HUMAN TRAFFICKING: THE PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS TOWARDS THE UNDERGROUND SEX TRAFFICKING NETWORK

by

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ABSTRACT

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The purpose of this study is to measure the perception, while controlling for race and ethnicity, towards human trafficking in 2012. Specifically, the perceptions of both undergraduate and graduate criminology and criminal justice college students at the University of Texas at Arlington are examined by a survey. A Quantitative empirical approach is used to measure the views of students on this topic. This study uses a non-experimental, cross-sectional survey design which consists of a single observation of undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Texas at Arlington. A non-probability convenience sample (n=108) is used for this group. The ultimate goal of this study is to show how human trafficking is perceived by students; the intention is to find the students current level of knowledge on this topic. Research has shown that the more people are aware of this problem, the more likely they are to report suspected human trafficking crimes (Matter & Van Slyke, 2010).
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Story of a Victim

“In the Netherlands, an 18-year-old Nigerian girl arrives from her home in Edo State to earn money so that she can send home money to help her family. She is introduced to her “auntie” who assumes tight control over the girl and forces her into street prostitution. Police arrest her since she has no legal residency documents. They hold her in a detention center. She is offered the opportunity to “denounce” her auntie as a trafficker but she declines, fearing possible retribution from the auntie’s friends in Nigeria. She is deported back to Edo State where she faces shame for returning penniless” (TIPR, 2006, p.11)

1.2 Scope of the Problem

Human trafficking is a crime that leaves deep scars on its victims. Most victims are exposed to physical and psychological harm which many may never recover from (TIPR, 2006). Many victims are abused, raped, and tortured on a regular basis (TIPR, 2006). Some victims die simply because of what they are exposed to as a trafficking victim (TIPR, 2006). Since 1993, more than 2,000 people have died trying to illegally migrate into the European Union (Aronowitz, 2001). Research shows that many countries have human trafficking crimes (Jahic & Finckenauer, 2005).

Human trafficking is a problem for the United States (Jahic & Finckenauer, 2005). It is difficult to determine the extent of this problem for the United States and Europe. Part of the reason it is difficult to know the full extent of children trafficked is because, “the issues of child
trafficking and the worst forms of child labor have been insufficiently explored in Europe” (Vinkovic, 2010, p. 87). The true picture of this crisis is difficult to see because it is difficult to find data to accurately represent its scope due to the illicit nature of human trafficking (Jahic & Finckenauer, 2005).

Data from a 2006 Trafficking in Persons Report illustrates that approximately 600,000 to 800,000 people are trafficked around the world (TIPR, 2006). Of this number, nearly 80 percent of these people are females, including young girls (TIPR, 2006). One report states that there are between 18,000 and 20,000 people trafficked to the United States on a yearly basis (Wooditch, DuPont-Morales & Hummer, 2009). In the United States, human trafficking crimes are increasing (Jones, 2012).

The traffickers used force and deception as means of getting victims re-located so they can exploit them; both for sex and for labor purposes (Wooditch, et all, 2009). More recently, in the United States between January 2008 and June 2010 there were 2,515 investigations conducted for suspected cases of human trafficking (BJS, 2011).

The following chapter includes a review of the literature on human trafficking. The following chapter will also include definitions necessary to understand human trafficking, the history of human trafficking, the policies related to human trafficking, the global scale of this problem, how trafficking affects its victims, what efforts are used to help child victims, reasons why children are being selected, and a brief overview of who traffickers are.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

A popular American television show called “The Wire” aired an episode during its second season that showed thirteen dead females found inside a shipping container (Smith, 2011). Episodes aired later in the season revealed that these females were human trafficking victims who were first forced into prostitution before being murdered (Smith, 2011). This particular series also showed a connection between human trafficking crimes and other crimes such as drug trafficking, money laundering, extortion, and wire fraud (Smith, 2011). Stories like this are not solely on television; they are real life events which occur more frequently than we know (Smith, 2011).

Human trafficking is a domestic and international problem (TIPR, 2006). It is one of Interpol’s top six crime priority areas (Interpol, 2010). Human trafficking is also a multi-billion dollar organized criminal industry that involves people from all parts of the world (Interpol, 2010). Approximately 80% of human trafficking victims are women and girls (TIPR, 2006). Criminals involved with these crimes are connected to professional trafficking organizations (Scholenhardt, 1999). It has also been documented that gangs, such as Mara Salvatrucha 13 (or MS-13), are involved in human trafficking (Smith, 2011).

