapy (Putnam 2003; Ramchandani & Jones, 2003). Therefore, therapy for these children must strike a balance between not being so short-term and symptom-driven that it misses children whose symptoms present later, and not being excessively long and keeping children in therapy beyond the point at which they benefit.

International Victims

Individuals ethnicity is often directly related to their world view and thus their experiences. Ethnicity can affect how individuals seek assistance, define their problems, attribute psychological difficulties, experience their unique trauma, and perceive future recovery options. Ethnicity can also directly influence patients outlooks on their pain, expectations of mental health treatment, and beliefs regarding the best course of treatment. Many cultures do not differentiate psychological, emotional, and spiritual reactions from more physical reactions; rather, they focus on the impact of trauma on the body as a whole. Additionally, cultural factors influencing individual's beliefs about threats and response to danger can play an important role in how individuals respond to violent crimes (Office for Victims of Crime, 1998).

Healthcare providers should remember that every culture has a distinct framework or perspective about mental health and, as a result, distinct beliefs about the benefits of seeking mental health services. Counseling, in general, is a predominantly western practice and in some cultures folk healing, healing rituals, and secret societies are the commonly accepted forms of healthcare provision (Williamson, Dutch & Clawson, 2008). Mental healthcare providers should familiarize themselves with the beliefs, values and practices of the various cultures of their patients so they are able to provide culturally competent care.

Conclusion

Among the most devastating mental health consequences for victims of any crime can be the destruction of basic life assumptions; that one is safe from harm, one is a good and decent person, and the world is meaningful and just (Office for Victims of Crime, 1998). For victims of human trafficking, mental health problems can be compounded by the misconceptions about and limited understanding of the issue of human trafficking. Additionally, lack of social support and stigmatization by friends, family, and social institutions can exacerbate victims mental health conditions (Office for Victims of Crime, 1998). Long-term population-specific studies are needed to provide evidence for the best treatment options to help victims of trafficking psychologically process the trauma they have experienced. However, until these studies are conducted and their results made available, mental health practitioners can base treatment options for this population on existing research findings and interventions found to be successful with other similarly victimized populations.

PART 3: TREATING THE HIDDEN WOUNDS: TRAUMA TREATMENT AND MENTAL HEALTH RECOVERY FOR VICTIMS OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Source: https://aspe.hhs.gov/system/files/pdf/75356/ib.pdf

I. STUDY OVERVIEW

This is the third in a series of Issue Briefs produced under a contract with the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation (ASPE) to conduct a study of HHS programs serving human trafficking victims. Funded in the fall of 2006, the purpose of this exploratory project is to develop information on how HHS programs are currently addressing the needs of victims of human trafficking, including domestic victims, with a priority focus on domestic youth. This project also consists of reviewing relevant literature, and identifying barriers and promising practices for addressing the needs of victims of human trafficking, with a goal of informing current and future program design and improving services to this extremely vulnerable population.

This issue brief addresses the trauma experienced by most trafficking victims, its impact on health and well-being, some of the challenges to meeting trauma-related needs of trafficking victims, and promising approaches to treatment and recovery. While this issue brief touches on trauma across human trafficking populations, it has a special emphasis on trauma resulting from sex trafficking of women and girls.

II. TRAUMA AND ITS IMPACT

Recent trauma studies have deepened our understanding of trauma and its impact. They describe a complex range of post-trauma symptoms and identify the interactions of multiple factors as contributing to their seriousness (Briere & Spinazzola, 2005). For example, more serious symptoms are associated with histories of multiple victimizations, often beginning in childhood and resulting in disruptions of parent-child relationships (Ford & Kidd, 1998; Turner, Finkelhor & Ormrod, 2006). More profound impacts are also

associated with co-occurring behavioral health problems, like substance abuse disorders, (Acierno, Resnick, Kilpatrick, Saunders, & Best, 1991) and with a range of other issues, like limited social supports, lower socioeconomic status, and stigma associated with particular traumatic events (Brier & Spinozzola, 2005).

Trauma exposure occurs along a continuum of "complexity," from the less complex single, adultonset incident (e.g., a car accident) where all else is stable in a person's life, to the repeated and intrusive trauma "frequently of an interpersonal nature, often involving a significant amount of stigma or shame" and where an individual may be more vulnerable, due to a variety of factors, to its effects (Briere & Spinazzola, 2005, p. 401). It is on this far end of the continuum where victims of human trafficking, especially sex trafficking, can be placed.

POST-TRAUMA RESPONSES FOR VICTIMS OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Most of the literature on trauma and trafficking focuses on the trafficking of foreign-born women and girls for commercial sexual exploitation. In addition to experiencing terrorizing physical and sexual violence, researchers report that victims often experience multiple layers of trauma including psychological damage from captivity and fear of reprisals if escape is contemplated, brainwashing, and for some, a long history of family, community, or national violence (Stark & Hodgson, 2003; Ugarte, Zarate, & Farley, 2003).

Additionally, the emotional effects of trauma can be persistent and devastating. Victims of human trafficking may suffer from anxiety, panic disorder, major depression, substance abuse, and eating disorders as well as a combination of these. For some victims, the trauma induced by someone they once trusted results in pervasive mistrust of others and their motives. This impact of trauma can make the job of first responders and those trying to help victims difficult at best.

In some cases, the exposure to trauma results in a condition referred to as Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). PTSD is a mental health diagnostic category created originally for war combatants and disaster victims but which also applies to victims of other traumas, including trafficking victims. For those that struggle with PTSD, the characterizing symptoms include intrusive re-experiencing of the trauma (e.g., flashbacks, nightmares, and intrusive thoughts), avoidance or numbing of trauma-related, or trauma-triggering, stimuli (e.g. avoiding certain places, people, and situations), and hyper arousal (e.g., heightened startle response, and inability to concentrate). For both adults and youth, once established, PTSD is usually chronic and debilitating if left untreated (Feeny, Foa, Treadwell & March, 2004).

Post-trauma responses like those outlined above reportedly contribute to problems with functioning, including difficulties controlling emotions, sudden outbursts of anger or self-mutilation (Briere & Gil, 1998), difficulties concentrating, suicidal behaviors (Zlotnick, Donaldson, Spirito, & Pearlstein, 1997), alterations in consciousness (dissociation), and increased risk taking. These post-traumatic symptoms and problems reflect those service providers often identify as common among the trafficking victims they work with. For some victims, in particular victims of sex trafficking, the use of alcohol and drugs to escape these emotional states is also a problem.

In addition to emotional problems, physical health problems can also predominate and result from the trauma of physical injury or indirectly through stress-related illnesses. For example, service providers report victims often complain of stomach pain, headaches, and other unexplained ailments. Given the impact of these trauma symptoms on the emotional and physical well-being of victims, it is not surprising that some victims of human trafficking experience difficulties obtaining and holding down a job, paying bills, and reintegrating back into society.

> "We can't address issues of employment, life skills, or anything else until we address the trauma. How can we expect someone to get a job when they can't even get out of bed or are afraid to leave the shelter?"
>
> -Case manager

III. CHALLENGES IN MEETING THE NEEDS OF TRAFFICKING VICTIMS WHO HAVE EXPERIENCED TRAUMATIC ABUSE

Many of the health and social needs of trafficking victims stem directly from their experience with trauma and the brutal reality of unremitting threats or actual physical and sexual violence. Meeting these needs, in particular providing mental health treatment and trauma-informed services, is not without challenges. Service providers report the following barriers and challenges to getting victims help in dealing with their trauma.

Limited availability and access to appropriate mental health services. Issues of affordability and access to services, as well as responsiveness of those services to the complex needs of survivors, are common issues identified by service providers. Providers uniformly point to access to mental health services as a significant challenge for both international and domestic victims.

For most victims, shame is seen as one of the greatest barriers preventing them from seeking mental health services. Providers note that the stigma associated with mental illness is an especially prominent challenge in engaging foreign-born and male victims in treatment.

> "I felt shame and wanted to forget what had happened to me. I needed to be strong. But I could not stop the nightmares. Talking to [therapist] helped me."
>
> *-Survivor of human trafficking*

For other victims, while providers report a willingness to seek help for physical health complaints, the underlying cause of the physical problems or symptoms - the trauma - often goes ignored and untreated.

For U.S. minor victims, barriers to accessing mental health services are linked primarily to the issues of confidentiality and concerns that someone will find out what has happened to them, lack of identification documents, lack of insurance, and system-related jurisdictional issues. For example, as one provider notes, it is often assumed that child welfare systems will provide mental health services for minors.

Requirements to report minors to child protective services, however, do not necessarily result in access to treatment. If the abuse is not inflicted by a parent or legal guardian, the case is often seen as outside the jurisdiction of the system. In such cases the minors fall through the cracks and do not receive services they need. But there are still challenges even if a youth has health insurance or is served under the child welfare system. Most providers note that referral sources for mental health treatment or counseling are limited for youth, as well as for adults. In one community, the wait for a psychiatric referral for youth was up to seven months.

Once access to mental health or counseling services is obtained, many providers are unable to maintain the long-term treatment that many victims require. Providers report that insurance and/or funding restrictions often limit the number of sessions that a victim can receive. Furthermore, traditional therapeutic services are often ill-designed to respond to the needs of transient victim populations, in particular U.S. minor victims, who sometimes find it difficult to meet expectations for weekly appointments. Responsive

mental health treatment requires considerable flexibility which may not be supported by existing systems of care. Therefore, while getting services in response to the immediate crisis is not viewed as a problem in most cases, helping a victim with long-term trauma recovery is a significant concern.

Difficulty establishing trusting relationships with victims. For both law enforcement and service providers, getting victims to trust them and accept help is a huge obstacle. They acknowledged that while building trust takes time, time is something that often worked against both law enforcement and providers. Many of the services available for victims are described as time limited. For example, both domestic violence shelters and runaway and homeless youth programs, where most counseling services are offered on-site to victims, generally provide for short stays that do not allow adequate time to establish trusting relationships needed in order for a victim to open up and begin to address their trauma. The mistrust of victims often is due to their histories of betrayal from families, service systems, and in some cases, law enforcement and governments. But in addition, a victim's mistrust is often compounded by fears that connections with law enforcement and/or service providers can compromise their physical safety (e.g., the trafficker will find them, they will be deported, or they will be sent back to an abusive home).

> "Clients need time to feel safe enough to overcome being scared for their lives, to recognize that they're victims, and to build relationships and open up to case managers, counselors, therapists, and others trying to help them."
>
> *-Victim service provider*

Mandated treatment efforts may be counterproductive when working with victims. In some communities, the only way to access mental health screening and treatment services is to be committed to a locked treatment facility. Having already experienced the loss of control to traffickers, this can make being in locked treatment facilities or detention centers seem particularly threatening, essentially re-traumatizing victims and frustrating their recovery.

Secrecy is a trademark of the women and girls involved in sex trafficking; victims may not define their experience as abusive, or attempt to escape. A complex web of coping strategies and harsh realities make it hard for some victims to seek and receive help. The shame and stigma of sex trafficking may lead them to conceal their involvement in prostitution, even in therapeutic relationships where success is dependent on frank disclosure and "working through" the trauma (Herman, 2003). In addition, if a victim does not define her experience as abusive, no matter how dangerous, she will not likely seek help or engage in recovery (Ugarte et al., 2003).

Foreign-born trafficking victims face additional barriers related to language, culture, and isolation. Lack of English skills for foreign-born victims limit their ability to access information about rights, services and options. Isolation due to these language barriers as well as cultural differences can be hard for any new immigrant but are particularly devastating for trafficking victims by reinforcing their captivity. (It should be noted that the isolation of domestic victims moved repeatedly throughout the country has some of the same effects.) Forming outside supports is critical in fighting the isolation and ultimately getting victims the help they need. Shifts in traditional Western professional treatment paradigms to more nontraditional interventions and support groups (which "recognize oppression when working with people of low economic status and low power") have been noted as key to working with immigrant and refugee victims (Hotaling et al., 2003 p. 257).

IV. TRAUMA INFORMED AND SPECIFIC SERVICES

Given this range of challenges, what do we know about the way systems and services can best respond to the complex and multiple needs of trafficking victims? One especially useful framework characterizes two broad categories of service delivery: "trauma informed" services, appropriate for all systems of care in which victims may present; and "trauma specific" services, designed to treat the actual symptoms of physical or sexual abuse in specialty treatment programs (Harris & Fallot, 2001).

This framework is especially appropriate to working with trafficked women and girls since they are likely to present in a variety of systems of care for other than their trauma-related needs. Trauma informed services can promote a sensitive and relevant response regardless of where a victim seeks help, and can also improve the identification of victims. At the same time, trafficking victims are likely to need more specific and long-term trauma treatment. The distinction between trauma informed and trauma specific services can help providers better pinpoint where their services are located on the continuum and what it might take (including training, supervision, additional program components and networking) to create a more continuous and comprehensive system for victims of human trafficking.

Trauma informed services encompass two distinctly different things. According to Harris & Fallot (2001), to be trauma informed means, first, to "know the history of past and current abuse" in the life of your clients. This information allows for a more integrated and appropriate approach to meeting their needs. But second, to be trauma informed means "to understand the role that violence and victimization play in the lives of most consumers of… services and to use that understanding to design service systems that accommodate the vulnerabilities of trauma survivors and allow services to be delivered in a way that will facilitate consumer participation in treatment." (Harris & Fallot, 2001, pp. 4-5) Trauma informed services are generally developed to treat primary problems other than trauma, by building capacity within those systems of care where survivors of trauma may present (i.e., homeless shelters, substance abuse treatment programs, the criminal/juvenile justice systems, mental health programs, medical programs, etc.). Regardless of the agency or system's primary mission, trauma informed services are

committed to providing services in a manner that is welcoming and appropriate to the special needs of trauma survivors. Both the identification of victims, and successful treatment of their trauma, can be improved by having trauma informed services provided in multiple systems.

Trauma specific services, on the other hand, are likely to be found with specialty mental health programs or providers, although they clearly could be developed in other medical settings, homeless shelters, or other systems of care. They are generally accessed by referral to those doing the clinical work. A variety of trauma specific techniques are in the repertoire of these services. Among them may be grounding techniques to help manage dissociative symptoms; desensitization therapies to help make painful images more tolerable; and certain behavioral therapies which teach skills for coping with posttrauma effects (Harris & Fallot, 2001). These therapies can be delivered individually or in groups, and are often augmented by other complimentary approaches, including culturally relevant material.

V. CORE COMPONENTS OF TRAUMA INFORMED AND SPECIFIC SERVICES

While the needs of individual trafficking victims with histories of trauma may vary considerably, the systems of care in which they are likely to present (child welfare; criminal justice; immigration; public health and behavioral health) can be better prepared to recognize their needs and help accordingly. Core components of a system of care responsive to the trauma-related needs of trafficking victims should include a set of core principles and practices based upon providers understanding that:

- ***Trauma is a defining life event*** **with a complex course which can profoundly shape a victim's sense of self and others;**
- ***The victim's complaints, behaviors and symptoms are coping mechanisms*** **(their original sources of strength may no longer be effective), and requiring use of a relational, rather than individualized or confrontational, approach to their solution;**

- ***The primary goals of services are empowerment and recovery*** **(growth, mastery, and efficacy) which are prevention-driven and limited by survivor self-assessment and recovery needs; and**
- ***The service relationship is collaborative,*** **with victim and provider having equally valuable knowledge, the victim can be an active planner and participant in services, his/her safety ensured, a priority placed on choice and self control, and trust developed over time (Harris & Fallot, 2001).**

Specific core components that are based on these beliefs and practices are listed below.

Review of agency policies and procedures to identify and remove any that are potentially unsafe and harmful to trafficking victims with histories of trauma. Internal reviews, using a trauma lens, can be especially helpful in identifying policies and procedures (e.g., strip searches, locked holding pens) which can be damaging to trafficking victims experiencing trauma disorders. Conversely, assessing the degree to which policies and procedures support a welcoming and agency-wide trauma informed perspective, within an overall planning process, can help clarify an agency's needs (for staff and training) and the role it expects to play within a comprehensive network of community services.

Education and training of staff, including those working directly with trafficking victims as well as other providers in relevant systems of care. Education of staff might include training on the complex interactions of trauma, substance use, emotional disorders and physical illness; multicultural education on specialized approaches to working with foreign-born victims; as well as basic safety issues in working with victims and approaches to treatment. Training should also include helping caregivers understand the experience of being trafficked, who is most vulnerable to trafficking, the techniques traffickers use to recruit victims, the impact on victims, and what a path to recovery can look like.

Key Characteristics of a Skilled Provider Working with Trauma-Survivors

- **Understands that certain survivor behaviors are a response to trauma;**
- **Is knowledgeable regarding the mental health [and substance abuse] effects of violence and in particular, sexual violence;**
- **Is skilled and knowledgeable regarding trauma and trauma treatment;**
- **Is able to provide culturally competent services and seeks supervision regarding cultural issues;**
- **Is responsive to emergency mental health issues of clients**

Modified list from Helping Sexual Assault Survivors with Multiple Victimizations and Needs: A Guide for Agencies Serving Sexual Assault Survivors (Davies, 2007), page 40

Screening for trauma in multiple settings. Identification is the first and necessary step in assuring victims get the help they need. In some cases, providers may be reluctant to ask sensitive questions early on in the relationship building process; however, not raising those questions at all can be more detrimental. For victims of sex trafficking, culturally sensitive screening that incorporates multiple references to sexual abuse has been considered beneficial in reframing the abuse and shifting responsibility to the perpetrators (Ugarte et al., 2003). Staff who conduct these screening will need adequate skills, supervision, and supports.

> "In exchange for training on human trafficking, we have enlisted help from a group of psychologists to train our staff to ask questions that enable us to assess mental health needs without directly asking if the client needs mental health services. We ask questions about the trauma symptoms and then recommend someone that can help them, for instance, with the nightmares they are experiencing or the headaches they keep having. This helps us avoid the stigma associated with mental health services in some cultures."
>
> *-Victim service provider*

Ensuring safety and meeting basic service needs. Establishing physical and psychological safety is considered a pre-requisite in working with trafficking victims with trauma histories. This may mean collaboratively assessing the current level of client safety and developing together plans to remain safe. It can also mean designing each component of service to prioritize safety. For example, an outreach and engagement activity under this rubric would prioritize safety and control by explicitly seeking permission to speak with a victim, asking about the amount of privacy he/she might want for an initial conversation, and following his/her lead on disclosure. Safety may also include working with a clinician who is respectful, non-judgmental, and allows the victim to explore his/her history in a safe and containing way. In addition and complementary to safety, providers emphasize several basic services that are critical components to comprehensively meeting the needs of individuals who have experienced trauma, including safe housing, life skills, health care, legal services, and vocational supports (Finkelstein et al., 2004). Developing

multidisciplinary collaborative networks of programs across systems of care can help facilitate comprehensively addressing multiple needs.

> "Interviewing techniques are very important when working with trauma survivors. Having the capacity to empathize with the victim, letting her take the lead, and treating her respectfully goes a long way to building trust and getting results."
>
> *-Law enforcement officer*

Building long-term, sustaining relationships and providing opportunities for regaining valued social roles. A critical part of trauma recovery and building new lives for trafficking victims involves the development of trusting, long-term relationships. This often needs to occur well before a victim is willing to engage in trauma specific treatment. These relationships are developed in some programs with "care coordinators" who assist with identifying and helping to meet a victim's basic needs. Care coordinators are sometimes the link (through gentle and respectful suggestion) between basic services and mental health treatment, where needed. Other programs, working especially with immigrant women, emphasize relationship building through more natural and culturally familiar supports, including home visits, sharing a meal, etc. Helping victims connect with valued social roles, such as providing opportunities for peer leadership and community action are also noted by trafficking survivors and providers as opportunities to regain or reshape a victim's sense of self and capabilities.

Access to trauma specific treatment services. In addition to the trauma informed strategies outlined above, providers working with trauma survivors must have access to a range of trauma specific interventions, including individual clinicians willing, available and culturally competent to work with victims of human trafficking, as well as groups designed to meet their often multiple treatment needs. Cognitive Behavioral Therapies have been most studied and therefore have the largest evidence-base supporting their effectiveness in reducing PTSD symptoms (Feeny et al., 2004; Foa and Rothbaum, 1998). In addition, evolving traumatheory specific to complex trauma

emphasizes that treatment should address developmental and relationship difficulties in addition to PTSD symptoms (Pearlman & Courtois, 2005).