Like many crimes, human trafficking violates human rights and destroys the lives of the victims involved (Interpol, 2010). Defining human trafficking is difficult because there are common elements for human trafficking and human smuggling (Aronowitz, 2001). The federal Trafficking Victims Protection Act and the United Nations defines human trafficking in two different ways.
2.2 Human Trafficking Definitions

According to the federal Trafficking Victims Protection Act, the elements of offense for human trafficking include the “recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, obtaining, or attempting to do the preceding of a person by means of fraud, force, coercion, for the purposes of commercial sex acts, involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery” (Wisconsin Department of Justice, 2011). The United Nations lists the elements of offense for human trafficking as “the recruitment, harboring, transportation, transfer, receipt, or attempt to do so of a person by means of threat, force, coercion, abduction, fraud, abuse of power or position of vulnerability, giving or receiving payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person” (Wisconsin Department of Justice, 2011). This is done for purposes of exploitation which includes, “at minimum, the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery practices or similar to slavery, servitude, or the removal of organs” (Wisconsin Department of Justice, 2011). Since human trafficking is considered an organized crime and is often confused with human smuggling, the definitions of these two are important to understand.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, organized crime is defined as “any group having some manner of a formalized structure and whose primary objective is to obtain money through illegal activities” (FBI, 2011). The United Nations Global Programme against Trafficking in Human Beings defines human smuggling as “the facilitation, transportation, attempted transportation or illegal entry of a person(s) across an international border, in violation of one or more countries laws, either clandestinely or through deception, such as the use of fraudulent documents” (Wisconsin Department of Justice, 2011). Although it is not listed as one of the elements of offense for smuggling, the smuggler’s goal is to gain financial profit from those being smuggled (Wisconsin Department of Justice, 2011). One source clearly states the differences between human trafficking and human smuggling.
The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 is cited as being responsible for separating sex trafficking and labor trafficking into two different crime categories (Wooditch, et al, 2009). Similar to trafficking and smuggling, organized crime is a national and international problem (Schloenhardt, 1999). One might argue the importance of understanding that human trafficking and human smuggling crimes are different. The following section explains these differences.

2.3 Human Trafficking vs Human Smuggling

According to the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (2006), there are not many commonalities between human smuggling and human trafficking. It is additionally important to clarify that not all victims of human trafficking are trafficked for sex; there are some who are trafficked for labor (Smith, 2011). Both types of victims are specifically targeted by professional traffickers for criminal exploitation purposes (Smith, 2011). The main common element human trafficking has with human smuggling is the willingness of people to leave their country of origin (Aronowitz, 2001). However; willingness to leave a country is not found in all victims of human trafficking (Aronowitz, 2001).

There are some human trafficking victims who leave their countries because they are either coerced or kidnapped (Aronowitz, 2001). A recent article on human trafficking states that there appears to be a recent increase in trafficking which is correlated with an increase of human migration (Dunne, 2012). The reason for the migration is due to the increase in population growth for poorer countries (Dunne, 2012). Those in need of work travel to bigger cities and other countries in search for jobs (Dunne, 2012). The migrant workers who are unable to obtain work visas are given no other alternative to using human smugglers for access to other countries (Dunne, 2012). It is often through the legitimate migration of humans that traffickers find their prey (Dunne, 2012).
However; human trafficking doesn’t always involve the movement of victims to other countries (Rizer, & Glaser, 2011). There are some victims who are not re-located at all (Rizer, & Glaser, 2011). Also, it is often that the people being smuggled initially give consent to the people transporting them to another country (Rizer, & Glaser, 2011).

Other differences between smuggled persons and trafficked victims include the interdependency that occurs between trafficked persons and their traffickers, as well as the potential for these victims to be recruited into a trafficking network (Aronowitz, 2001). The main difference between smuggled persons and trafficked persons is the fact that smuggled persons generally pay a lot of money before being illegally helped into another country; while trafficked persons only pay a small portion of a fee (Aronowitz, 2001).

2.4 Debt Bondage

The small portion paid by victims of human trafficking leads these victims into a debt bondage situation where they end up being exploited by the traffickers they owe money (Aronowitz, 2001). For women and children, debt bondages usually require the trafficked victims to participate in prostitution in order to pay off the debt they incurred when they were transported to another country or sold to someone else involved in trafficking (U.S. Department of State, 2011). The amount of the debt an individual incurs for transportation and immigration is generally 50,000 (Dill, 2011). This amount increases on a daily basis because of charges for food, housing, and interest (Dill, 2011). In order for trafficked victims to be free, they must pay off their debt (U.S. Department of State, 2011). This is often very difficult for these victims to do because they are paid little to nothing and are charged, by the traffickers, extremely high rates for rent (Smith, 2011). Debt bondages are accrued for victims of both labor and sex trafficking (Smith, 2011).

Regardless of the differences between human trafficking and smuggling, more recent research on human trafficking shows that people who are smuggled into another country often
become victims of human trafficking (Smith, 2011). Additionally, victims of both forms of human trafficking are also exploited and used for a long time after traffickers re-locate them to another country (Aronowitz, 2001). It is hard for the victim to escape from the people they are bonded to because traffickers take the victim’s passports and other legal documents to ensure victims will not escape (Smith, 2011). Also, the criminals involved in trafficking threaten victims by telling them that any escape attempts will result in legal repercussion (Smith, 2011).

Most human trafficking victims fear law enforcement because a lot of them are illegally placed into another country (Smith, 2011). Since these people do not use legal means to enter another country, both smuggled and trafficked individuals risk apprehension and prosecution (Aronowitz, 2001). Research shows that this is a risk people have been willing to take for a long time, as these crimes have been occurring for many years (Jahic & Finckenauer, 2005). The history of human trafficking goes further back than the media indicates however; it is not a new phenomenon (Jahic, & Finckenauer, 2005).

2.5 History of Human Trafficking

In the latter part of the 1960s, the United States recognized a growing problem with organized crime which prompted criminologists and the government to look for explanations (Schloenhardt, 1999). Studies conducted by the government and criminologists were initially skeptical to look at businesses as possibly being involved with organized criminal activities (Schloenhardt, 1999). In 1967, a report created by the U.S. Government Task Force in Organized Crime was the first official report to declare that “the core of organized crime activity is the supply of illegal goods and services to countless number of citizen customers” (Schloenhardt, 1999, p. 205). This is because these types of crime depend on customers (Schloenhardt, 1999). Data from studies shows that the amount of organized criminal activity rose rapidly from the 1970s and 1980s and continues to rise today (Schloenhardt, 1999).
During the early 1970s, Western Europe dealt with the problem of women from South East Asia being brought in as sex trafficking victims (Jahic, & Finckenauer, 2005). In the 1980s, there was an increase of women from Thailand being trafficked to other countries such as in North America and parts of Europe (Taylor, & Jamieson, 1999). It is also noted that the number of people migrating to countries in the European Union, has not dropped below 500,000 (Muus, 2001). The large number of people migrating to Europe is the result of transnational crime organizations that participate in human trafficking and smuggling (Kalaitzidis, 2005). It was not until the 1990s that human trafficking “gained real public and government attention” because of a higher number of cases reported of women, from both Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, being trafficked (Jahic, & Finckenauer, 2005, p. 24).

In 2002, the British Broadcasting Corporation announced that human smuggling had become the world’s biggest crime problem (Kalaitzidis, 2005). This means that the problem with human smuggling, by 2002, was greater than drug crimes (Kalaitzidis, 2005). Money is the main reason why trafficking occurs (Kotrla, 2010).

2.6 Why Trafficking Occurs

According to research, victims of trafficking are exploited for both sex and labor purposes (Wooditch, et all, 2009). The reason trafficking for sex and labor occurs is due to the desire traffickers have to make money (Kotrla, 2010).

Sex traffickers make money from victims and from the individuals who pay for the services provided by the victims (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). Victims of sex trafficking are often women and children (TIPR, 2006). Often men are selected by traffickers for labor purposes (Jones, 2012). According to research, forced labor leads to the greatest number of trafficking victims and includes involuntary servitude and debt bondage” (Smith, 2011, p. 764). According to Smith (2011), the estimated net loss of wages for trafficking victims forced to work for traffickers is $20 billion. Traffickers use victims of sex and labor trafficking to make money
The yearly profit traffickers receive is estimated at $30 billion (Smith, 2011). There is evidence to suggest that human trafficking crimes are increasing (Kotrla, 2010).