Several treatment approaches have been developed for complex trauma specific to adolescents, using group therapy to address skills development, affect regulation, interpersonal connections and competence and resiliency building. These interventions all emphasize the relationship between symptoms and the traumatic experience, the development of concrete coping skills in managing symptoms, and the use of peer support groups to increase normalization, build healthy interpersonal relationship skills, and establish social supports (Cook et al., 2005). One program for sexually exploited teens emphasizes the importance that youth make the connection between their physical symptoms and mental health. Weaving mental health into other strategies, like art or music therapy, appear especially promising.

Providers also need to understand and assess the role that culture plays in resiliency and the importance of community resources as potentially mediating the trauma experience, especially for foreign-born victims. Individually-focused Western conceptualizations of trauma may miss the potential strengths inherent in culture and community to enhance engagement in healthy relationships and promote recovery (Tsoi Hoshmand, 2007; ArgentiPullen, 2000; Burstow, 2003; Summerfield, 2004).

Making peer models and supports available. Given the challenges for trafficking victims in developing trusting relationships with professionals, there was wide acceptance among providers that successful programs need to incorporate peer-to-peer counseling and supports among their core components. Particularly for victims of human trafficking, where shame promotes secrecy, individuals can be most comfortable with peers who understand, and have lived, their own struggles. Both service providers and victims highlight the critical importance of non-judgmental, empathic peer support that allows trauma victims to successfully make the transition to a new life. Furthermore, peer led services can reduce or remove the cultural and language barriers that can get in the way of successful recovery. Structured peer support additionally offers the opportunity for survivors to "develop a new identity as a valued and responsible member of a community." (Herman, 2003 p.11).

More and more programs for victims of human trafficking are starting to engage survivors in programming. This includes peer counsels assisting in program decision-making and peers providing group-mentoring/support to current clients. Peers are often individuals who graduated from the program. Interviews with survivors suggest that, when they are ready, involving them in the care of others can be beneficial to both the survivor and the victims they work with. Other programs have formed "communities" of survivors to serve as peer groups to assist other victims in rebuilding their sense of personal efficacy. Part of the success of these groups involves allowing the victims to set the agenda for meetings and focus on what is most important to them; which have included computer training, language classes, ethnic celebrations, and writing plays about their experiences.

Developing alternatives to traditional therapies. Alternatives to traditional therapies, especially those that build self-esteem, empowerment, and re-connection with self, are considered important adjunct services for this population. Art therapy, journaling, poetry and song writing, yoga, body work, drama, and outdoor physical activities are some examples of this strategy. Given the difficulty some victims have with self-soothing (an impact of trauma), it is not surprising that several programs use music as part of their therapy. Some programs report offering organized religious or spiritual activities to help

victims connect to something that will last beyond the program timeframe. For several of the youth programs, engaging victims in decision making, providing leadership opportunities, and helping youth develop valued social roles is part of therapy. For adults, programs offered acupuncture, meditation, and a variety of other alternatives to traditional therapy within their agencies.

SAGE is a human rights non-profit survivor-run drug, mental health, and trauma treatment center in San Francisco, California. Its peer counseling model avoids a traditional approach to trauma treatment that positions service providers as clinically neutral authority figures. Rather, SAGE provides client centered supportive partnerships which address the social, political and economic contexts of client difficulties. SAGE combines the peer counseling with a host of other services, including alternative trauma treatments, such as acupuncture, art therapy, massage, healing touch, movement, and drama. SAGE also has a broad referral network which includes therapists specializing in Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing (EMDR), an information processing therapy that integrates elements of many effective psychotherapies (psychodynamic, cognitive behavioral, interpersonal, experiential, and bodycentered therapies in structured protocols that are designed to maximize treatment effects (Shapiro, 2001), and willing to provide pro bono services.

V. SUMMARY

Victims of human trafficking are especially vulnerable to the debilitating physical and psychological symptoms of trauma resulting from their repeated, intrusive, and long-term abuse. Providers working with this population, in particular with sexually exploited women and girls, emphasize that trauma recovery is critical to a victim's ability to repair and regain her life. However, there are many challenges to meeting the trauma-related needs of trafficking victims, especially since a comprehensive approach, which includes building basic supports and safety as well as treatment, often crosses multiple systems of care. Building trauma-informed and trauma-specific services offers the promise of identifying and responding to victims where they present (i.e., in other than the mental health system)

with services that cover the spectrum of their needs. Building long-term, trusting relationships is at the heart of this work, which requires time and flexible models of engagement and treatment, including peerto-peer work. In addition to group and individual trauma-specific counseling, a range of alternative therapies offer promise in helping victims build self-esteem, empowerment and re-connection with themselves and society. For foreign-born victims, promising models that recognize the limitations of individualized Western treatment and the healing potential of culture and community resources show promise.

PART 4: TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS REPORT 2020

Source: https://www.state.gov/wp-content/uploads/2020/06/2020-TIP-Report-Complete-062420-FINAL.pdf

Chapter 1: Trauma Bonding in Human Trafficking

The following is a product of the Human Trafficking Expert Consultant Network funded by the TIP Office. The purpose of the Network is to engage experts, particularly those with lived experience, to provide expertise and input on Department of State anti-trafficking policies, strategies, and products related to human trafficking, both in the United States and abroad. The authors have a range of expertise related to human trafficking, marginalized communities, and trauma.

In human trafficking cases, the relationship between victim and trafficker may involve trauma bonding, a phenomenon that is beginning to receive increased attention. In research on the topic, **trauma bonding is commonly referred to as "Stockholm Syndrome,"** and the terms may be used interchangeably. However, there is no medical standard for diagnosis of either, nor any agreed upon definition of trauma bonding. In addition, there is no definitive understanding of trauma bonding's prevalence within trafficking situations and not all trafficking victims experience it. Current research is mostly limited to the United States and focused almost exclusively on sex trafficking of women and girls. These research gaps create uncertainty regarding the prevalence and full impact of trauma bonding on all human trafficking victims globally.

Although definitions vary, the most common meaning of trauma bonding is when a trafficker uses rewards and punishments within cycles of abuse to foster a powerful emotional connection with the victim. Traffickers may take on a role of protector to maintain control of the victim, create confusion, and develop a connection or attachment, which may include the victim feeling a sense of loyalty to or love for the trafficker. This connection, or traumatic bond, becomes especially intense when fear of the trafficker is paired with gratitude for any kindness shown. Additionally, trauma bonding, including in cases of trafficking, may occur within familial relationships in which the perpetrator could even be a parent.

UNDERSTANDING BIOLOGY

To understand the complexities of trauma bonding in human trafficking, it is critical to consider the biological impact of trauma and the effects of psychological coercion on the brain. **The foundations for trauma bonding are laid at the neurobiological levels. During a single incident of trauma, the limbic system, the brain's emotion center, over-activates and the prefrontal cortex, the brain's logic center, shuts down. Repeated trauma exposure can negatively affect brain development and the way a person thinks, often resulting in a victim becoming numb and disconnected from themselves.** Therefore, in order for them to feel something, it must be intense. For example, a trafficker's repeated abuse and the related trauma exposure may result in a trafficking victim returning to the trafficker due to the intensity, familiarity, and routine

provided by the relationship. At times, this relationship may also decrease the psychological impact of the trauma as moments of love and care from the trafficker offset experiences of anxiety or fear.

UNDERSTANDING PSYCHOLOGICAL COERCION

Psychological coercion may increase the likelihood of trauma bonding. When a victim perceives a threat to their physical and psychological survival at the hands of their trafficker, trauma bonding may occur. Traffickers may isolate and threaten victims, induce exhaustion, and interfere with their believed or real ability to escape. A victim may eventually feel helpless and respond to any form of “help” or “kindness” from their trafficker with gratitude and attachment in order to survive. Inaccessibility to other sources of support or comfort can increase the power of psychological coercion within a trauma bond. Describing the bonding that occurs in the face of danger, psychiatrist and trauma expert Bessel Van der Kolk explains, “Pain, fear, fatigue, and loss of loved ones and protectors all evoke efforts to attract increased care. When there is no access to…other sources of comfort, people may turn toward their tormentors.” Therefore, a victim’s social and economic circumstances may contribute to their developing a sense of trust and loyalty towards a trafficker. For example, lack of access to housing, healthcare, employment, income, education, or asylum may increase the likelihood of a trauma bond developing.

IMPACT ON SERVICE DELIVERY

When a trafficking victim who has experienced trauma bonding seeks assistance, government officials and service providers must recognize that survivors may behave in ways that seem incongruous with typical expectations of victimization. Within human trafficking, trauma bonding may cause coerced co-offending, perceived ambivalence, delayed or inaccurate reporting, or unwillingness to cooperate with law enforcement.

Services available to survivors of human trafficking, especially those who have experienced trauma bonding, need to be responsive to the impact of the survivor's relationship with their trafficker. A trauma bond may help a victim feel balanced due to the sense of predictability the relationship provides. Within the relationship, there is familiarity and consistency, while leaving the relationship presents the risk of the unknown. The control in a trauma bond may help a person mentally make sense of the world, whereas escaping the trauma bond and trying to make independent decisions may feel overwhelming.

By leaving a trauma bond, a survivor may risk experiencing intense anger and sadness, numbness, negative expectations about the future, and internal disorder. When providers deny access to services due to a victim's interaction with the perpetrator, it may result in re-victimization through engagement in high-risk survival activities. Stages of "relapses" wherein the victim returns to the trafficker should therefore be considered in treatment planning. Finally, organizations must be cautious not to replicate trauma bonding within their own programs, wherein the service provider assumes the simultaneously protective and coercive role the trafficker previously played in the survivor's life.

LOOKING AHEAD

More research is needed on trauma bonding in human trafficking alongside development of evidence-based and trauma-informed service delivery.

Rigorous, methodologically sound, and impartial research into the frequency of trauma bonding will support improved understanding among practitioners and more effective policies and services.

Standardization for assessing trauma bonding can help identify red flag indicators and establish response protocols.

Systemic inaccessibility to stability is noted frequently among human trafficking survivors. Examination of the relationship between socioeconomic factors and the occurrence of trauma bonding is necessary.

Adult-focused interventions require additional empirical research on the role of trauma bonding.

Significant exploration regarding trauma bonding among labor trafficking victims is needed.

Because there are no consistent criteria for identifying trauma bonding, the label should be used carefully until clear criteria are established.

Programs need to recognize when trauma bonding has occurred and enhance a victim's agency. Patience and consistency with service responses may increase a victim's ability to break the trauma bond.

Chapter 2: Faith-Based Efforts to Combat Human Trafficking

In 2014, Pope Francis joined with 11 other religious leaders representing the Muslim, Jewish, Orthodox, Anglican, Buddhist, and Hindu faiths to commit to work together and within their respective communities to inspire spiritual and practical action to help eradicate human trafficking worldwide. In a historic step, these religious leaders of the world's major religions gathered and proclaimed in unison that their sacred texts do not support human trafficking.

As perhaps this momentous occasion demonstrated, faith-based communities, organizations, and congregations are powerful and necessary forces in the fight against human trafficking. Unlike governments, faith-based organizations are not limited by jurisdiction, election cycles, or political will. Nor are faith communities hemmed in by borders. By contrast, faith-based organizations serve in many different cities, provinces, and countries. They reach across international borders, spanning continents with a powerful network of followers with tremendous reach – from remote villages to capital cities and the seats of power. This unique nongovernmental reach allows faith-based organizations a flexibility that governments cannot exercise.

Faith-based organizations are well-positioned by their familiarity with local threats, their stake in keeping their communities safe, and their ability to develop context, build trust, establish relationships, and provide protection before a trafficker ever acts. They can issue calls to action that cut across borders, cultures, ethnicities, and economic classes.

Faith-based efforts to combat human trafficking take many forms and operate in different ways, adapting to a particular context or sector, or to the culture of the communities and

countries in which they serve. Some of the entities involved have raised awareness, made concrete commitments, established networks, or developed tools and guidance to help eradicate human trafficking, as well as assisted with the reintegration of survivors in their community. The following are but a few examples of faith-based anti-trafficking efforts.

The Interfaith Center on Corporate Responsibility (ICCR) based in the United States uses a multi-faith approach from a different angle. A coalition of more than 300 global institutional investors with more than $500 billion in managed assets, it uses the power of shareholder advocacy to engage companies to identify, mitigate, and address social and environmental risks associated with corporate operations, including human trafficking. ICCR members call on companies they hold to adopt policies banning human trafficking as a key part of their core business polices, and to train their personnel and suppliers to safeguard against these risks throughout their supply chains. ICCR's Statement of *Principles & Recommended Practices for Confronting Human Trafficking & Modern Slavery* provides guidance to companies to protect their supply chains from sex and labor trafficking.

In **Senegal**, religious leaders and local authorities in several municipalities are engaged in efforts to reduce and eradicate forced child begging. Forced child begging is one of the main forms of trafficking found in Senegal, where children, commonly known as talibés have been forced to beg in the streets as part of their studies in Quranic schools, called daaras. While the majority are Senegalese, many of these children also come from neighboring countries in West Africa such as **The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, and Mali.** Over the past few years, the government has increased its engagement with religious leaders from all of Senegal's five dominant religious brotherhoods and the national federation of Quranic teachers to raise concerns regarding forced begging and secure their commitments to end this practice in its current form. With support from the international community, some targeted projects have sought to raise awareness and sensitize local authorities and religious leaders on the issue of forced child begging. One such project conducted over the past few years by UNODC is also facilitating the creation of local associations of Quranic teachers and is working with prominent leaders to raise awareness during radio programs, clearly stating that forced

child begging is child trafficking and is against Islamic principles. As a result, several Quranic schools have committed to no longer send their children to beg, and the National Federation of Quranic Teachers is working with the Ministry of Family and Child Protection to push for the adoption of the Daara Modernization Law by the National Assembly. While much more needs to be done given the size of the problem, these faith-based efforts are nonetheless very promising. UNODC also published a paper in 2010, titled Combating Trafficking in Persons in Accordance with the Principles of Islamic Law.

Talitha Kum (or the International Network of Consecrated Life Against Trafficking in Persons), is a project based in Rome, Italy, and founded in 2009 by the International Union of Superiors General, in collaboration with the Union of Superiors General. It functions as a network of networks to connect women religious in more than 92 countries to facilitate collaboration and the exchange of experiences and to help strengthen efforts to combat human trafficking. Network members work with local communities to raise awareness and recognize the indicators of human trafficking, advocate for the effective implementation of existing laws, and work closely with victims to provide them with guidance and support, including access to shelters, safe houses, counseling and legal assistance, and vocational training. In the Mediterranean region, a priority area of Talitha Kum, women of Christian and Muslim faith are working together against human trafficking.

T’ruah is a nonprofit organization bringing together more than 2,000 rabbis and cantors, together with all members of the Jewish community, to act on the Jewish imperative to respect and protect the human rights of all people. A leader in the Jewish community’s fight against modern slavery, T’ruah has partnered since 2011 with the Coalition of Immokalee Workers (CIW) to expand the Fair Food Program, bringing human rights and higher wages to farmworkers in Florida and up the East Coast and eliminating the root causes of human trafficking in the tomato industry. More than 100 of T'ruah’s “#tomatorabbis” have led broader faith efforts to support CIW, bringing their communities to join farmworker campaigns, sharing sermons and other faith resources, and putting tomatoes on their Seder plates each Passover in honor of the farmworkers who picked them. In 2018, T’ruah was the first Jewish organization to join the Alliance to End Slavery and Trafficking.

Finally, there are a number of resources, such as UNICEF's Interfaith Toolkit to End Trafficking, to help educate faith leaders and faith-based organizations on the issue of human trafficking and to empower them with the resources they need to take action in a way that prevents further harm to victims.

Organizations called by their faith to help address human trafficking can play an important role both locally and around the world. Given their unique reach, they are well positioned to inspire spiritual and practical action to help respond to and prevent human trafficking.

Chapter 3: Human Trafficking of Athletes

Many people around the world dream of becoming professional athletes, drawn by the fame, multi-million-dollar contracts, lucrative brand sponsorships, and opportunities to travel around the world. The growing number of young players aspiring to become professional athletes and the potential to sign the next greatest deal inevitably draws human traffickers looking to profit from the exploitation of players' dreams. The often-insufficient oversight by sport governing bodies and lack of government enforcement further allows unscrupulous agents to operate.

Most often, sports agents approach poor or rural families with an offer to arrange for a child to train at a street-side academy, sports club, or school, with the promise of signing the child with a professional team. Many of these families will do whatever it takes to meet the agent's price. In cases where the agent does arrange for the children's admittance and travel to a club or school, typically for a fee of thousands of dollars, the children often find themselves in situations that increase their vulnerability to predatory behaviors. Some unscrupulous agents immediately abandon the children while in transit or after arrival at the destination. Other agents, who are actually traffickers, have a longer-term scheme, where they vie to establish themselves within young athletes' circle of trust and instill a sense of dependency as early as possible. If players fail to advance to the next level in the sport, the agent abandons them without means to return home. If abandoned abroad, players often remain in the country undocumented not knowing how to contact family and

friends or too afraid to do so because of a strong sense of shame and self-blame. This lack of resources, guidance, and social support increases their vulnerability to traffickers.

For players offered a position on a team, the traffickers posing as agents have already established a relationship with the athlete and are well-positioned to control the course of the athlete's career. In numerous cases, the traffickers have compelled or tricked athletes into signing exploitative contracts with major kickback schemes that bind the athletes to the agent. These agents often maintain control of athletes' travel and identity documents to prevent them from leaving, or they exploit a debt amassed from previous fees or interest on loans to keep the athlete in a state of debt-based coercion. For the athletes who have dedicated their lives to sign a contract, the fear of losing the opportunity by questioning the terms of that contract or their so-called agent can be insurmountable. Once the contract is signed, the trafficker finally has the control needed to extort as much as possible from the athlete. Even after becoming more established, athletes may feel it is too risky to challenge the terms of a contract or seek other representation out of fear their situation would cause shame, ruin their reputation, or jeopardize their future.

While traffickers tend to target children and youth, they also approach young adults. In these instances, traffickers follow the same plan of signing an exploitative contract if the player is selected or abandonment upon failure. In either scenario, the player is at heightened risk of human trafficking. When legal migration avenues to countries with premier leagues are difficult or do not exist, the draw of a trafficker's promise of success is even more compelling.

A number of human trafficking cases in sports have been reported by news outlets and in documentaries. Within Europe's soccer industry alone, it is estimated there are 15,000 human trafficking victims each year. The migration patterns vary by sport, but the exploitative scheme of recruiting, building trust and dependency, and taking control upon a job offer is universal. The confluence of athletes' desire to play, their families' hopes of escaping poverty, agents' desire to profit, leagues' interest in marketing competitive players and games, and teams' eagerness to find young talent all create an environment that, if left unregulated, could be ripe for traffickers to exploit.

Yet neither governments nor international sports federations or national sports leagues have successfully addressed the growing incidence of human trafficking of athletes. As professional sports leagues have become increasingly globalized, multilateral and regional bodies have started incorporating protection of athletes in sports integrity and anticorruption initiatives; however, government and industry efforts to regulate an expanding web of migration and recruitment routes have proven insufficient. Though some national sports associations and individual government officials have taken interest in addressing the exploitation of athletes, the global nature of the sports industry and decentralized structure of many associations and leagues calls for a more systematic and standardized approach. Greater pressure on teams and their scouts is needed to conduct more due diligence on the agents they work with to ensure their talent acquisition is free of exploitation. While sports federations have precautions and safeguards in place against unwarranted interference from external parties, governments should acknowledge when their national sport leagues or associations in their country are not adequately protecting athletes and investigate cases where agents violate anti-trafficking and labor statutes.

Governments could consider: increasing coordination between their youth or child services programs and their sports programs; training consular officers on common indicators or schemes traffickers use within student or sports visas programs; and pursuing partnerships or dialogues with sports agencies and leagues to begin to address this form of human trafficking, such as through nationwide public awareness initiatives.

A CASE STUDY ON CHALLENGES: FIFA'S EFFORTS TO MONITOR PLAYER RECRUITMENT

As with labor recruiters for other industries, sport agents are an important bridge connecting players to clubs and a lack of regulation or oversight of agents creates favorable conditions for human trafficking. The highest governing body of the most popular sport in the world, FIFA, has immense power and responsibility to protect the

integrity of the sport and protect its millions of players. However, reports of human trafficking in organized soccer under FIFA, including cases involving children, continue to surface. In 2008, FIFA issued regulations on agents and required all to be licensed by a sports association. In 2010, after FIFA learned of several players who had paid exorbitant fees to join a team, it mandated teams and anyone connecting players to them to register all international player transfers with FIFA's online system.

Enforcement of these regulations proved challenging. Some associations refused to work only with licensed agents (estimates claimed licensed agents comprised only 25 to 30 percent of active agents); some agents and clubs failed to report transactions at all; and discrepancies proliferated between countries' national regulations on recruitment. To address these shortcomings, FIFA released a new set of regulations in 2015 that decentralized monitoring of agents, who previously had needed to pass an exam and register with a national governing body. The new regulations also empowered member associations to establish their own criteria and registration system for any intermediary representing players or clubs in employment contract and transfer agreement negotiations. Deregulation of the recruitment industry and a decline in transparency and accountability resulted in an increase in the number of intermediaries. The 2015 regulations also removed limits on the duration of representation contracts, which opened the door to young players unwittingly binding themselves to long-term representation with a certain agent and losing their ability to leave a job. To mitigate some of these consequences, FIFA established a task force to recommend regulatory changes for intermediaries, including a potential return to a central licensing system through FIFA and creation of a clearing house to process payments associated with player transfers, such as agent commissions. Such a move could improve oversight of an industry that has resisted regulation despite being linked to crimes, including human trafficking.

Chapter 4: Trafficking for Forced Labour; The Economy of Coercion

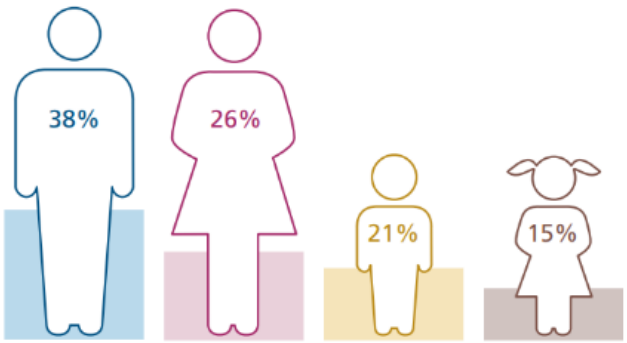
Trafficking for the purpose of forced labour cannot be analysed as a single form of trafficking, as it includes a variety of different methods of exploitation, victim profiles and economic sectors. This form of trafficking is characterized by its infiltration in the legal economy and its possible interaction with daily life. Victims can be trafficked in sectors that are part of a population's ordinary consumption, such as food production, construction and textile manufacturing. Traffickers involved in this form of exploitation may not necessarily work underground in illicit markets, but instead may be associated with officially registered companies or operate in a broader informal economic system where working conditions resort to exploitative practices to increase profits.

Trafficking for the purpose of forced labour accounts for about 38 per cent of the total trafficking cases detected globally in 2018. Some regions of the world, namely Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, detect more cases of trafficking for forced labour than other types of trafficking.

Globally, the majority of detected victims trafficked for forced labour are adult men. Meanwhile, adult women account for about one fourth, while children account for more than one third of detected victims (15 per cent are girls and 21 per cent are boys). However, it is important to note that there are regional differences that affect these figures.

FIG. 63 Shares of detected victims of trafficking for forced labour, by age group and sex, 2018 (or most recent)

106 countries (n=6,530 victims whose form of exploitation by sex and age was reported)

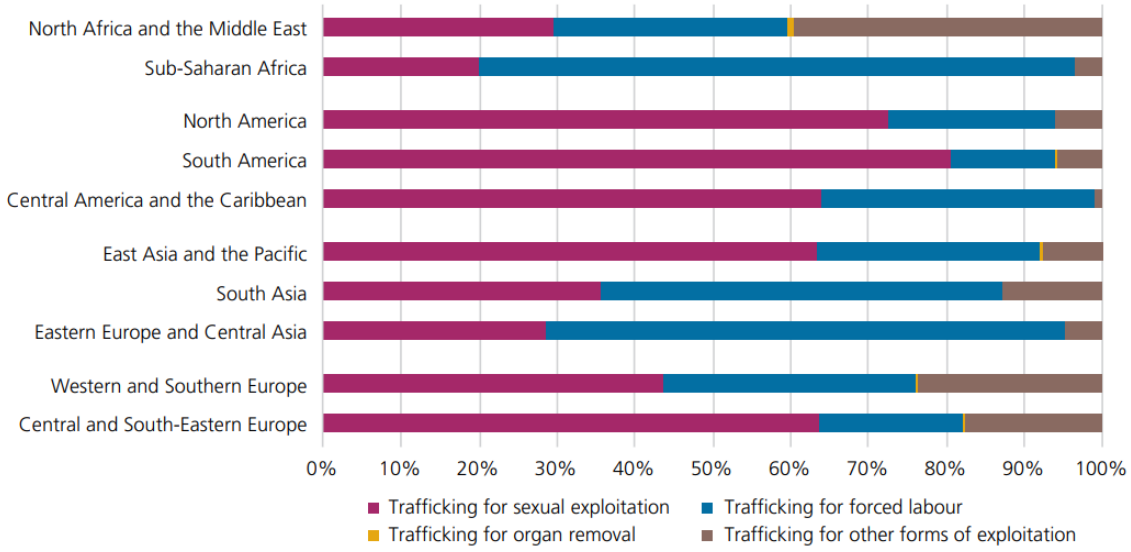


Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

Sub-Saharan African countries mainly detect girls and boys trafficked for this purpose. Children, especially girls, also represent the main profile identified as trafficked for forced labour in Central America and the Caribbean. Adult women represent the main profile of detected victims trafficked for forced labour in North Africa, the Middle East and South Asia.

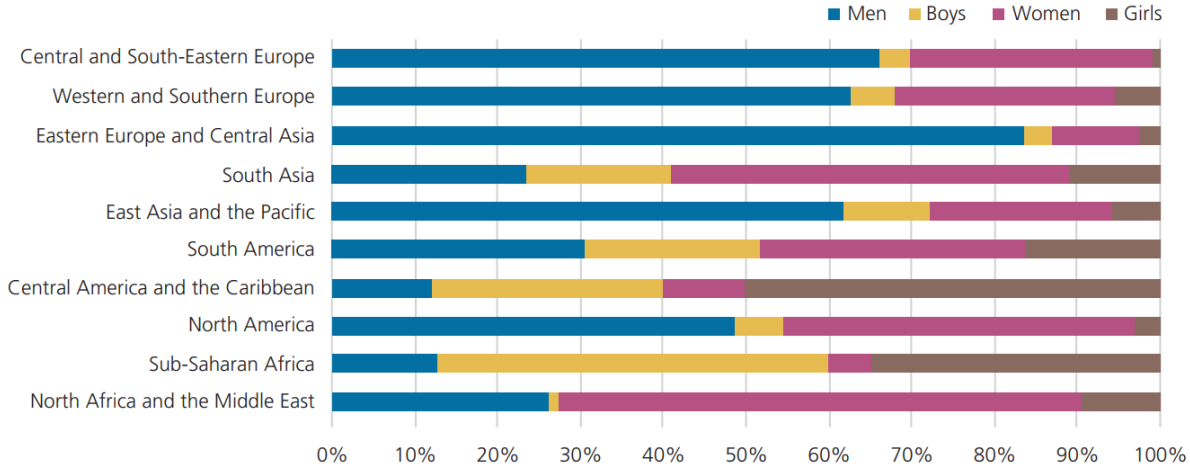
European countries mainly report adult men among detected victims of trafficking for forced labour.

FIG. 62 **Shares of detected trafficking victims, by form of exploitation, by subregion,** 2018 (or most recent)



Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

FIG. 64 **Shares of detected victims of trafficking for forced labour, by age group and sex, by subregion,** (2018 or most recent)



Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

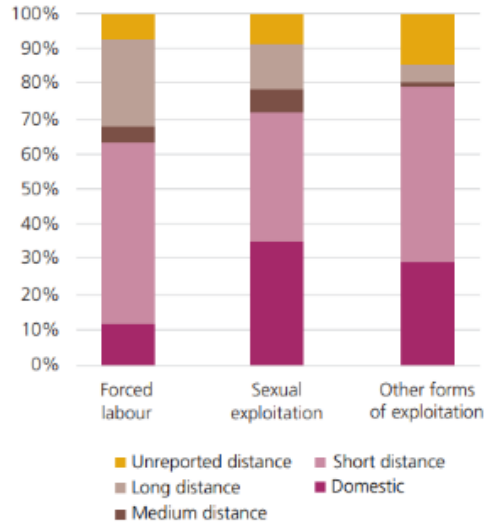
The sex and age profiles of detected victims of trafficking for forced labour is connected to the types of employment where victims are exploited. Each sector presents different trafficking patterns, in terms of victim profile or type of organization of traffickers. It is difficult to provide an exhaustive list of all forms of labour activities where victims have been detected.

About 70 of the 489 court cases collected by UNODC for this Report concern trafficking for forced labour, involving about 900 victims exploited in 11 different types of work, including domestic work, car washing, textile production and street trading, among others. These cases represent only a limited set of examples, as the literature points to many other types of forced labour.

However, these examples reveal important dynamics of how different economic sectors present distinct exploitative patterns in terms of victim profile differing by type of industry.

On average, one case of trafficking for forced labour typically involves about 14 victims. Meanwhile, the average number of victims is six for sexual exploitation and around four for other forms of exploitation. The average number of victims, however, changes according to the economic sector.

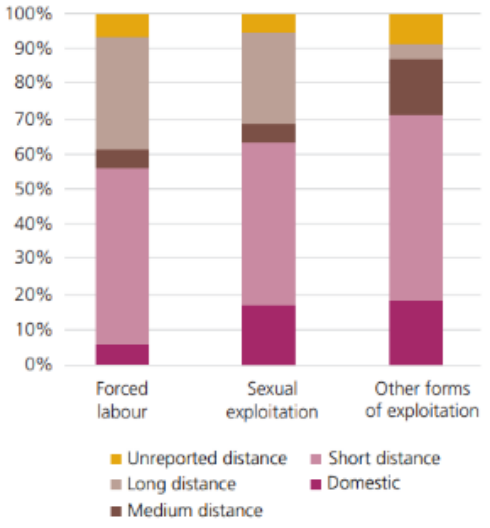
FIG. 65 **Shares of cases, by forms of exploitation and trafficking flows, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases***



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries.

**The information on the form of exploitation was reported in 401 court cases (69 cases of trafficking for forced labour, 260 cases of trafficking for sexual exploitation, 72 cases for other forms of exploitation) of a total of 489 cases collected by UNODC for the purpose of this Report.*

FIG. 66 **Shares of victims reported in the cases collected, by forms of exploitation and trafficking flows, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases***



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries.

**A total of 2,953 victims were reported in the 401 court cases that presented information on the form of exploitation. In details: 953 victims were reported in the collected cases of trafficking forced labour; 1681 victims were reported in the cases of trafficking for sexual exploitation; 319 victims were reported in the cases of trafficking for other forms of exploitation.*

Cases of domestic servitude are characterized by a lower number of victims, most of them adult women, and in some cases, children, both girls and boys. While only two cases reported to UNODC concerned trafficking in the fishing industry, they involved a large number of victims, mostly adult men. Groups of adult men are also commonly exploited in construction work. Meanwhile, other forms of exploitation typically target children, and only a few at a time, such as is generally the case for trafficking for street trading.

Another emerging pattern is that, in comparison to other forms of exploitation, this form of trafficking seems to be more frequently detected as a cross-border phenomenon rather than a domestic one. Most of the court cases of trafficking for forced labour analysed for this Report referred to episodes of cross-border trafficking – a much greater figure than for trafficking for sexual exploitation and for other forms of exploitation.

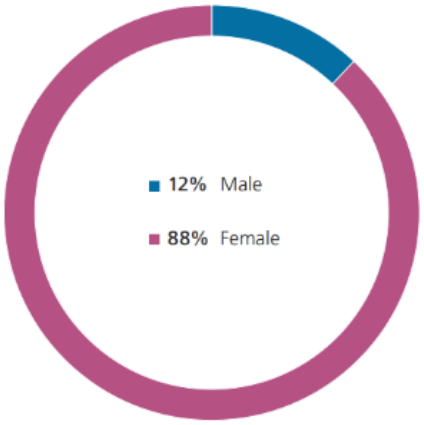
Although the number of cases considered is limited, the analysis of the cases suggests that, as a pattern, trafficking for the purpose of forced labour is closely connected with labour migration, particularly in high income countries.

Different profiles trafficked in different economic sectors

The following sections describe patterns of trafficking in selected economic sectors. Labour activities were selected on the basis of the reported relevance of these types of trafficking globally. Thus, the patterns of trafficking of victims in the following sectors were selected: domestic work, agriculture, construction and the fishing industry. Trafficking patterns recorded in these industries differ significantly from each other and may help to represent the wide variety of characteristics registered in trafficking for forced labour. Regarding other forms not included, while not lower in importance or severity, limited literature was found and/or the phenomenon was only reported in certain regions, making the potential for analysis more limited.

FIG. 67 Victims of trafficking in domestic servitude included in the IOM CTDC, by sex

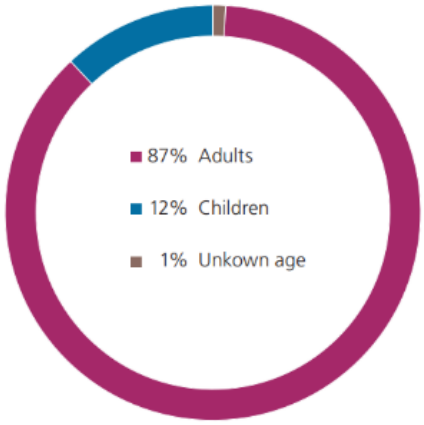
(Number of victims: 4,831)



Source: International Organization for Migration – Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative

FIG. 68 Victims of trafficking in domestic servitude included in the IOM CTDC, by age

(Number of victims: 4,831)



Source: International Organization for Migration – Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative

Domestic Work

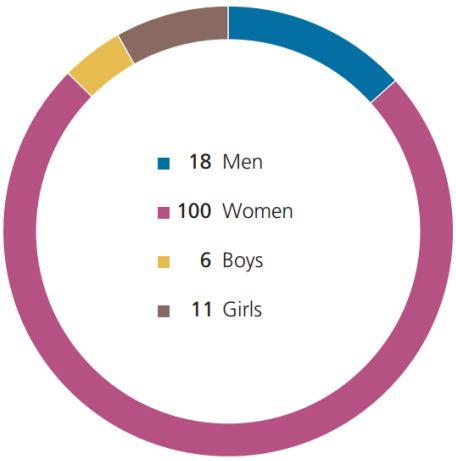
The preamble to the 2011 International Labour Organization Domestic Workers Convention (no. 189) describes domestic work209 as “undervalued” and “invisible.” The

Convention also notes how this type of work is normally conducted by members of disadvantaged communities particularly “discriminated” against in terms of working conditions. These sections explain how domestic work presents particular risks to workers becoming victims of human trafficking.

Domestic work is a significant industry globally. In 2013, it was estimated that about 67 million domestic workers were employed worldwide, and of these, 11.5 million of them (about 8 per cent) were migrant workers.210 Yet, this may very well be an underrepresentation of the size of this economic sector. Domestic work takes place inside private homes211 and, in some cases, is carried out by undocumented migrants.212 As with other migrants with undocumented status, domestic workers remain, to a large extent, under the radar of labour inspection. These factors expose such workers, especially if they are migrants, to human trafficking.

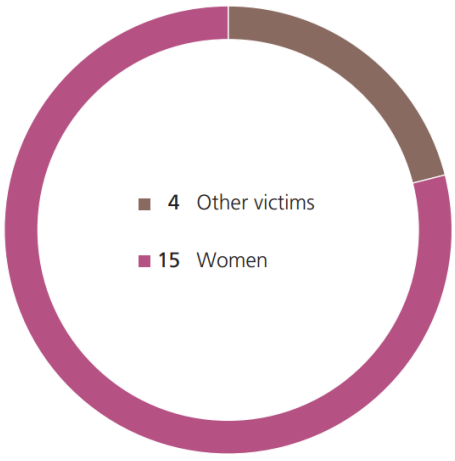
Trafficking for the purpose of domestic servitude has been documented in all regions: from Europe to the Middle East, from the Americas to Africa and Asia.

FIG. 69 Detected victims of trafficking in persons for domestic servitude in the United Kingdom, 2016



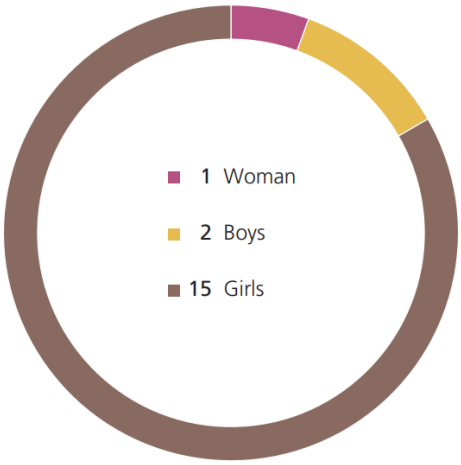
Source: National Crime Agency National Referral Mechanism (NRM)

FIG. 70 Detected victims of trafficking in persons for domestic servitude in Australia, 2014–2016



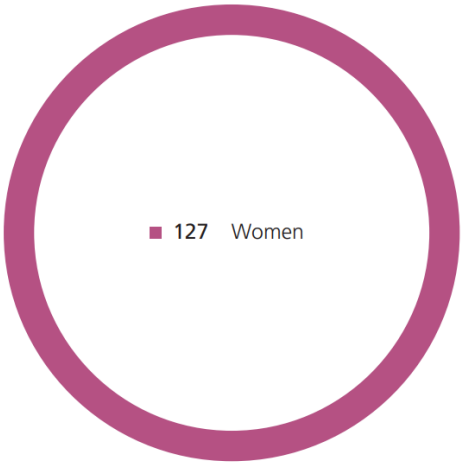
Source: Department of Social Services / Australian Red Cross

FIG. 71 Detected victims of trafficking in persons for domestic servitude in Cote d'Ivoire, 2016



Source: Direction the la lutte contre le traffic des enfants et la délinquance juvénile.

FIG. 72 Detected victims of trafficking in persons for domestic servitude in Madagascar



Source: Ministère de la Population, de la Protection Sociale et de la Promotion de la Femme

Trafficking for domestic servitude primarily affects women. The vast majority of domestic workers around the world are female (80 per cent), which also explains why most detected victims of trafficking for domestic servitude are adult women. Further, according to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), **88 per cent** of the victims trafficked for domestic servitude included in the Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative (CTDC) database are females.

Individual countries' data on the detected victims of trafficking in persons confirms that both in high- and low-income countries, most detected victims of trafficking for domestic servitude are females, largely adult women, though there are with larger proportions of girls in some countries and regions.

In terms of the nature of the trafficking itself, one pattern in particular appears to characterize trafficking for the purpose of domestic servitude: extremely high levels of violence, abuse and exploitation at the hands of persons not typically considered as

“professional” criminals but rather as members of the household where the victim is employed and exploited.

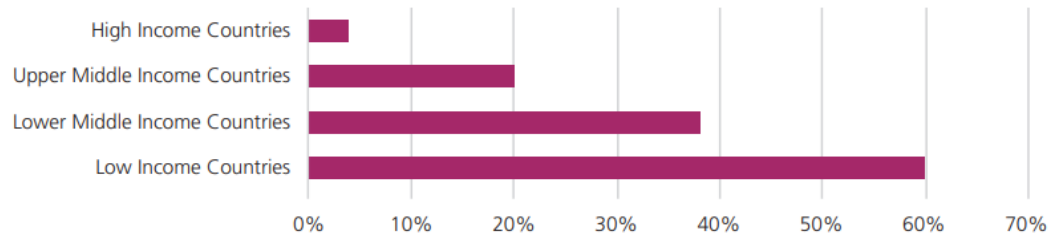
While all forms of trafficking are frequently physically and/or psychologically violent (see section The means used by traffickers: tools of control), the analysis of the court cases examined for this Report, as well as the literature, suggest that victims of domestic servitude are exposed to severe levels of sexual, physical and psychological abuse that is rarely seen in other – albeit still tragic – forms of trafficking.

The Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons reports that victims of domestic servitude may experience food deprivation, beatings with electrical wires or scalding with hot water.220 Court cases report victims were constantly abused by those who employ them. For example, one case recorded that members of the household were *“hitting on victim’s mouth with a stone pestle, hitting victim with a hot iron on her face, hitting victim’s mouth with a milk bottle…pushing victim’s body and forehead to a door frame … The victim’s nipples were also pinched and hit, and hot water was also poured on her chest….”* This type of violence is frequently combined with harassment, psychological abuse, sexual assaults and rape by the males of the households.

According to the IOM CTDC database, about 15 per cent of the victims of trafficking for the purpose of domestic servitude are exposed to sexual abuse,224 constituting a much higher likelihood of such abuse than those exploited in agriculture (3 per cent), construction (1 per cent) or manufacturing (6 per cent). According to fieldwork conducted in the European Union, more than 25 per cent of domestic workers, not necessarily victims of trafficking, reported being sexually harassed. Overall, domestic workers reported sexual harassment more often than female workers in other sectors.

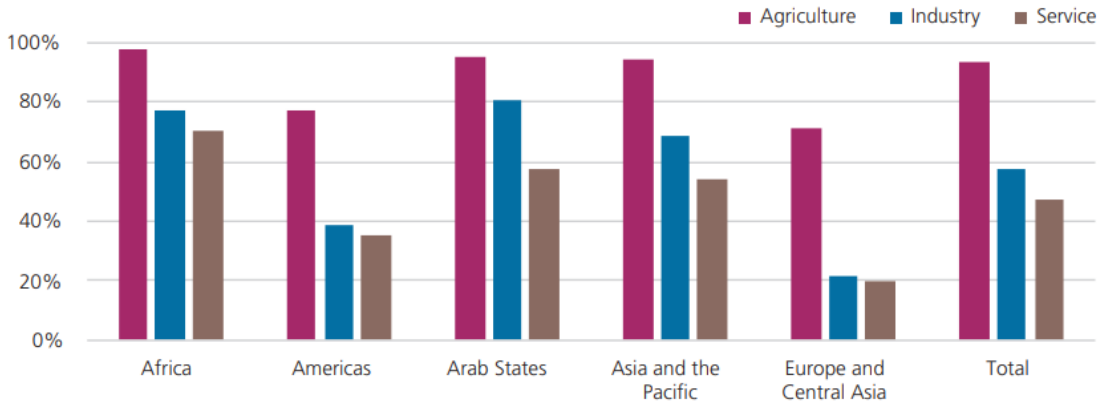
One factor that may contribute to the incidence of violence and sexual abuse in domestic work is the unique situation of cohabitation with the employer. Such a situation exacerbates the level of dependency and may result in an increased level of intimacy among the people living under the same roof. Cohabitation also can result in the isolation of domestic workers, often to the extreme of complete segregation.

FIG. 73 **Distribution of employment in agriculture, by World Bank income group, 2019**



Source: International Labour Organization – ILOSTAT on Employment statistics, modelled estimates.

FIG. 74 **Size and composition of the informal economy: a global picture** (percentages, 2016)



Source: ILO calculations based on household survey micro dataset - Women and men in the informal economy: a statistical picture (third edition) / International Labour Organization – Geneva: ILO, 2018, page 26.

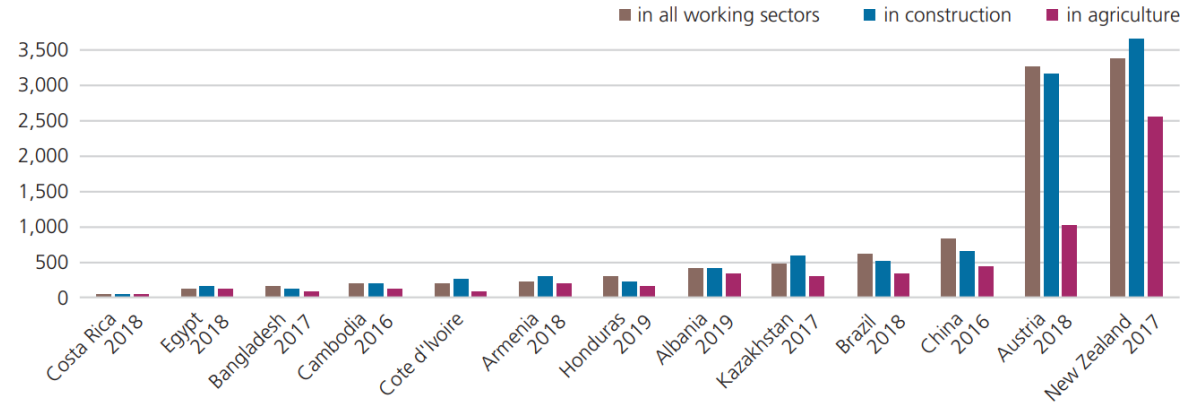
As a result, the combination of these elements makes trafficking for domestic servitude a crime in some instances more similar to domestic and gender-based violence rather than to a typical form of organized criminal activity.

Trafficking in Agriculture

Agriculture employs 28 per cent of the total labour force globally and about 60 per cent in low income countries. It is an economic sector characterized by a high level of informal employment, and those employed in this sector are typically paid less compared to other workers. These factors make working in agriculture less attractive to a prospective worker than other sectors. In general, those employed in this sector often have few opportunities to choose other forms of employment, thus resulting in an increased vulnerability to trafficking.

The pervasiveness of trafficking in persons in this sector has been documented in all parts of the world and in varying types of agricultural operations, including large plantations in Africa and in South-East Asia, farms in North America, different types of croplands in Latin America and for the seasonal harvest of fruits, berries and vegetables in Europe. Moreover, the victim profile is also quite diverse. Victims of trafficking in persons in this economic sector are males and females, both adults and children.

FIG. 75 Mean nominal monthly earnings of employees by economic activity, harmonized series, annually, in US Dollars*, in selected countries**



Source: International Labour Organization – ILOSTAT Database on wages.

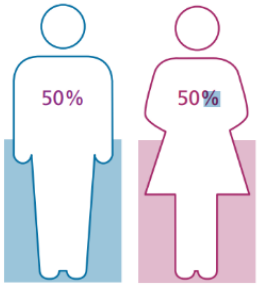
*The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines the concept of earnings, as applied in wages statistics, as relating to gross remuneration in cash and in-kind contributions paid to employees, as a rule at regular intervals for time worked or work done, together with remuneration for time not worked, such as annual vacation, other type of paid leave or holidays.

**Countries were selected according to data availability, regional and income level representation.

Furthermore, the modus operandi of the traffickers accordingly also is varied. Victims are trafficked and exploited in groups or individually. Similarly, there is not a specific pattern in the trafficker profile. There are cases where a single victim is trafficked by relatives, for example, to harvest lettuce and other vegetables. In other cases, trafficking victims are exploited in groups, on large farms or in large-scale agricultural production facilities. The Netherlands reported, for example, a case where a registered company and its managers were convicted for recruiting and exploiting migrants for mushroom picking. Similarly, Israel reported a case where a company and three additional defendants were indicted for trafficking of foreign nationals to be exploited in agriculture. Trafficking in the agriculture sector has also been documented involving more socially structured criminal organizations.

Additionally, there is a range of means used by traffickers to exploit victims, spanning the spectrum from blunt explicit violence and isolation to less violent, but equally coercive, threats of being reported to the authorities for being irregular migrants.

FIG. 76 Victims of trafficking in agriculture included in the IOM CTDC, by sex

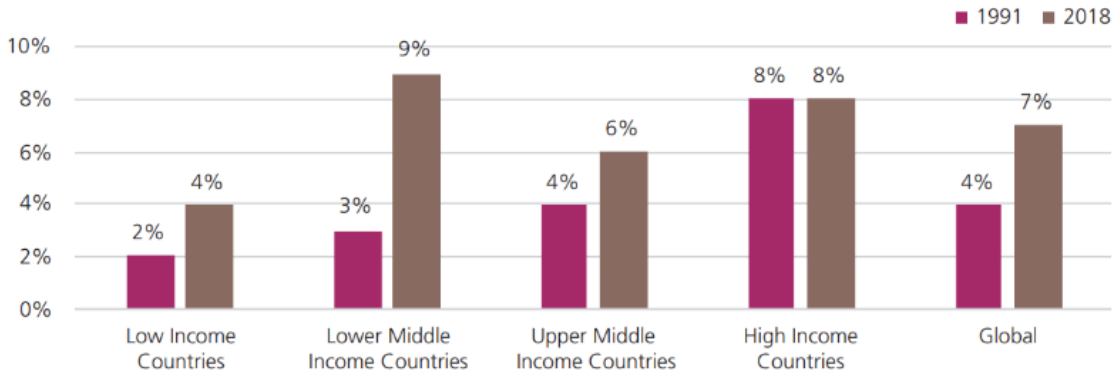


Source: International Organization for Migration - Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative.

Trafficking in the construction industry

Compared to other economic sectors, the number of people employed in the construction industry is limited but expanding. This expansion is particularly marked in lower-middle income countries, where the share of employment in the construction industry has tripled in less than 30 years. Over the same period, this share has doubled in low income countries and increased by 30 per cent in upper-middle income countries. This shows a rather sudden increased demand for construction workers, frequently filled by low-skilled and migrant workers. This form of employment is characterized by a lower level of mechanization compared to manufacturing and is generally more dangerous than others. More people die while working in the construction sector than in any other economic activity. Furthermore, the employment in this sector is often of a short term and of a project-based nature.

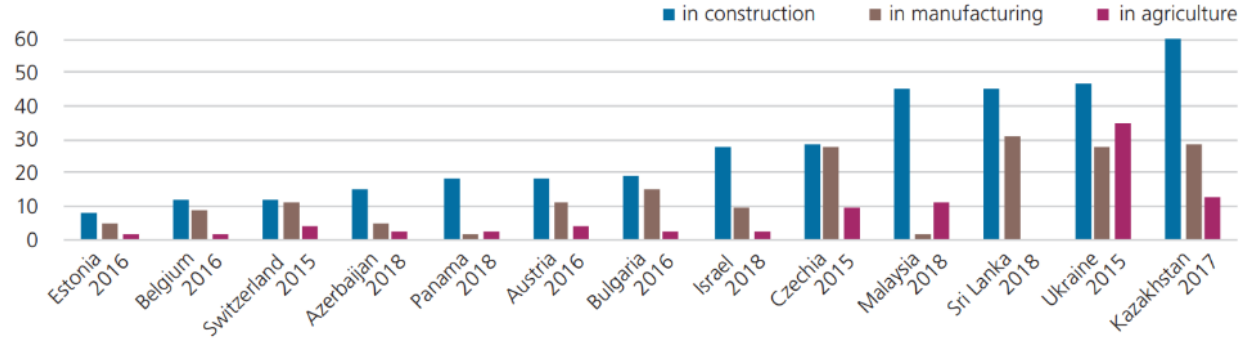
FIG. 77 **Distribution of employment in construction, out of total global employment, by World Bank income group,** comparison between 1991 and 2018



Source: International Labour Organization – ILOSTAT Database on employment.

Due to these characteristics, low-skilled national and migrant workers with few employment alternatives are structural facets of this industry. Working in the construction sector traditionally is a male dominated activity and therefore, data and literature

FIG. 78 Cases of fatal occupational injury by economic activity,* annual in selected countries**



Source: International Labour Organization – ILOSTAT Database on fatal occupation injury.

*The ILO defines a case of occupational injury as the case of a worker incurring an occupational injury as a result of an occupational accident. An occupational injury that is fatal is the result of an occupational accident where death occurred within one year from the day of the accident.

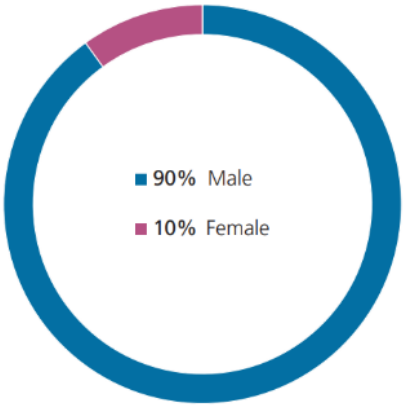
**Countries were selected according to data availability, regional and income level representation.

Court cases of trafficking in the construction sector collected for this Report describe a form of trafficking characterized by victims primarily exploited in groups by organized actors.

Canadian authorities, for instance, reported a case of a criminal group engaged in trafficking victims from Central Europe to work on construction sites in Canada. Victims were recruited by means of deception and, once at destination, they were deprived of documents and subjected to exploitation. Traffickers were organized in a group characterized by family ties and operated in the origin and destination countries. The traffickers convicted were typically subcontracted to supply victims to construction sites in need of workers.

Subcontracting is an important characteristic of employment in construction work. Yet, the practice can be flagged as a potential risk factor for human trafficking. When due diligence screenings of contractors are not implemented, subcontracting to “firms” whose

FIG. 79 Victims of trafficking in the construction sector included in the IOM CTDC, by sex



Source: International Organization for Migration - Counter Trafficking Data Collaborative

main business is to supply cheap, non-unionized, flexible labour can open the gates to systematic exploitative practices.

As the construction industry continues to expand globally, the prevalence of this form of trafficking may continue to grow.

Fishing industry and Trafficking

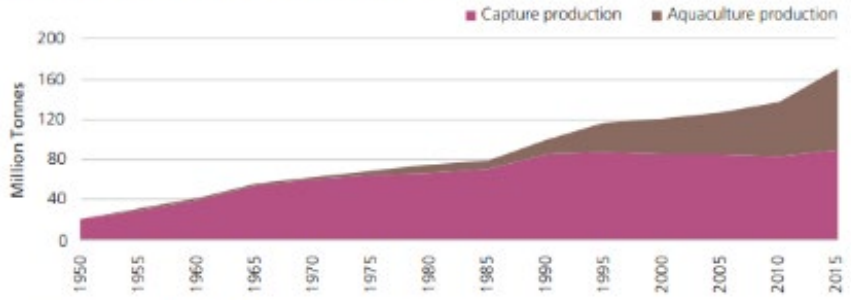
The global consumption of fish has been steadily increasing over the last 70 years, the result of both the growing world population and corresponding fish consumption per capita. Similarly, over the last few years, the world has recorded an increase in the market price of fish. Therefore, the overall business in this industry has increased. In addition, the fishing industry has diversified as it has expanded. Over the last 15 years, the industry has been introduced to new sources of supply with advances in aquaculture production, or the farming of aquatic organisms. Old-fashioned capture production is more labour intensive than modern aquaculture. Yet, capture production continues to be prevalent, and people employed in the most labour-intensive sector of the industry are concentrated in Asia and Africa. The African continent records a high share of non-motorised vessels (about 77 per cent, as opposed to 35 per cent in Asia), suggesting African production is even more labour-intensive than in other parts of the world.

Some features put this industry at risk for human trafficking: workers are typically underpaid, working under hazardous conditions, with rampant informal employment present.

A structural factor exacerbating the exposure of workers to trafficking is overfishing. The increasing consumption of fish, although compensated by aquaculture, has led to the depletion of fish stocks in traditional fishing areas. Faced with the scarcity of fish along the coastlines, over the last decade, fishing vessels have started working further out in waters away from shore, in order to locate more abundant fish stocks.261 Distant

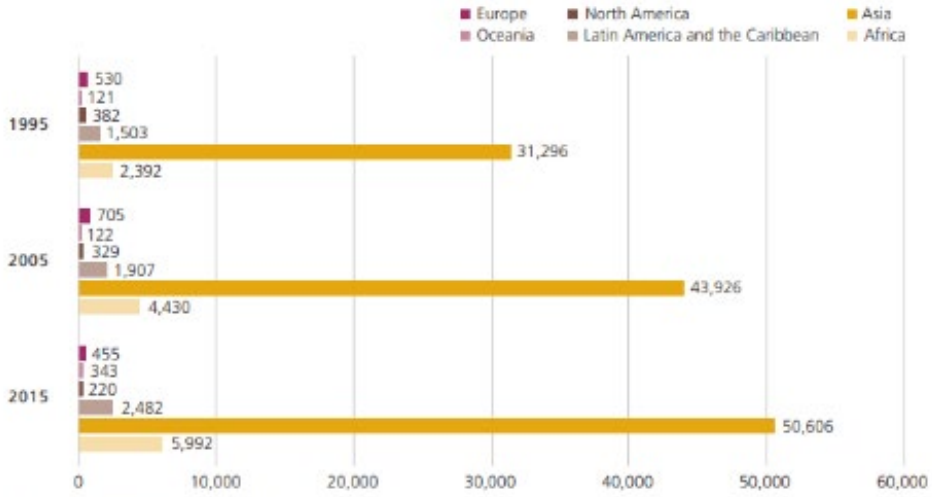
captures require crews to stay prolonged periods at open sea, increasing costs for a catch while reducing the possibilities of labour or police inspections. Overall, these factors have favoured the use of trafficking victims in this sector. Trafficking in persons for forced labour in the fishing industry has been widely documented all over the world. As discussed previously, given the specific geography of this industry, most reports and studies of trafficking in the fishing industry are recorded in Asia264 and Africa, and to lesser extent in other regions.

FIG. 80 World capture and aquaculture production, 1950-2018



Source: Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

FIG. 81 Number of people employed in the fishing industry, in selected years, by regions



Source: Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

According to a study by IOM and Indonesian authorities, 10 per cent of all inspections recorded in vessels operating in Indonesian waters reported violations of trafficking in persons and forced labour in 2016. A 2018 ILO study conducted in South-East Asia reported that 24 per cent of fishermen interviewed had experienced their pay being

withheld and 34 per cent reported having had their documents taken by employers.267 Other studies estimate that 33 per cent of seafood workers in Asia's principal processing region have been trafficked.

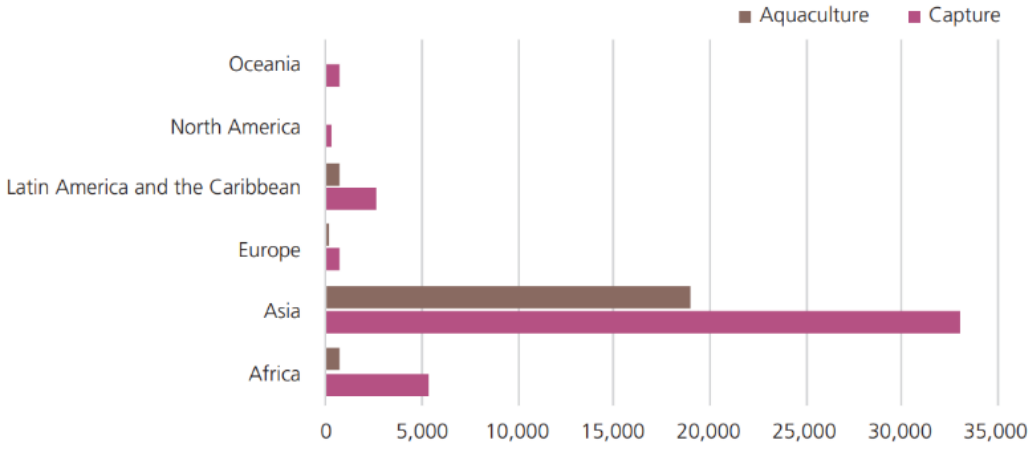
There is no clear information on the sex of victims of trafficking exploited in this economic sector. The vast majority (86 per cent) of people employed in fish capture are males, which explains why most studies on trafficking in this industry refer to male victims. In some rural communities, however, girls are exploited in other parts of the industry, such as mending nets, but not in the capture phase. Most identified victims, as with many other forms of trafficking for forced labour, are migrant workers.

Victims are typically exploited in large groups by organized actors, including officially licensed companies. Court cases and literature refer to crews exploited for years with no pay by companies operating in international waters.273 Some investigations highlight how the levels of organization of certain groups can be very sophisticated, including utilizing a country's systemic corruption along with the use of supply ships to exchange the catch for food, water and fuel in order to keep the crew permanently at sea and fraudulent documentation to mask the true identity of trafficked migrants.274 According to these cases, thousands of fishery workers have been documented to have been recruited in a variety of different countries in South-East Asia and operating in distant waters up to the African coasts.

In addition, there are also cases of victims exploited in smaller fishing vessels by unregulated operators active along the coastlines.276 Patterns of children trafficked in small numbers in the context of local fishing communities are also reported. In these cases, children are exploited in rudimentary wooden rowing boats, most of which have no motors.

Whether victims are exploited by large companies or by local fish suppliers, it appears that, like in other industries, recruiting agencies and intermediaries between the labour supply and demand sides play a role. Large investigative cases resulting in the detection of thousands of victims identify the role of recruitment companies supplying crews from different parts of the world to the fishing companies that then exploit them. Similarly, children in rural communities in Africa are also recruited by intermediaries who provide

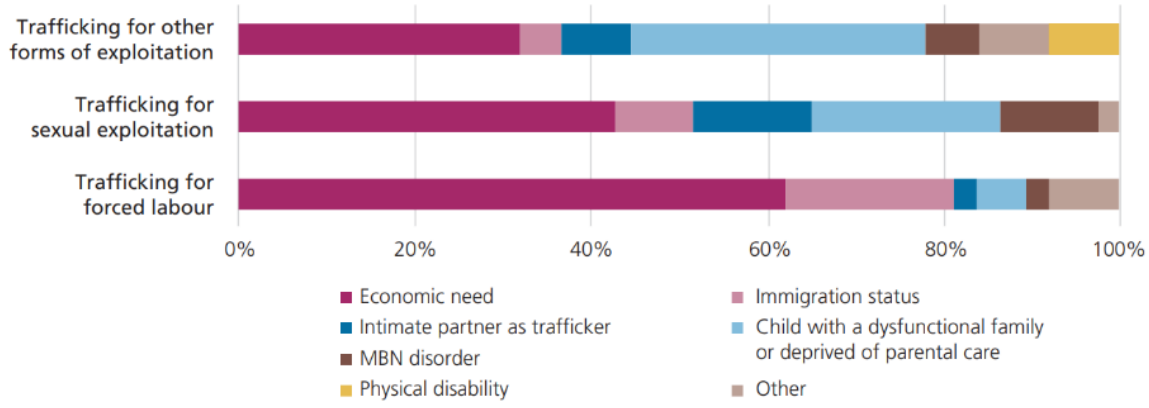
FIG. 82 Number of people employed in the fisheries and aquaculture in 2016, by regions



Source: Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

money to the child's parent to supply these children to fishermen. As the fishing industry continues to grow and diversify, victims may be exploited in different ways and in different areas in the global fishing supply chain. Yet, it is likely that traffickers will continue to rely on the very nature of fishing and its remoteness in the world's oceans to exploit victims, in particular migrants.

FIG. 83 Shares of cases, by condition of the victim before being trafficked, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases*



Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

**The information on the form of exploitation and victim's condition before trafficking was reported in 233 court cases of a total of 489 cases collected by UNODC for the purpose of this Report.*

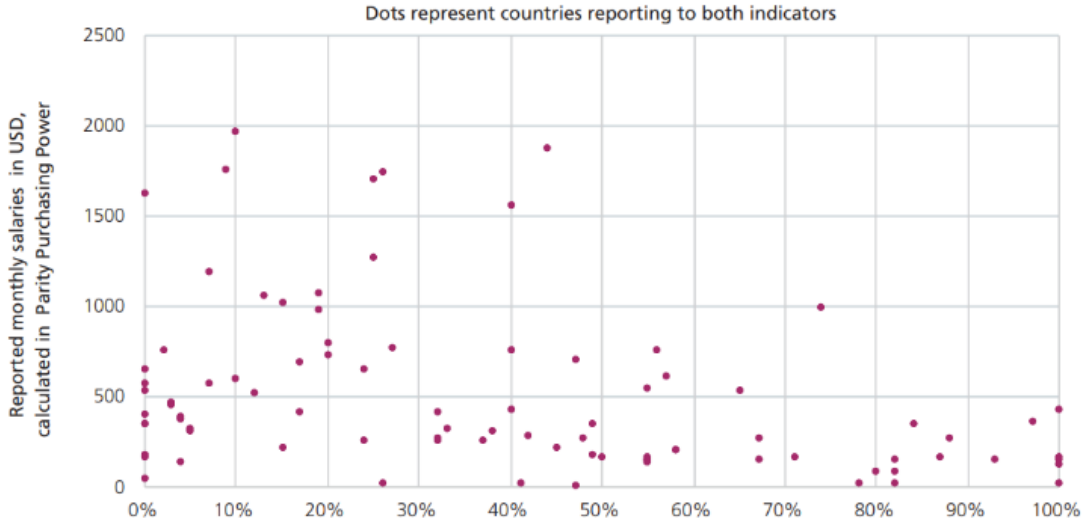
Risk Factors

Investigating patterns and vulnerabilities in trafficking for forced labour is extremely complex given its multi-dimensional nature that cuts across criminal activities, social norms, labour relations and the macroeconomic dynamics of different economic sectors.

Some elements that may contribute to the incidence of trafficking in persons for forced labour emerge from the analysis presented above. These elements include workers' individual vulnerabilities, such as being an undocumented migrant or lacking alternatives for income generation, as well as structural dynamics connected with the working environment itself, such as being low paid, labour intensive, short-term and/or dangerous. Further, some factors relate to the labour market, such as the presence of recruitment agencies or a limited labour supply. However, one element in particular seems to be a common pattern recorded in different forms of trafficking for forced labour: the drastically asymmetric relationship between employer and employee, resulting in a lack of realistic alternatives for workers other than to accept risky job offers and remain in exploitative labour situations.

Lack of alternatives to exploitative wages, excessive working hours and few or no rights

FIG. 84 Relation between countries' shares of victims exploited in forced labour to total victims detected and countries' average wages



Source: Elaboration on UNODC data on trafficking in persons and ILO survey data on monthly salaries.

Overall, trafficking for forced labour is more frequently detected in those countries characterized by low salaries, longer working hours and high informal employment. Workers in informal employment are often not unionized and are invisible to existing systems of labour protections. In general, those in informal employment typically work more and are paid less than workers doing the same job in formal employment. For these workers, the informal nature of their job may include the absence of social security coverage, annual paid leave or paid sick leave, employment contracts as well as a lack of awareness or choice to not comply with the requests of the employer. Not everyone in informal employment is a victim of trafficking, of course, but informality is a context that is more prone to exploitation. Furthermore, the World Bank has assessed that the Pandemic recession will greatly and negatively impact those surviving in informal employment, raising additional concerns over the exacerbated effect of COVID-19 on trafficking in persons. One element of importance is that, while victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation are normally promised a job unrelated to sexual activities, victims of trafficking for forced labour are more frequently deceived about the working conditions, but not about the nature of the job, which is a likely indicator of low salaries or dangerous activities. Yet, their intrinsic vulnerability makes them accept these risky choices.

Out of sight; confined in remote areas with few or no inspections

Traffickers can avoid labour regulations by segregating their victims in remote areas or in private apartments. The “invisibility” of some sectors, such as domestic work, fish capture in open sea, agriculture or mining in remote areas where workers have no contact with the rest of the community, facilitates exploitative practices. In the absence of labour inspections, law enforcement and social control, trafficking goes unpunished more easily and traffickers may operate relatively freely with impunity.

The most evident case of hidden labour is domestic work. According to the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants in regard to domestic workers, “Many migrant women work as domestic workers. However, labour inspections are not carried out in private households. That leaves domestic workers unprotected and therefore vulnerable to abuse and exploitation”. This is confirmed by field studies indicating inspections as being virtually non-existent in the domestic work sector.

What makes combatting trafficking particularly challenging in domestic work is that victims are segregated from the rest of the community, forced to live in the same location where their exploitation takes place. In the same way, similar situations have been reported for people trafficked to work in restaurants and garment “sweatshops.”

Working in remote areas increases the risk of exploitative conditions. Ukraine, for example, reported a case of trafficking where victims were trafficked from South Asia to be exploited in stone processing. Further compounding their situation was the fact that they were living and working in the production plant in a remote province. Such isolation and thus increased risk of being exploited, sometimes for years, is also commonly the case in the fishing industry, as discussed previously.

Similarly, people trafficked in agriculture can often be found in remote rural areas. In a case reported in the European Union, for example, a group of migrant workers from Eastern Europe were exploited on a remote farm, far from any populated areas with no access to transportation, and relying entirely on their exploiters for basic supplies. This pattern emerges in several European countries, where migrants trafficked in the agriculture sector are found to live in rudimentary accommodation close to the fields and isolated from local communities. Moreover, spatial segregation in slums and abandoned farmhouses facilitates the concealment of the victims’ living and working conditions and reduces the risks of intervention by authorities. The same methods are reported for trafficking of workers in the mining sector. As mining often takes place in remote areas where law enforcement and social control is weak, the resulting conditions create immense opportunities for traffickers to exploit children and adults in the extraction of minerals and metals.

The involvement and control of national authorities in an area can also play a significant role in traffickers’ abili ty to act with impunity. Avoiding the risks of being overseen by national authorities can be achieved in any location if law enforcement and labour inspectors’ controls are limited, corrupted or focus on migration status rather than labour standards. Authorities’ lack of controls over employers facilitates the perpetration of exploitative practices against employees.

Qualitative research conducted in the European Union showed that 132 out of 237 workers participating in the study had not witnessed nor heard of inspections at the workplace. Almost none of those employed as domestic workers witnessed inspections, nor the majority of those working in construction or catering. Those who had witnessed labour inspections perceived them to not have been properly conducted. There are indications that labour inspections are generally reducing in number. Despite the increases in working populations or national GDPs, reduction in the number of labour inspections is a trend recorded in 31 countries from a total of 62 where information was available.

Migration and precarious legal status

People can also be exploited in plain sight, especially when they are marginalised, discriminated against and/ or are afraid of being reported because they have an irregular migration status. Particularly in wealthy countries, trafficking for forced labour is more commonly identified among migrants than national citizens. Traffickers abuse different vulner abilities of migrants, starting with the fact migrants may not always have a regular status to work or legal permission to stay in the country of exploitation.

According to official data on 71 cases of trafficking for forced labour prosecuted in Argentina between 2009 and 2013, about 70 per cent of the 516 victims were foreigners, and 56 per cent of them were in a precarious legal situation, such as experiences of illegal entry into the country (26 per cent). From the investigations in these cases, it emerges that traffickers use this irregular status to exploit victims. Similarly, research conducted in the European Union among irregular migrants shows that residence status is perceived as the most important factor contributing to labour exploitation.

Traffickers typically threaten to report victims to migration authorities if they do not comply with exploitative working conditions. In a court case provided by Israel, the persons convicted for trafficking restricted the movement of a domestic worker, warning her she could be arrested if she left the house as she did not have her travel documents in order. Many countries report similar cases. The fear of being returned to their country of origin may discourage migrants with irregular residence status from seeking support or justice, even in extremely exploitative situations.

As with many forms of trafficking, labour traffickers may be involved in facilitating the irregular migration of the victims. This typically happens on the basis of a debt these victims have to pay back to cover the costs for being smuggled into the country.311 Charging migration fees is not only practiced by migrant smugglers, but also widely used in regular migration processes and by officially registered companies. Many migrant workers fall victim to debt bondage when they take on an initial debt for the migration journey as part of the terms of a regular registered employment contract. In some instances, the fees charged for regular migration are more expensive than those for irregular migration.

Linking labour contracts and migration status makes migrant workers bound to their employer. In some countries of the Middle East, for example, migrant workers are not allowed to leave the country without the employer's permission. The employer can legally withhold the passport of the employee until the migration debt is paid.

Similarly, studies conducted in Europe highlight the risk of immigration policies that tie a residence permit to a specific employment contract. These policies can result in leaving the worker with no choice other than to accept exploitative working conditions in order to renew legal residence or legalise status. For example, Norway reported a case involving three Indian migrants trafficked to work as cooks in a restaurant. The victims had residence permits allowing them only to work in that spe cific restaurant. This created a complete dependency of the victims on the employer, who abused this power by coercing the victims into exploitative conditions. In an interesting distinction, the court ruled that a fourth person, an Afghan man with irregular status, also exploited with the three Indians, did not constitute trafficking for forced labour in lieu of the fact as he was not bound to remain with the same employer. Yet, migration status is not the only risk factor that may expose a worker to labour exploitation. Migrants are also targeted because they are generally unfamiliar with their labour rights, are unaware of available support mechanisms318 and/or are unable to understand the language of the countries where they are exploited.319 Further compounding the issue, studies have shown that law enforcement or labour inspectors may not always be so keen in protecting migrants' rights

due to widespread discrimination by the community or state authorities of the countries where they have settled.

Lack of due diligence; intermediation, sub-contracting and involvement of legal companies

As reported above, migrant workers often rely on some form of intermediation in order to access the labour market abroad. This normally implies a cost that the migrant is bound to pay back, such as a reduction in the agreed upon salary.

Recruitment fees applied by intermediaries may cover the acquisition of an employer/employee, travel and immigration documents, transportation, housing and other possible services. Recruitment agencies have been reported to charge a worker up to the equivalent of four months' salary along certain migration routes, but in some cases, these costs may amount to up to 11 months' salary for the worker. Recruitment agencies sometimes induce people to believe that it will be easy for them to repay the debt based on the salaries promised in destination countries, but this is often not the case.

As a matter of fact, this debt is a burden for the migrant worker who is forced to give up most of the salary that was promised, turning this recruitment mechanism into a debt bondage scheme resulting in trafficking in persons. Furthermore, in South-East Asia, a study reports about 65 per cent of those migrant workers who had to pay a recruitment fee saw their identification document withheld by their employer.

While some recruitment companies are officially registered, others are not. Dealing with an officially registered recruitment/intermediation agency, however, does not necessarily mean there are no risks of trafficking involved. Indonesian authorities, for example, reported the case of a registered worker placement company whose owner and affiliates were convicted for trafficking in persons. In this case, the recruitment company recruited a large number of people to be "dispatched" or "sold" to other licensed recruitment/placement companies located in different East Asian countries. Workers were recruited, "stocked" in compounds, segregated and forced to pay their recruitment debts to these companies before being released and sent to work abroad.

The role of agents in the recruitment and exploitation of the victims is documented in all economic sectors and in all regions. For example, employment agencies operating between Asia and the Middle East are reportedly involved in the recruitment of domestic workers to be placed with middle- and high-income households. These companies typically charge employers for their services, and then in turn, employers charge the workers to pay back this cost. Documents are withheld and the migrant is not allowed to leave the employer until this recruitment fee is paid back. In some cases, the employment agencies have active roles in the trafficking by threatening the domestic worker and discouraging them to report to national authorities.

Cases of trafficking where licensed recruitment or placement companies were involved or complicit with the exploitation of victims were reported also in agriculture.330 Many agricultural and other economic activities require an expanded labour force during certain periods of the production cycle, and thus the use of intermediaries facilitates a flexible labour supply.

Recruitment or placement agencies, whether legal or illegal, often have the power to intercept salaries paid by the company where workers are placed. In these cases, the exploitation scheme is operated by the intermediary and not by the employer at the workplace.

Belgian authorities, for example, reported a trafficking case where Eastern European trafficking victims were recruited by service providers in the cleaning sector. These workers were ‘sublet’ to clean toilets in petrol stations through a legal service contract. Petrol stations paid the agency providing the cleaning service. The workers, meanwhile, were segregated and threatened, with their payments retained. Authorities estimated the trafficking group made profits of up to 1.3 million euros during three years of activity. Similar cases were reported in different regions and economic sectors.

Outsourcing the labour force is a flexible form of labour arrangement that allows employers to adapt to the volatility of the markets.335 When labour is outsourced, however, there is no direct contractual link between the contractor and the workers, and the contractor has no responsibility for the working conditions of their employment. This often results in opacity and fragmentation of responsibilities, where it is unclear who is

accountable for the labour conditions of the worker. These contexts become susceptible to trafficking practices under the guise of a legitimate business.

The same principle applies when the supply chain is externalised and delocalised. Manufacturing corporations that import final or semi-final products from other companies located in other countries where labour costs are lower and where there is less enforcement may involuntarily become accomplices to trafficking for forced labour. While legal and well-reputed corporations may apply proper labour standards, those supplying services downstream may not.338 This mechanism is how trafficking in persons may infiltrate the globalized legal economy.

Chapter 5: Extraterritorial Commercial Child Sexual Exploitation and Abuse: Evolving Information and Improving Responses

Extraterritorial child sexual exploitation and abuse occurs when perpetrators engage in sex acts with children, or produce child sexual abuse material, outside their country of citizenship. Extraterritorial commercial child sexual exploitation and abuse concerns child sex trafficking, specifically when a perpetrator travels to another country and engages in a commercial sex act with a child.

Historically, these types of crimes were referred to as “child sex tourism.” Today, the anti-trafficking community is moving away from using that term in favor of the terms “extraterritorial child sexual exploitation and abuse” and “extraterritorial commercial child sexual exploitation and abuse.” These emphasize the significant harm inflicted on children without referencing the perpetrator’s reason for being in the foreign country.

Indeed, while some perpetrators may be in the foreign country for tourism, others may be volunteers or expatriates who have permanently moved abroad. Some perpetrators may access children through relationships to families overseas, and others use the appearance of being in a position of trust to gain unsupervised access to children. Still other perpetrators are “situational abusers” who do not travel specifically to commit child sexual exploitation and abuse, but take advantage of an opportunity if it arises.

International travel has increased to historic levels as it has become more accessible and inexpensive. Some countries are attractive destinations for perpetrators who take advantage of weak rule of law, poverty, or the opportunity to engage in “voluntourism.” A relatively new form of extraterritorial commercial child sexual exploitation and abuse involves the use of livestreaming, chat, and payment platforms. Perpetrators send an

electronic payment to a person in another country who then livestreams the sexual abuse of a child in that country back to the "customer."

Per the reauthorization of the TVPA in 2008, the TIP Report has assessed governments' efforts to prevent the participation in extraterritorial commercial child sexual exploitation and abuse by their nationals. In the 2019 TIP Report, at least 53 country narratives cited concerns or reported cases of foreign perpetrators committing this type of child sexual exploitation and abuse in their country or of their nationals engaging in the crime abroad. For example, some countries report that foreign perpetrators commit extraterritorial commercial child sexual exploitation and abuse in their country by offering to pay for children's school fees or financially support orphanages to gain access to children.

"It was never your fault no matter what, so let go of the toxic shame—it doesn't belong to you. You are never too old, too lost, or too broken to begin healing today. Hope is the key and even if it starts out as small as a mustard seed, nurture hope—it will save you. And most importantly—you are not alone, you are not alone, you are not alone."

Judge Robert Lung

Survivor and Former Member of the U.S. Advisory Council on Human Trafficking

The Prosecutorial Remedies and Other Tools to end the Exploitation of Children Today (PROTECT) Act, enacted in 2003, broadened the United States' ability to address extraterritorial child sexual exploitation and abuse by making it a crime for U.S. nationals to travel abroad and engage in illicit sexual conduct with children, including child sex trafficking. Currently, the U.S. Angel Watch Center seeks to identify individuals previously convicted of child sexual exploitation or abuse offenses, including child sex trafficking, who intend to travel abroad. The Angel Watch Center uses publicly available sex offender registry information and passenger travel data to strategically alert foreign law enforcement of a convicted child sex offender's intent to travel to their country. With that notification, foreign law enforcement officials can choose whether to allow entry into their country. In FY 2019, the U.S. government provided 3,564 notifications to 127 countries.

While actions, policies, and laws have increasingly addressed this crime, all governments must do more to implement frameworks and take action to bring an end to extraterritorial child sexual exploitation and abuse.

Chapter 6: Children; Easy Target

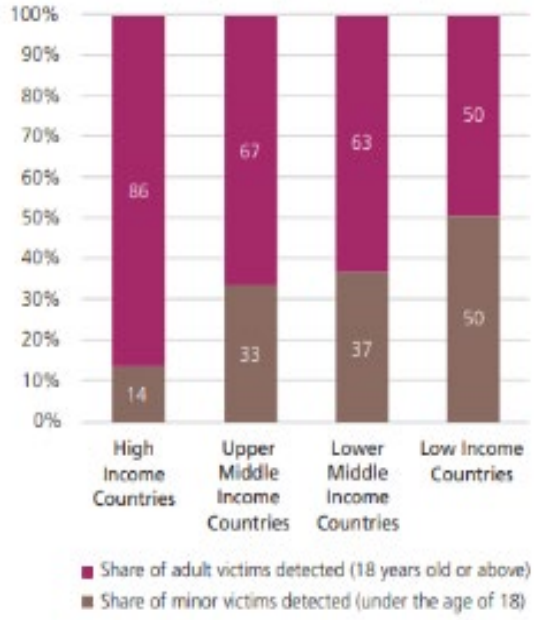
Source: https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/tip/2021/GLOTiP_2020_15jan_web.pdf

Globally, one in every three victims detected is a child. Patterns about the age profile of the victims, however, appear to change drastically across different regions. **Countries in West Africa, South Asia and Central America and the Caribbean** typically present a much higher share of children among total victims detected.

More broadly, differences in the age composition of detected victims appear to be related to the income level of the country of detection. The detection of children account for a significantly higher proportion in low income countries when compared to high income countries. As such, wealthier countries tend to detect more adults than children among the trafficking victims.

These differences could be the result of varying criminal justice focuses in different parts of the world. At the same time, however, they may reflect different trafficking patterns according to countries' socio-economic conditions.

FIG. 49 Shares of detected victims of trafficking, by age group and national income,* 2018 (or most recent)



Source: UNODC elaboration based on national data on detected trafficking in persons and World Bank data on income levels.

*The World Bank groups countries according to their economic performance. Economies are divided into four income groupings: low, lower-middle, upper-middle, and high. Income is measured using gross national income (GNI) per capita, in U.S. dollars, converted from local currency using the World Bank Atlas method. Estimates of GNI are obtained from economists in World Bank country units, and the size of the population is estimated by World Bank demographers from a variety of sources, including the UN's biennial World Population Prospects. For more on this see How does the World Bank classify countries? at the following link: https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/378834-how-does-the-world-bank-classify-countries

This chapter provides an overview of the dynamics related to the trafficking of children. The first section discusses the main forms of child trafficking, namely trafficking for forced labour and trafficking for sexual exploitation. The second section focuses on risk factors connected with child trafficking.

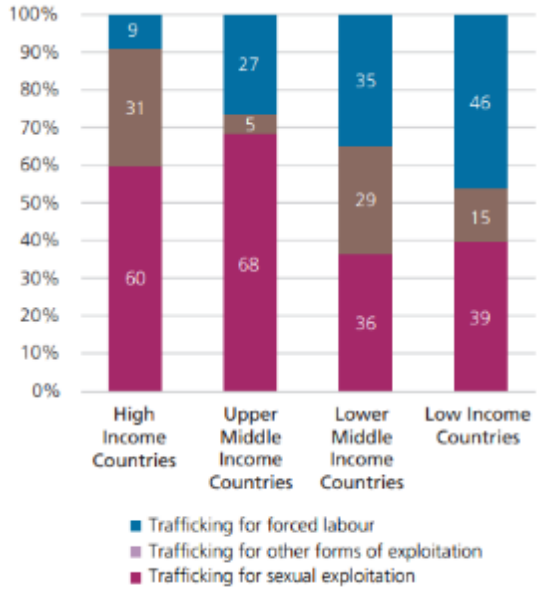
Different forms of child trafficking in different parts of the world

The characteristics of child trafficking and its underlying drivers seem to differ according to geographical and social contexts. Trafficked children detected in low income countries are more likely to be exploited in forced labour; this is particularly the case for Sub-Saharan African countries. Conversely, children detected in high income countries are more frequently trafficked for sexual exploitation. Thus, it can be concluded that the nature of child trafficking in low-income countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, seems to be part of the broader phenomenon of child labour. In high-income countries, it is more related to child sexual exploitation.

Children trafficked for forced labour

The phenomenon of child labour is conceptually different than child trafficking for forced labour or children in exploitative situations.140 These two phenomena, however, appear to be interrelated and have similar determinants. Countries where children account for a larger share of the trafficking victims detected are also countries where child labour is more prevalent. This trend is particularly relevant for West Africa.

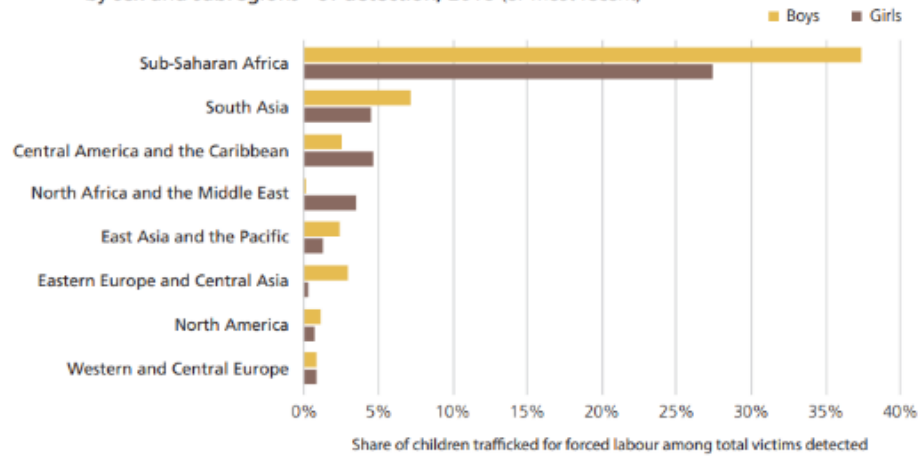
FIG. 50 Shares of detected child victims of trafficking, by form of exploitation and and national income, 2018 (or most recent)



According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), the African continent records the largest prevalence of children (between 5 and 17 years of age) in labour.142 The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) estimates confirm this geographical pattern. Some countries in West Africa are estimated to have more than 40 per cent of the total population aged between 5 and 17 engaged in child labour.

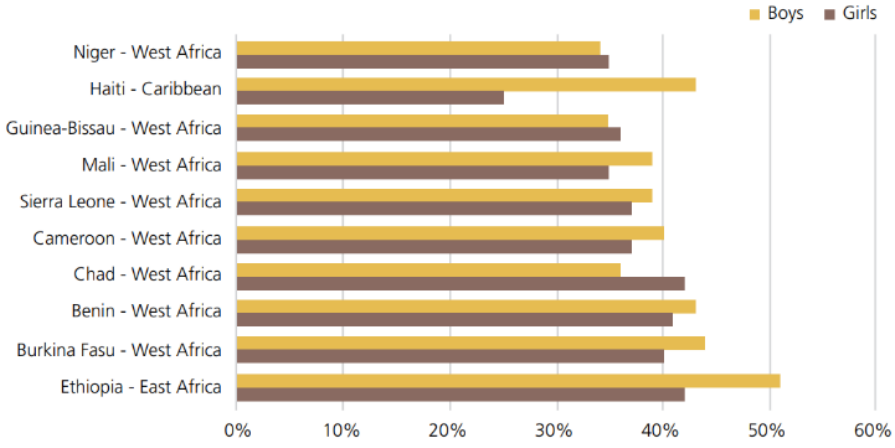
The interlinkages between child trafficking and child labour are illustrated in field research conducted in West Africa, where child labour has been found to possibly deteriorate into children working in exploitative situations. One study in Burkina Faso documented how a significant share of children working in goldmining sites are not

FIG. 51 Shares of child victims of trafficking for forced labour among total detected victims, by sex and subregions* of detection, 2018 (or most recent)



Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.
*South America is not included in the analysis for lack of sufficient data

FIG. 52 Prevalence of child labour among total children in top 10 countries (%), 2010–2018



Source: UNICEF - Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS)*
*The Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) are periodical face-to-face household surveys conducted by trained fieldwork teams conduct on a variety of topics. See https://mics.unicef.org/

paid (14 per cent) or only provided with food and lodging (16 per cent), suggesting that exploitative practices and trafficking are part of these working sites where child labour is employed.143About half of those who were paid barely managed to cover food and lodging, while only one third of them managed to support their families.144 In one case

reported by Cote d'Ivoire, for example, authorities identified more than 30 children working on one cocoa plantation site. After assessing each individual case, authorities determined that about one third of these children were victims of trafficking.

Broad cultural acceptance of the participation of children in the labour market can serve as a fertile ground for traffickers seeking children to exploit in labour activities. It is easier to exploit children in areas where communities are accustomed to sending children to work than in communities where child labour is generally not an acceptable practice. In such settings, child trafficking victims may be hidden in plain sight.
In some socio-economic contexts, trafficking of children may occur on a community scale, often involving family members. Families in dire need may encourage their children to work and children may feel the pressure to economically contribute to the family, leaving them vulnerable to exploitative practices.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, cases have been documented of children trafficked to work on different types of plantations, in mines and quarries, on farms (i.e. les enfants bouvier), as well as being forced to sell different products in markets and on the streets or to engage in domestic work (i.e vidomegon). In South Asia, it has been documented that children as young as years of age are trafficked for forced labour in domestic work,152 brick kilns,153 small hotels, the garment industry or agriculture. Child trafficking cases have also been reported on South American plantation.

There are no precise statistics on the age range of children trafficked for forced labour in general. Studies on children working in agriculture in South Asia indicate that one quarter of these children start to work between the ages of six and nine. In West Africa, children trafficked for domestic labour are mainly females, with younger girls often doing childcare and older girls responsible for cooking. Even in hazardous work settings, such as mines and quarries, some children may begin to learn the skills at the age of six or seven, while doing support functions for the adults they accompany to the mining site. Younger children are normally involved in lighter activities, such as sorting or washing of the material extracted. Older children are tasked with digging and going down into the

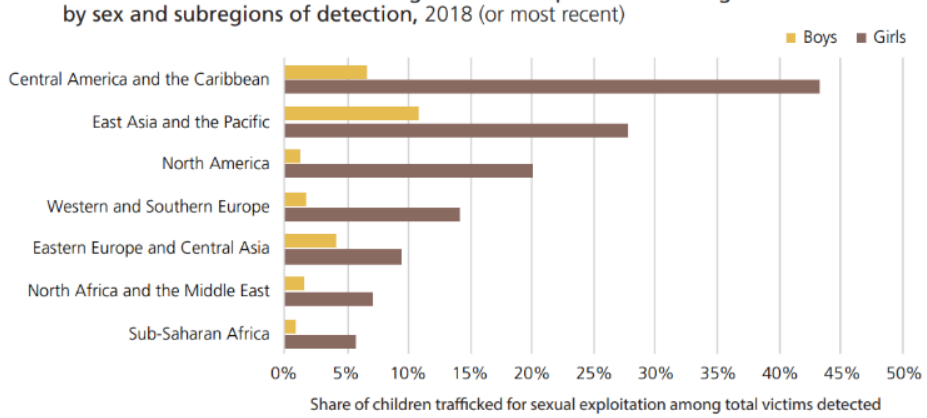
holes.161 Deciding whether a boy is strong enough to become a digger depends on the child's physical strength and so, the age can vary. Girls also work around these sites, usually carrying materials above ground.

Trafficking for sexual exploitation of children

Child victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation (mainly girls) are identified in every part of the world, but largely concentrated in Central America and the Caribbean and East Asia.

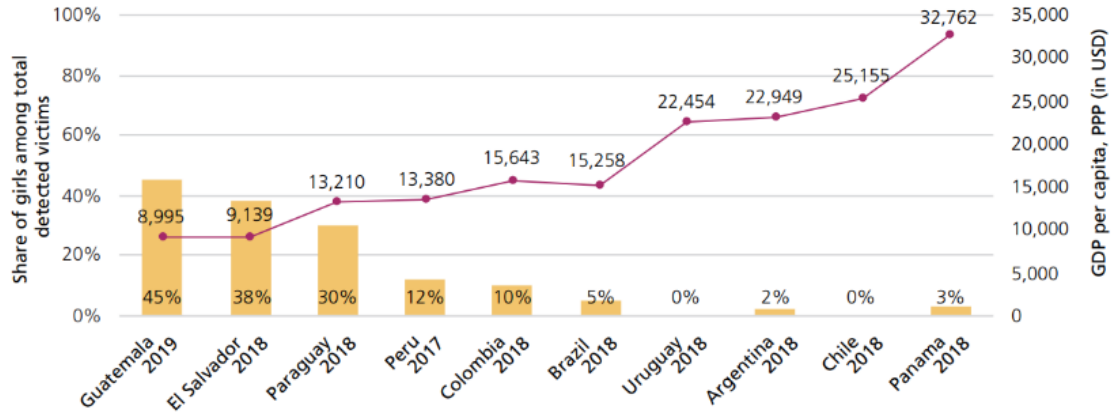
As with trafficking for forced labour, countries with lower GDP per capita typically detect more children than adults among detected victims of sexual exploitation compared to countries that record a higher GDP per capita. This is confirmed even among countries parts of the same subregion. The age profile of the victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation changes according to the national income.

FIG. 53 Shares of child victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation among total detected victims, by sex and subregions of detection, 2018 (or most recent)



Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

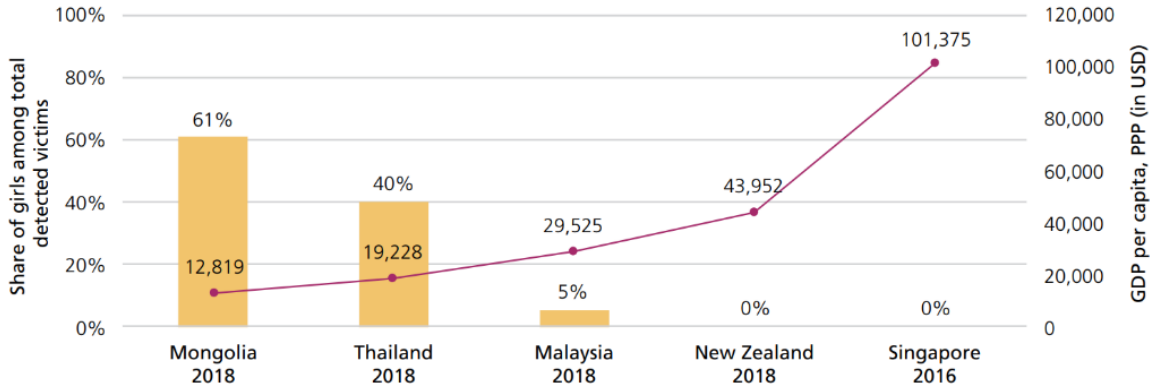
FIG. 54 Shares of girls among total detected victims of trafficking and GDP per capita, in selected countries in Latin America



Source: UNODC elaboration on national data on trafficking in persons and International Comparison Program, World Bank | World Development Indicators database, World Bank Programme for GDP per capita.

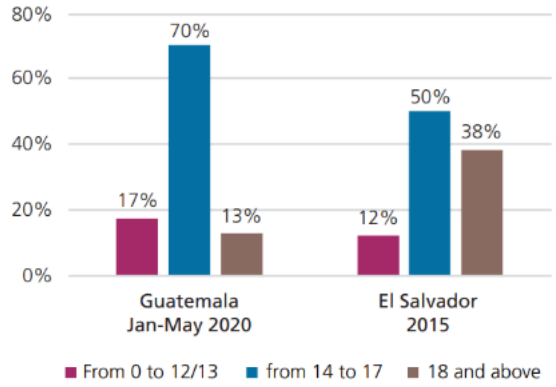
Among children, girls aged between 14 and 17 years old appear to be particularly targeted.164 This age pattern seems to be part of broader patterns of sexual and gender-based violence that results in teenage girls also being particularly targeted as victims of other crimes, from bullying to sexual violence and murder.165Girls' risk of death as a result of violence increases from early to late adolescence and the first incident of sexual violence occurs most often between the ages of 15 and 19.

FIG. 55 Shares of girls among total detected victims of trafficking and GDP per capita, in selected countries in South-East Asia



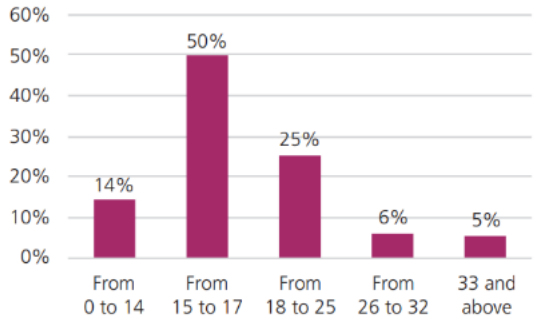
Source: UNODC elaboration on national data on trafficking in persons and International Comparison Program, World Bank | World Development Indicators database, World Bank Programme for GDP per capita.

FIG. 56 Shares of total detected female victims of trafficking in persons, by age group; Guatemala and El Salvador



Source: Guatemala/ Informe de estado en materia de trata de personas - p95 - SVET; El Salvador/ Informe sobre Aplicacion de Ley especial contra la Trata de Personas en El Salvador. P. 127 CNCTP Consejo Nacional contra la Trata de Personas.

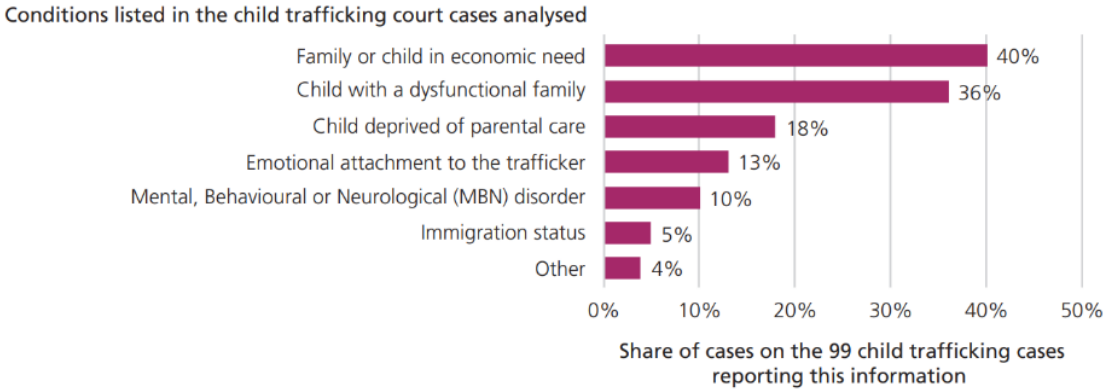
FIG. 57 Age distribution of recorded potential victims of trafficking in persons for sexual exploitation, Peru (2016)



Source: Peru: Estadisticas de Trata de Personas 2011 -2018 – Insituto Nacional de Estadistica e Informatica. Ministerio del Interior/ Instituto Nacional de Estadistica e Informatica

FIG. 58 Percentage of child trafficking cases by pre-existing factors that traffickers have taken advantage of, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases*

Some cases reported multiple conditions



Source: UNODC elaboration of national data.

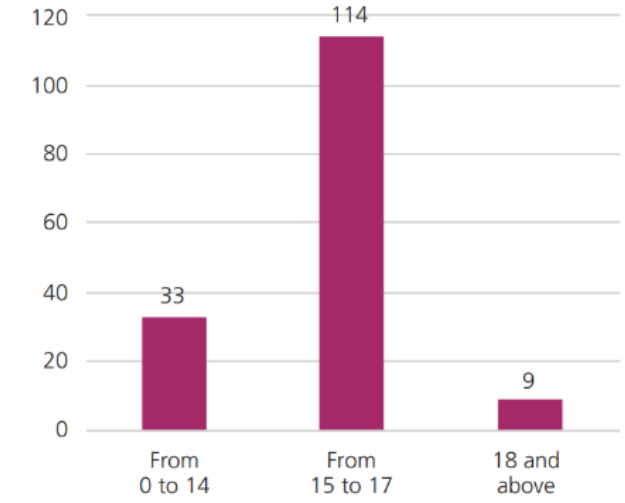
**This information was reported in 99 child trafficking court cases of a total of 489 cases collected by UNODC for the purpose of this Report.*

Risks factors for and drivers of child trafficking

The profile of victims of child trafficking is often characterized by many intersecting vulnerabilities. The risks related to their young age are compounded by the socio-economic dimensions discussed earlier (see Chapter 2 – The impact of socio-economic factors on victims' experiences and the risks of the COVID-19 Recession), as well as

other factors particularly relevant to children, such as behavioural and developmental needs, lack of parental care and/or dysfunctional families. Some studies in Central America, for example, suggest that domestic violence and other forms of violence against women and children, as well as discrimination against ethnic minorities, potentially increase the risk of girls becoming victims of trafficking.

FIG. 59 Number of assisted victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation, by age group, Thailand (2017)



Source: Ministry of Social Development and Human Security of Thailand, Thailand's Country Report on Anti-Human Trafficking Response (1 January - 31 December 2017), p43

A child victim's vulnerabilities are often connected to the child's family background. In extremely poor communities, socioeconomic context and cultural norms appear to play an important role in the trafficking of children. However, even in high income countries, children are vulnerable to traffickers too. This is particularly true among children experiencing dysfunctional parenting or with no parental care, as well as those living in poorer communities.

Families' coping mechanisms may place children at risk of trafficking

Child trafficking in West Africa is often connected with the practice of parents sending children for employment outside of the household168. Similar findings emerge from studies in Latin America169 and South Asia.170 These practices are not trafficking per se, and in general they may not be harmful to children, but they can represent a significant risk factor for children to be trafficked into forced labour.

The practice of sending children to work is generally reported as a coping mechanism for families to survive in conditions of extreme poverty. According to a seminal study on the drivers of child labour, "parents withdraw their children from the labour force as soon as they can afford to do so" and "a family will send the children to the labour market only if the family's income from non-child labour sources drops very low." This practice could

easily deteriorate into child trafficking. A study on children trafficked for forced labour in brick kilns in South Asia, for example, refers to farm debts compelling families to send their children for work as one of the risk factors for child trafficking.

When looking at high-income countries, the share of detected children trafficked for forced labour is limited. While these countries do not record significant levels of child labour, the few cases of reported of child trafficking for forced labour are characterized by a context of extreme economic need for these children and their families.

Early marriage is a practice that is rooted in some cultures and may sometimes be regarded as a family survival strategy. This practice constitutes trafficking when the girl is married off in return for some economic or other material benefit. In some communities these practices are the results of bride-price arrangements between families.

Child trafficking for forced marriage is heavily dependent on the household's income as it can be perceived as a way to generate income and assets, while reducing the costs associated with raising a daughter. In South Sudan, for example, it has been documented how this practice is more common in periods of drought and economic hardship. Similarly, in South Asia it has been documented how this practice is more pronounced after natural disasters like floods.

Another practice that has been found to affect the risk of child trafficking is the sending of boys, and in some limited cases, girls, to residential religious schools. In North and West Africa181, some child trafficking for the purpose of forced begging have been linked to this practice. Cases of religious teachers (called marabouts or mallams) forcing students (referred to as talibe or almajiris) to beg have been reported by international organizations.There are several reasons behind this widespread and complex phenomenon. Many studies indicate the need of poor households to provide some form of education, pressure on some of the boys to send additional money to their families, and the demand among families for some education for their children.

Although significantly more rarely reported than for children in forced labour or forced marriages, child trafficking for sexual exploitation may also be related to some form of tradition or cultural norms. Some families, under the ancient customs in South Asia, such

as the Devadasi, the Joginis and others, maintain the tradition of forcing girls into sexual exploitation. These girls are not only trafficked within their communities but also in the large urban areas of the country. Yet, the extremely poor socioeconomic context of the communities remains one of the main drivers behind the persistence of this form of sexual exploitation.

Children on their own

Court cases collected by UNODC include examples of traffickers targeting children who had no parental care. The absence of a family is particularly prevalent in the cases of children trafficked for sexual exploitation, but also reported in cases of trafficking for begging188 and forced criminal activity.

Some court cases in European countries reveal that traffickers specifically targeted “girls who had lived in orphanages”. Similarly, a study on trafficking in persons in Sri Lanka indicated that traffickers target children deprived of parental care for the purpose of sexual exploitation. The absence of a family also has an economic connotation as these children have find a way to survive on their own. In a court case reported by the Dominican Republic, for instance, authorities reported a girl without parents, living in extreme poverty with no fixed home, as an easy target for a trafficker who sexually exploited her. Homeless children are present in many urban areas of the world struggling on the streets, sometimes in a trafficking-like situation. Traffickers may target street children for sexual exploitation or forced criminal activity in exchange for food, clothing, shelter, or other basic survival needs.

A study conducted on children in a situation of homelessness in Juba, South Sudan reported that about 3,000 children living in the streets either on their own or with caregivers were unable to financially meet their basic needs. Among these, researchers identified large numbers of children who were victims of sexual exploitation, forced labour and/or trafficking.

Field studies conducted in West Africa revealed the situation of some boys and girls, mostly teenagers, trafficked into sexual exploitation to cover basic needs for food and for

a place to sleep. Between 13 and 28 percent of these children experienced the death of their parents, and between 30 and 80 per cent were not living with their parents.

Children deprived of parental care in migratory situations face the same risks. Unaccompanied and separated children migrating, often along irregular migration routes, are exposed to traffickers, both along the route and upon arrival in transit and destination countries.

Dysfunctional families and behavioural disorders

While the absence of a family is a risk factor for child trafficking, children being raised with dysfunctional parenting may also present a vulnerability easily exploited by traffickers. The literature and court files show cases of parents or siblings being directly involved in the trafficking of children.198 Cases of child trafficking at the hands of the parents are reported in different parts of the world and for different forms of exploitation, though, mostly, these cases involve sexual exploitation. In these cases, parents procure children directly to buyers for sexual intercourse in return for a payment. Field studies conducted in West Africa, for example, show that up to 35 per cent of children in sexual exploitation have a parent organizing their exploitation. Other than sexual exploitation, cases where parents are found to be involved in the trafficking of their children range in form of exploitation, including exploitative begging, forced marriage and child sexual abuse imagery (pornography).

When children are not trafficked by their parents, they may still be easily targeted by traffickers as a result of a dysfunctional family. Literature reports children with family problems at home were recruited for the purpose of sexual exploitation and for forced criminal activity. In these cases, traffickers appear to create some attachment with or sense of belonging for the victim.

The need to be part of a group seems to be one significant factor in attracting children to be recruited or deceived by the trafficker. For example, in the so-called “county lines” cases in the United Kingdom, traffickers target children of separated parents or those looked after by social services, including those with behavioural or developmental disorders. Trafficked children, as well as victims emotionally attached to their traffickers,

can also be incited to use drugs or alcohol, thereby increasing the control the traffickers have over them.

Chapter 7: Reengineering Health Care for Survivors of Human Trafficking

Internationally, experts recognize both the short- and long-term health consequences as well as the public health burden of human trafficking. Indeed, the Palermo Protocol encourages states to provide medical and psychological assistance to survivors of human trafficking.

Medical and behavioral health professionals already caring for populations at high risk for human trafficking are incorporating training on human trafficking to enhance prevention and quality of care. Health care providers are also learning to use trauma-informed, survivor-informed, and culturally and linguistically appropriate services to build trust, strengthen screening, provide improved quality medical care, and reduce the risk of retraumatization. In addition, hospital networks have integrated responses to human trafficking into other health care violence prevention efforts. Public and private health care institutions, universities, and community organizations have been developing innovative partnerships and practices to provide specialized and comprehensive health care to survivors.

Here are some suggested promising practices that can be followed:

- Provide trauma-informed care by understanding, respecting, and appropriately responding to how human trafficking and other types of trauma affect a survivor's life, behavior, and sense of themselves.
    - » Clinics should aim to provide a safe environment for survivors in which all staff are trained on survivor engagement, acknowledge their rights and responsibilities, and disclose confidentiality and reporting policies.
    - » **The presence of a trafficker can affect the patient's ability to speak openly with medical professionals, so providers should have procedures in place to separate a patient from a potential trafficker.**
    - » If needed for language purposes, the provider should use a professional interpreter trained to interpret information appropriately, and without

judgment, to ensure information is accurate and non-stigmatizing when applicable.

» Clinics should be aware of ways medical care can re-traumatize a survivor, such as through invasive procedures, removal of clothing, embarrassing or distressing personal questions, the gender of the health care provider, and the power dynamics of the doctor/patient relationship.

■ Empower patients by discussing informed consent, making it clear that clinical services are voluntary, and clarifying that patients have the right to accept or decline care recommendations. Treatment for survivors should support agency, healing, and recovery, and not simply impose a treatment.

■ Understand that survivors of trafficking may require additional wraparound services. Health care providers should be prepared to refer survivors to a network of resources to support non-medical needs, such as food, shelter, money management, and legal aid.

■ Survivors come from all national, cultural, religious, and linguistic backgrounds. To treat survivors, providers should provide culturally and linguistically appropriate services by accounting not just for interpretation/translation challenges, but also varying communication styles, expectations of health care, power dynamics, and levels of trust. As human trafficking can take place domestically or transnationally, providers should account for the survivor's unique geographic background.

■ Provide a comprehensive health assessment whenever possible and with the survivor's consent. Ensure the survivor receives comprehensive information in advance of an exam or treatment plan.

» There should be clarity as to what will be done with the patient's health record and who will have access to it.

» As this may be the only time a survivor sees a medical professional, provision of a baseline-level of health assessment can be critical.

» Extra time should be allocated to examine the medical issues identified by the patient.

Finally, national ministries of health can help build the capacity of health care services to respond to human trafficking. For example, they can provide funding to support the provision of medical services to victims of human trafficking. They can also promote standard operating procedures for health officials, develop formal guidance on victim identification and assistance, and offer online or other forms of training for health, behavioral health, public health, and social work professionals.

In the United States, an increasing number of medical centers and NGOs are recognizing the value of providing specialized care to survivors of trafficking and training for those who work with them:

■ In Florida, the Trafficking Health care Resources and Interdisciplinary Victim Services and Education (THRIVE) Clinic at the University of Miami Miller School of Medicine provides the resources of a world-class research hospital to trafficking survivors across the Southeast. The clinic recognizes that human trafficking can be both a physical and psychological trauma, and it seeks to reduce the risk of retraumatization by minimizing waiting times (especially in waiting rooms with strangers), having a single site of care across all specialists, and taking a single health history.

■ Dignity Health Systems, in California, strives to ensure all medical and professional staff receive training to approach survivor care consistently in a survivor-informed manner. An evidence-based universal education model helps empower survivors through opportunities to share their experiences while building trust with providers. Dignity Health developed the PEARR Tool in consultation with survivors and community organizations to train medical professionals to provide privacy, educate, ask, respect, and respond to survivor's needs.

■ Health, Education, Advocacy, Linkage (HEAL) Trafficking, together with the Laboratory to Combat Human Trafficking, developed a tool for medical providers to assess the comprehensiveness of training programs and identify areas of improvement. The assessment tool and related survivor-informed training are available online to health care professionals on HEAL Trafficking's website.

Chapter 8: TRAFFICKERS USE OF THE INTERNET; DIGITAL HUNTING FIELDS

Source: https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/tip/2021/GLOTiP_2020_15jan_web.pdf

As the world continues to transform digitally, internet technologies are increasingly being used for the facilitation of trafficking in persons. With the rise of new technologies, some traffickers have adapted their modus operandi for cyberspace by integrating technology and taking advantage of digital platforms to advertise, recruit and exploit victims.

> The following pages make use of a definition of *Internet Technologies or Internet Usage* to describe technology elements in the reviewed court cases. The term broadly refers to technologies in form of social media platforms and applications, webpages, communication apps or other applications designed to transfer money, pictures or text between individuals. The more precise term of Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) is not used since it refers to all communication including telecommunications, which would be overly broad for this research.

Everyday digital platforms are used by traffickers to advertise deceptive job offers and to market exploitative services to potential paying customers. Victims are recruited through social media, with traffickers taking advantage of publicly available personal information and the anonymity of online spaces to contact victims. Patterns of exploitation have been transformed by digital platforms, as webcams and livestreams have created new forms of exploitation and reduced the need for transportation and transfer of victims.

With the help of the internet, traffickers have learnt to adapt their strategies to effectively target specific victims, by actively 'hunting' those who they deem as vulnerable to falling victim to trafficking, or passively 'fishing' for potential victims by posting advertisements and waiting for potential victims to respond.

To analyze these new emerging patterns, UNODC has gathered the narratives of 79 court cases of trafficking containing an element of internet technology. Some of these cases

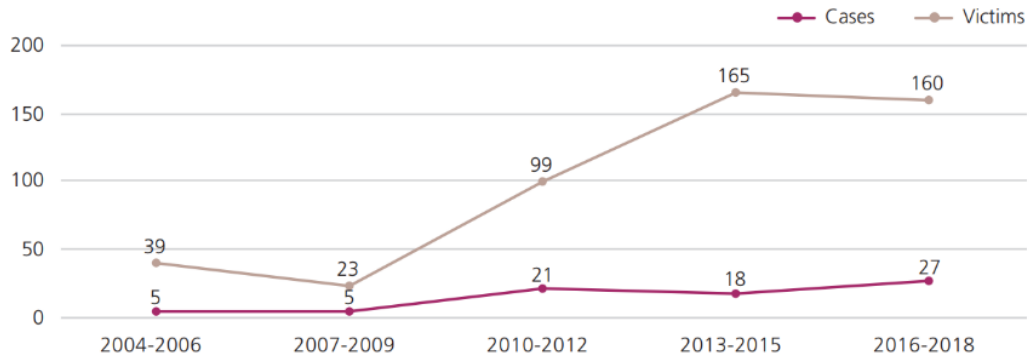
were directly collected by UNODC to produce the Global Report. Others were collected from the UNODC Case Law Database, Sherloc, to expand the information at the base of this analysis.

The following chapter presents an analysis of the collected court cases, illustrating how internet technologies are applied by traffickers to perpetrate their crimes in the digital age.

Digital platforms and markets: The use of technology to advertise, recruit and exploit

Among the cases collected by UNODC for this thematic chapter, the first which reports the use of internet dates to 2004. This case described how traffickers used a free-standing webpage to promote sexual services and to connect with interested consumers in a tourist destination. Nowadays, internet-based trafficking has become increasingly varied; spanning from simple setups of advertising victims online, to traffickers' use of communications platforms to broadcast exploitation abroad, to interacting with potential victims or transferring money between trafficking group members. There have been cases of traffickers who have coerced victims into establishing rapport with customers in chat rooms monitored by the traffickers, and there is ample evidence of the growth of child sexual abuse material online344 of which some is related to trafficking in persons.345 Traffickers have coerced their victims into forced crime, forced labour or have used internet technologies to advertise the selling of organs, such as kidneys harvested from impoverished individuals.

FIG. 86 Number of cases perpetrated with the help of internet technologies and identified number of victims, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases, 2004-2018

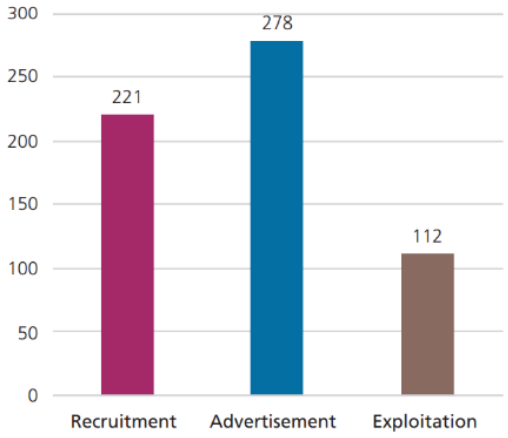


Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries (supplemented with UNODC SHERLOC cases).

Advertisement

Through the internet, traffickers easily gain access to an increased pool of customers, particularly sex buyers. One court case is particularly illustrative: a single trafficker, working alone, managed to sexually exploit and connect one victim with over 100 sex buyers over a period of 60 days using online advertisement.

FIG. 87 Number of trafficking victims*, by types of activities carried out with the use of technology, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases, 2004-2018



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries (supplemented with UNODC SHERLOC cases).

*One victim could have experienced more than one type of activity.

Traffickers increasingly use internet technologies to advertise the services resulting from their victims' exploitation. Examples of advertisements used to exploit victims include those on classified listing sites, such as Backpage347 and similar, or on social media platforms and applications (apps). From the 79 court cases selected for this chapter, 44 cases included some form of online advertisement with 278 victims affected (from a total of 491 victims in this dataset). The remaining 35 cases and 213 victims did not use any form of online advertisement. In some cases, traffickers hide exploitative services behind legitimate activities to avoid detection by law enforcement while targeting their client base.

Carefully crafted language with coded keywords and pictures are used to attract potential clients.348 In some cases, advertisements are addressed to a close circle of clients, such as the case of child sexual exploitation advertised via social media platforms. In other cases, exploitation services are advertised in more organized ways via free-standing webpages which, on one occasion, publicized the exploitation of 89 victims through an escort service featuring approximately 2,800 advertisements.

Through this type of activity, traffickers can be more direct. For example, one case described the use of a social media site as resembling the experience of 'window shopping', whereby customers could inspect which victims they intended to 'buy'.

The platforms used for advertisements tend to be broadly accessible. The analysis of court cases report that regular online marketplace sites, on which anyone can post or browse advertisements to sell or buy any service (from job vacancies to the sale of equipment, cars and clothes), are being used to advertise services obtained from victims of human trafficking.

Recruitment

The internet is also used by traffickers to connect with the targeted victims. Recruitment practices are widely reported upon, when it comes to both sexual exploitation and forced labour. Several methods have been identified, from direct contact to more devious and deceptive ploys. 31 out of the 79 court cases considered for this chapter report an element of online recruitment, affecting almost half of the total victims included in the database.

Technology-based recruitment hinges on the anonymity of communications via the internet. It may prove difficult to identify the author of online advertisements or the genuine identity of people writing from social media accounts. An example of internet manipulation is described in one court case, where the trafficker used multiple online profiles to recruit the victims. The trafficker stayed in contact with each victim through two fake identities: one was used to write abusive text messages, while the other was used to express understanding and compassion. This technique was instrumental in building trust with the victims.

The disclosure of personal information on social media platforms may easily be misused by traffickers. One group of traffickers, for instance, used Facebook to browse through user profiles and, on basis of the information that people shared, selected potential victims who could be more susceptible to being courted and tricked into exploitation.

Other examples illustrate that job advertisements are also used as recruitment fronts. Examples of advertisements used to attract victims often include wording that describes the possibility of living a luxurious life or promising jobs in industries such as modelling or entertainment.

Internet based exploitation

Internet technologies also play a role in the exploitation of victims. The internet can be used to broadcast or livestream acts of exploitation, reaching a large base of consumers in different locations throughout different regions of the world. In one case, a group of traffickers organized and managed a “cybersex den” to exploit victims through coerced performances in front of webcams. The four male traffickers coerced 21 female victims into ‘cybersex’, harbouring them in an apartment where some rooms were used for dance performances. The performances were live-streamed, reaching paying costumers all over the world.356 Other court cases describe forms of trafficking that involve child sexual abuse ‘on demand’. One court case reported by Norwegian authorities, for example, reported one male trafficker who was found guilty of forcing children, both girls and boys, into sexual performances, which were livestreamed over Skype. Similar cases have been detected in other countries, but not necessarily prosecuted as trafficking, rather as sexual assault or rape. The internet can also be used to traffic victims to exploit them into the commission of crime. One court case describes how a group of traffickers successfully recruited people with the purpose of coercing them to commit identity theft and data fraud. The victims were kept in an abandoned building and forced to live under inhumane conditions. They were given fake identities to procure and lease products from companies by abusing credit card information on websites, fraudulently using digital signatures to file tax returns.

These cases reveal how technology has become integrated in exploitation and has introduced new ways for traffickers to expand their businesses. While these types of

cases are not often detected, they make up a significant share of the total number of victims included in the database. In total, 12 out of 79 cases, corresponding to 112 victims, involved the use of digital technology in the exploitation of the victim. Out of the 112 victims, 11 were boys, 32 were girls, 40 were men and 23 were women. Six remained undefined in terms of sex and age.

Evolution of the internet platform used

An analysis of the court cases suggests that different types of internet platforms are used by traffickers. For the purposes of this chapter, three broad typologies of platforms have been identified:

- **Social media, including Facebook, Myspace, Skype, WhatsApp and Vkontakte;**
- **Classified webpages for advertisement, referring to generic websites where individuals post advertisements or browse for items or services to buy or sell;**
- **Free-standing webpages, referring to websites created by traffickers that do not form part of larger domains.**

Trafficking methods and the profiles of victims and perpetrators seem to differ according to the platform used. As reported in the section on the structure of traffickers´ operations, organized crime groups are able to traffic more victims per case compared to criminals operating alone or in pairs (see section Traffickers; how they operate).

This is also confirmed for cases of trafficking in persons where the use of the internet is reported.

Whether they are operating in groups or not, traffickers that make use of free-standing webpages are typically able to traffic more victims per case. The number of victims per case recorded for trafficking using social media, however, is still significant. As technology-based trafficking has become more commonplace, social media has been increasingly used by traffickers, making this method of trafficking an emerging threat, especially for youth.

Online classified sites or free-standing webpages are more frequently used to post fake job listings with the purpose of recruiting victims, or to publicize the services offered by exploited victims. These platforms were among the most used digital outlets in the mid-2000s. Over the years, they have been replaced in popularity with social media platforms, which have also become the main space for job advertisements.

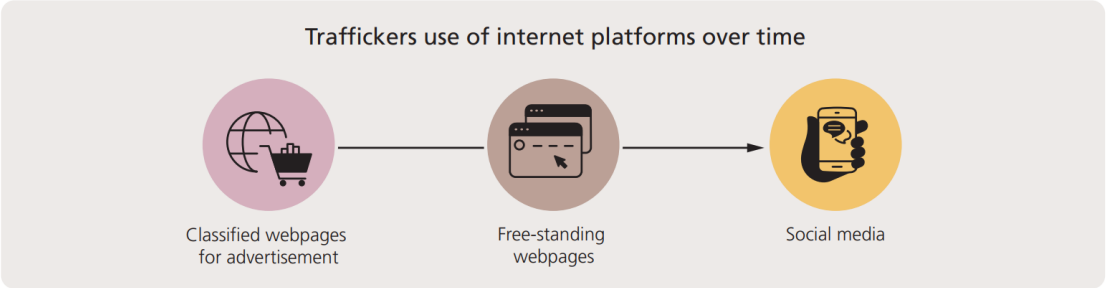
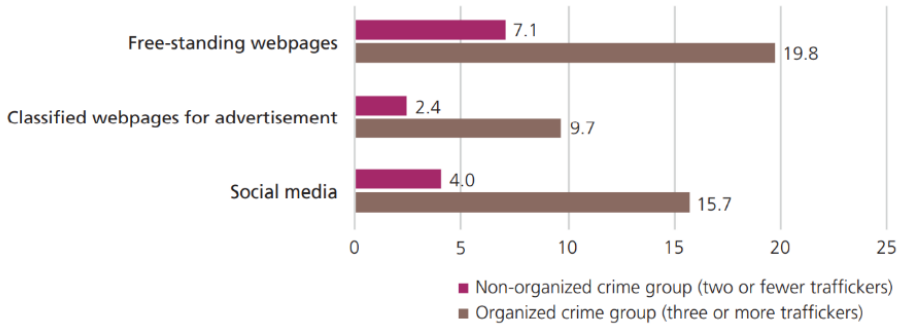


FIG. 88 **Average number of victims per single case, by type of platform and size of trafficking group,** as reported in the GLOTIP court cases*



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries (supplemented with UNODC SHERLOC cases)

Out of the 79 cases of trafficking in persons reporting the use of internet during the criminal offence, 51 cases reported the type of platform used by traffickers and the number of traffickers involved.

This trend is also reflected in trafficking patterns. Since 2009, the share of victims trafficked using a form of social media has grown from zero to 51 per cent among the 79 cases. However, it is important to note that this figure is based on a limited dataset of court cases and does not necessarily represent all trafficking cases.

The dynamism of social media platforms makes them useful for criminal business activity that requires quick responses and the ability to connect with people without delay. The rapid pace of communication on social media is instrumental to the recruitment victims,361 but also enables traffickers to easily link up with clients interested in purchasing an exploitative service. Since a significant amount of social activity has

migrated to the digital sphere, traffickers use these platforms to easily blend in and move around, searching for victims.

The use of different platforms appears to relate with the age profile of the victims. Younger victims are reported in cases of trafficking through social media as compared to trafficking perpetrated across other platforms.

The average age of those using internet-based tools is decreasing; more children have started using the internet from an early age. Children and teenagers are often ‘courted’ by traffickers on social media platforms and they appear to be susceptible to deceptive ploys in the search for acceptance, attention or friendship. These behaviours are easily abused by traffickers, who take advantage of younger victims not necessarily aware of the dangers of exploitation when approached by strangers online.

Adult victims are more exposed to trafficking through free-standing websites such as escort sites, where advertising of victims is not hidden. These public sites do not typically involve child victims, possibly due to the heightened risk of drawing the attention of law enforcement or because traffickers who exploit children prefer more clandestine ways of operating.

Yet, although the use of public sites for child exploitation is limited, the availability of such materials is not limited. In addition to the platforms here considered, the socalled “dark-web” has gained the interest of criminals to facilitate their illegal trades. Among the information collected for the purpose of this Report, there are no cases of trafficking in persons where traffickers operated over the dark-web. There are, however, reports of criminal organizations making use of this platform to distribute child sexual abuse material.

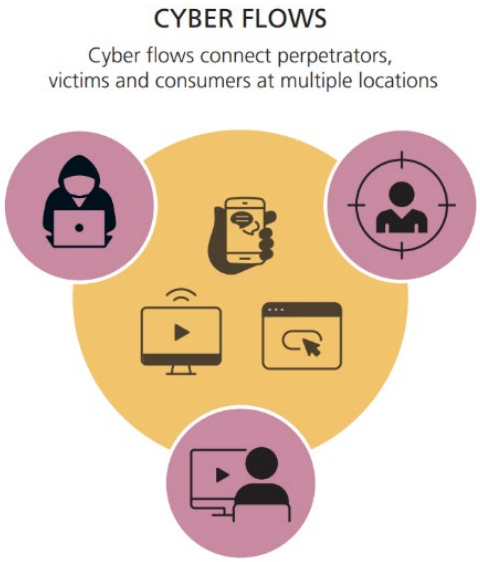
According to Europol, the distribution of child sexual abuse material continues to grow and is available on various internet platforms, including the non-indexed part of the internet that is not accessible through mainstream search engines.365 Although distribution of this abusive material does not, in itself, constitute trafficking in persons, the production of images of child sexual abuse is very often the result of trafficking children for sexual exploitation.

New geographies of trafficking in persons

Internet technology has broadened the geographical scope of traffickers´ operations. The internet helps traffickers to operate across borders and in multiple locations at the same time, while physically exploiting the victims in a single location.

Cyber flows

By making use of internet technologies, traffickers are able to overcome geographical distances using the 'cyberspace' to connect themselves, victims, and the final consumers of exploitative services. This form of trafficking may or may not require the transportation of the victim although some cases have shown the victims may be transferred between countries.



The cyber flows are often characterized by victims held and coerced into video performances, allowing the perpetrators to connect with potential clients living abroad. This type of trafficking has been identified in several countries and typically relies on the availability of video equipment and digital recording devices to broadcast victims' exploitation.

The examined court cases did not describe many cases of cyber flows, yet those reported appeared to be significant in terms of numbers of victims and customers. Internet technologies allow for exploitation in front of larger audiences than is generally possible with traditional trafficking.

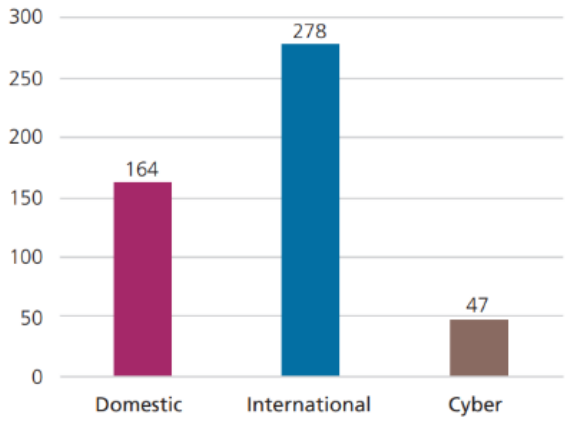
UNICEF reported how children may be at increased risk to exploitation in front of webcams— connecting with abusers based elsewhere, and in many cases, with their parents unaware.367 While this does not constitute trafficking in persons as such, it

describes how abusive material is easily disseminated through digital tools, connecting victims and perpetrators in cyberspace.

International flows

Traffickers may use internet technologies to facilitate the movement of people between countries. Of the 79 examined court cases involving an aspect of internet usage, 34 involved victims who were transported across borders between two or more countries, amounting to 57 per cent of the total victims identified in the dataset. Internet-based technologies may prove particularly useful for assisting flows across borders, as they provide efficient and convenient ways also to facilitate international money transfers.

FIG. 91 **Victims*trafficked by means of Internet, by domestic or cross-border trafficking,** as reported in the GLOTIP court cases**



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries (supplemented with UNODC SHERLOC cases).

*Out of the 164 victims that were trafficked domestically with the help of internet technologies, 35 were girls, 8 were boys and 102 were women. Of the 278 victims that were trafficked internationally, 184 were women, 41 were men and 34 were girls. The 47 victims trafficked via cyberflows included 14 boys, 17 girls and 16 women.

**Note: The figure also includes victims trafficked online through webcams and digital equipment, captured under the term 'cyber'.

Cross-border trafficking facilitated by technology typically requires the involvement of several connected perpetrators. For example, as demonstrated by one case, trafficking can be facilitated by one organizer, with one recruiter in the country of origin and another person acting as the enforcer in the country of destination where the victims are exploited.

Domestic flows

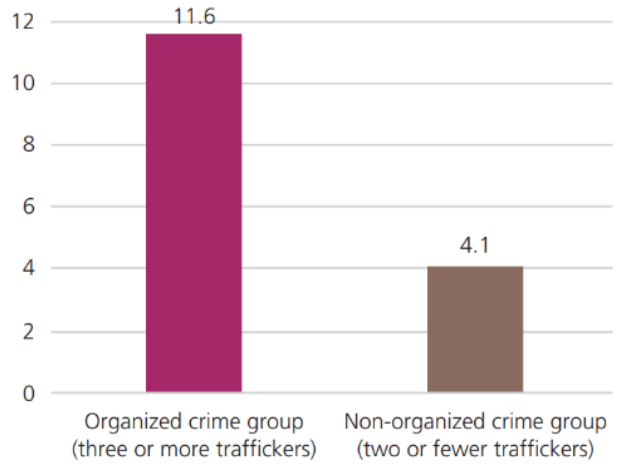
Trafficking operations facilitated by the internet may also be confined within national borders. Court cases include examples of traffickers that have coerced relatives into exploitation and advertised their services online. Other examples demonstrate people in vulnerable situations who have been abused by their friends, and similarly coerced into exploitation, which is then advertised on internet sites.

Victims may be recruited online with the exploitation taking place offline. One court case refers to a trafficker who gradually built an emotional relationship with the targeted victim, to the point of having complete control over the victim. Eventually, the victim was coerced into exploitation, which unfolded offline. Another example involved a trafficker that coerced a female victim into sexual exploitation, advertised her online and transported her to different cities in response to online demand.370 In these cases, the use of internet technologies during the recruitment of victims is a key element, mostly due to the ease of moving the victim out of his or her community.

Cyber Traffickers

The way internet technologies are used to commit trafficking in persons changes according to the profile, group size and level of 'cyber expertise' of the traffickers themselves. Most trafficking cases facilitated by the internet are conducted on a small scale. As for trafficking that occurs offline, lone traffickers can assert control over their victims in several ways. An analysis of the court cases reveals traffickers working alone through the internet generally recruit and exploit their victims in their countries of residence. Out of the 35 cases in the dataset involving a single trafficker using the internet, just six involved the international transfer of victims.

FIG. 92 Average number of victims per case where the use of Internet was reported, by size of trafficking group, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases (79 cases)



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries (supplemented with UNODC SHERLOC cases).

A significant number of court cases (24) involving use of internet technology were perpetrated by groups of traffickers working in groups of three or more. While comprising just around one third of the 79 identified cases involving technology, the cases involving groups of traffickers included over half of the identified victims. From the court cases, it is clear that larger trafficking groups are able to traffic larger numbers of victims. These results are broadly in line with the average number of victims trafficked by organized crime

groups compared to non-organized crime traffickers reported for all forms of trafficking (see section Traffickers; how they operate).

Cyber experts

Traffickers may possess different levels of computer literacy. Some use rather unsophisticated internet-based technologies. For example, many of the reviewed court cases of trafficking for sexual exploitation were perpetrated with a smartphone equipped with a camera.

Other cases refer to more complex applications, such as the case of a trafficking group sexually exploiting large numbers of children and producing several hundred thousand images for online distribution through illicit sites. Other examples indicate how social media can be used to facilitate money transfers between traffickers, or how traffickers use the internet to monitor their clients on the 'digital streets' of chat rooms.

Sophisticated technologies allow traffickers to scale up their activities. It has been documented that organized criminal networks have attempted to recruit hackers or cyber experts to support their operations. One court case describes how a trafficking network had one 'dedicated' person responsible for online advertisement.

Another case involved the use of the application Money Gram to transfer money, along with other applications to recruit or communicate with victims. This shows how a reliance on internet technologies may remove the need for physical interactions between traffickers and victims. The use of multiple applications also indicates that traffickers are aware of the risk of monitoring and surveillance when using technology. Traffickers may initially contact potential victims on open groups in social media and move communication to encrypted or anonymized services, such as WhatsApp messaging on cellular phones.

Traffickers seem to master the intricacies of linking means of coercive control with digital technologies. They can convince victims to share revealing pictures of themselves under the guise of assessing their suitability for some modelling job and then in turn, use the same pictures to maintain control over the victims by threatening their distribution. Some traffickers use social media to monitor the profiles of their victims and to track their

whereabouts. In one case, a victim was lured to go home with a perpetrator whom she met online. She was later drugged and raped. The trafficker recorded the rape and threatened its distribution as leverage to coerce the victim into sexual exploitation.

Modus operandi: The strategies used

Traffickers appear to adopt different approaches in the way they use internet technologies. The reviewed court cases highlight two distinct types of strategies: one in which traffickers proactively look for a specific type of victims ('hunting'), and the other in which traffickers attract potential victims ('fishing').

Hunting strategies

Traffickers may proactively target specific victims or clients in a strategy that can be referred to as 'hunting'. Hunting strategies are used both for getting access to victims and establishing connections with potential buyers of exploitative services. In this approach, the targets of the traffickers are not random, but are chosen based on specific characteristics, such as economic, emotional or other vulnerabilities, which consequently make them more susceptible to exploitation or abuse.

Hunting strategies were identified in 21 cases collected by UNODC for the purpose of this chapter. Out of these, 18 cases referred to victims' recruitment, while four cases traffickers targeted potential clients interested in the services of exploited victims, with one case including the hunting of both victims and clients. A key characteristic of the

hunting strategy is that the trafficker proactively pursues the victim or the potential customer online. Social media provides traffickers with a large pool of potential targets and the ability to collect personal information on individuals whom they might otherwise never meet. In the cases where a hunting strategy was used by perpetrators, almost all involved the use of social media. This may be due to the accessibility of personal information shared on these platforms, which enables perpetrators to identify vulnerable individuals relatively easily, assess their situation and approach them to build relationship.

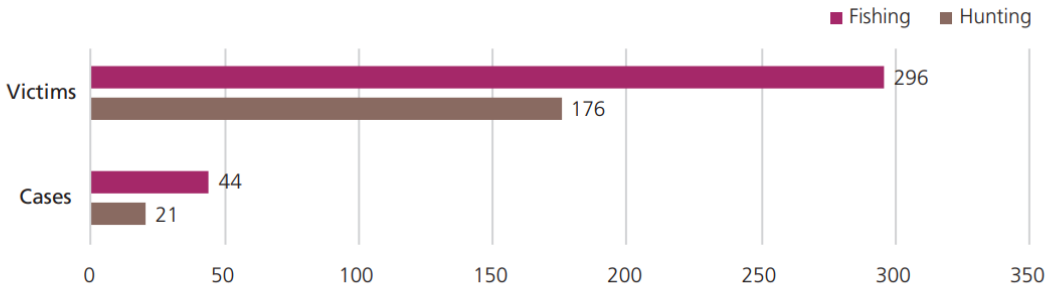
Fishing strategies

Conversely, the fishing strategies involve traffickers posting advertisements online and waiting for potential clients or victims to respond. According to the cases collected by UNODC, this strategy was more commonly used than hunting. Fishing strategies were identified in 45 cases, representing the majority of the cases in the dataset used in this Chapter.

Traffickers use fishing strategies to recruit victims by advertisements accessible to everyone, typically offering well paid jobs, prompting potential victims to make initial contact with traffickers.

In several of these cases, perpetrators used deception to attract victims by advertising jobs in a foreign country.

FIG. 93 Number of victims, by the type of strategy used by the traffickers, as reported in the GLOTIP court cases*



Source: GLOTIP collection of court case summaries (supplemented with UNODC SHERLOC cases).

In one case, traffickers used fake profiles on the social media platform Vkontakte to advertise modeling jobs in a foreign country. Traffickers eventually sexually exploited the women who were deceived by the advertisements. In this single case, approximately 100 women were recruited through fishing strategies.

Fishing strategies are also used to attract potential clients. In these cases, traffickers typically post advertisements for escort services or prostitution, and invite interested customers to contact them. In one example, traffickers set up two websites advertising ‘escort services’, which were actually sexually exploitative services. Clients would call or send messages over the internet to make appointments for prostitution services. In this case, more than 30 women were advertised online and forced to engage in sexual activities with customers. This case highlights the main advantage of fishing strategies for human traffickers: through the internet, perpetrators can reach many potential victims or clients with minimal risk, while simultaneously increasing the scale of their operations through minimal effort.

Fishing strategies are commonly used by traffickers to advertise victims to potential clients. They typically use online classified advertisements, social media platforms or specialized websites dedicated to sexual services. In a smaller number of cases, perpetrators advertise victims on websites which they set up themselves,386 though this trend seems to be diminishing in favour of more mainstream platforms.38

Chapter 9: The Intersection of Human Trafficking and Addiction

The following is a product of the Human Trafficking Expert Consultant Network funded by the TIP Office. The purpose of the Network is to engage experts, particularly those with lived experience, to provide expertise and input on Department of State anti-trafficking policies, strategies, and products related to human trafficking, both in the United States and abroad. The author has a range of expertise related to human trafficking, marginalized communities, substance use disorder, and trauma, including as a clinician.

Substance use disorder and addiction are terms used here to describe the stage of the condition where a person's brain and body are chemically dependent on a substance. While the term "substance use disorder" may carry less stigma, the term "addiction" is used, not pejoratively, in legal and criminal justice cases and by medical experts to describe this complex condition.

The complex relationship between addiction and both labor and sex trafficking is recognized by the United States criminal justice system. Successfully prosecuted cases have proven that the role of substance use disorder in human trafficking is powerful and pervasive; addiction can increase a person's vulnerability to being trafficked, can be initiated and manipulated by the trafficker as a means of coercion and control, and can be used by the victim/survivor as a means of coping with the physical and psychological traumas of being trafficked both during captivity and after exiting the trafficking situation.

People with substance use issues are especially vulnerable to trauma and victimization by human traffickers. Some traffickers recruit directly from detox and addiction treatment facilities. Similar to traumatic stress effects on the brain, substance use disorder involves biochemical changes to the brain and adds an additional layer of risk, especially for survivors with post-traumatic stress disorder. Although addiction is scientifically understood as a medical condition and not a moral weakness, the societal stigma surrounding both the condition and the sufferer is pervasive, and the negative stereotype persists of the chemically dependent person as morally deficient and lacking in willpower. Societal stigma can prevent health care providers, law enforcement officials, prosecutors, and other professionals from identifying victims of human trafficking when they see only

the manifestations of substance use disorder and consequently dismiss red flags. In addition, societal stigma and self-stigma may deter an individual from seeking help.

Within the past several years, the United States has prosecuted multiple sex trafficking cases in which the perpetrator used addiction as a tool of coercion. In these cases, perpetrators entrapped victims with existing substance use issues, or initiated dependency in victims with no prior addiction history. They then used the threat of withdrawal—which causes extreme pain and suffering and can be fatal without medical supervision—to control the victims and coerce them to engage in commercial sex, compounding the victims' trauma. Individuals with substance use issues seeking recovery have been exploited in addiction treatment situations for sex trafficking and forced labor. In one recent case, the owner of a chain of sober living facilities was convicted of sex trafficking individuals in such facilities. In another case still pending before a U.S. civil court, traffickers allegedly targeted people with substance use issues who were court-mandated to recovery facilities in lieu of prison sentences and forced them to work in chicken processing, sheet metal fabrication, and other dangerous work.

Recommendations

Identification and referral. Whenever trafficking survivors with substance use issues are identified, referral to safe, ethical treatment programs and facilities is essential. Trauma-informed care prevents re-exploitation and retraumatization and promotes recovery. The danger of retraumatization as a trigger during early recovery can precipitate a survivor's re-exploitation. Post-traumatic stress disorder and substance use disorder are related; each disorder can mask the symptoms of the other, and both need to be treated to attain long-term recovery outcomes. Health care professionals can coordinate efforts to identify victims and survivors who are vulnerable to substance use, or present with substance use issues. Emergency room admissions for overdose also present opportunities to screen for human trafficking. Specific training of medical and mental health staff aimed at reducing stigma and establishing standards of non-judgmental and trauma-informed care are also highly recommended.

Safe housing. Safe housing is essential for survivors; a lack of safe housing options increases vulnerability to further trauma. As mentioned earlier, some traffickers recruit

directly from addiction treatment facilities, targeting people coming out of detox and inpatient programs, knowing they can exploit the vulnerabilities of these individuals. This is similar to how traffickers target children aging out of foster care. Lack of safe shelter is a significant vulnerability for human trafficking, and in such situations, perpetrators take advantage.

Trauma-informed prosecutions and special task forces are key. In the United States, specialized, multi-disciplinary task forces have been key to the successful investigation and prosecution of human trafficking cases involving addiction. To explain the power of drug-based coercion, survivors have testified during criminal trials to the extreme pain of withdrawal and other types of suffering related to addiction. Trauma-informed victim advocates worked closely with prosecutors and law enforcement to support those survivors as they participated in the criminal justice process. Prosecutors also called drug counselors and other expert witnesses to inform the jury of how addiction affects the brain and body and of the dangers of withdrawal.

Listen to survivors. The prosecutorial successes in the abovementioned cases were achieved because the prosecutors, law enforcement, and judges listened to survivors, respected their needs, and valued their lived experience in describing the torment of drug-based coercion. The courage and resilience of victims and survivors cannot be overstated. NGOs, hospitals, government entities, and other stakeholders can build partnerships with survivors who have lived experience of substance use disorder and recovery, with survivor experts in diverse fields, and with survivor-led organizations, and can support survivors who are raising awareness about this issue.

Significant progress is already under way in addressing these issues. Certainly, more work remains in the areas of global research, education, and the willingness to create policies that reduce stigma and protect vulnerable populations.

THE END