As a result, research and reports on human trafficking started to increase which lead to the creation of a policy for human trafficking crimes (Jahic, & Finckenauer, 2005). The high number of cases being reported on human trafficking pressured the government to take action (Jahic, & Finckenauer, 2005).

2.7 Policies

Since the 1990s, people have publicized reports on human trafficking which include human trafficking cases (Fry, 2008). These reports made attempts to cover information regarding how victims were recruited, transported, and exploited (Fry, 2008). A lot of these studies listed policy recommendations in order to help establish methods in which officials could use to help combat this problem (Fry, 2008).

In March of 1999, the United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention (UNODCCP) started a program to help people realize the magnitude of this problem (Aronowitz, 2001). This program, which is called the Global Programme against Trafficking in Humans Begins, encouraged researchers to find more information regarding human trafficking (Aronowitz, 2001). The researchers focused on areas such as the routes the traffickers take, the networking groups involved, and the practices of the criminals (Aronowitz, 2001). The reason for this research was to help strengthen the government’s response to this problem (Aronowitz, 2001).

The year 2000 marked the first time legislation was created for human trafficking in the United States (Smith, 2011). Prior to this, anyone prosecuted for trafficking crimes were convicted under involuntary servitude and slavery laws (Smith, 2011). In fact, a U.S. Supreme Court case in 1988, titled the United States v Kozminski, involved a mentally challenges man who was forced to work on a farm (Smith, 2011). The United States v Kozminski showed the
need for a more modern approach to trafficking crimes (Smith, 2011). This particular case ended with a charge of involuntary servitude and slavery which had to be revised to include the “threatened use of physical injury or manipulation of legal process” because the victim was never physically harmed (Smith, 2011, p. 76). A more modern approach to human trafficking came in 2000 (Smith, 2011). In this year, Congress created the Trafficking Victims Protection Act which is an important tool for combating human trafficking (Rizer & Glaser, 2011).

2.8 Trafficking Victims Protection Act

One of the main acts created for helping combat human trafficking is the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA) is the first federally created law that focuses specifically on the elimination of human trafficking (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). The approach this act takes regards human trafficking in terms of “prevention, protection, and prosecution” (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006, p. 18). The victim-centered approach of the TVPA looks at issues related to the “rescuing, rehabilitating, and reintegrating” efforts needed to help victims (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006, p. 18). To be effective, the TVPA lists several federal agencies as responsible for combating human trafficking (Stolz, 2010). Some of these agencies include: the Federal Bureau of investigations, Immigration and Customs Enforcement, Criminal Section, U.S. Attorney Officers, and prosecutors in the Department of Justice’s Civil Rights Division (Stolz, 2010).

The agencies that share the responsibility of domestic and international efforts to combat trafficking include the Department of State, Justice, Labor, Health and Human Services, Homeland Security, and the U.S. Agency for International Development (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). Of these agencies, two have been repeatedly cited in research articles as being fairly active in the enforcement of the TVPA.

The Immigration and Customs Enforcement agency is one of the lead agencies that enforces the TVPA and specifically focuses on identifying the criminal and organizations
involved in human trafficking (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). Another lead agency that actively enforces this act is the Federal Bureau of Investigation. In 2003, the FBI joined in with the Department of Justice Child Exploitation and Obscenity Section and the National Center of Missing and Exploited Children in effort to create what is known as the Innocence Lost National Initiative (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). This initiative focuses on the sex trafficking of children in the United States and has been successful in convicting at least 500 people connected to the sex trafficking of children (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011).

It is common that people who have been convicted under this initiative are sentenced between 25 years and life (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). In addition to the policies and initiatives listed above, the Trafficking Victims Protection Act has been updated a couple of times over the years to accommodate for changes in how human trafficking is combated (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). To be the most effective, the TVPA focuses on both domestic and international anti-trafficking efforts (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). In addition to helping victims of human trafficking, the TVPA was also created with the intentions of persuading other countries to adopt methods for the purpose of combating human trafficking (Wooditch, et all, 2009). In order to obtain this goal, the Act requires other countries to “prohibit severe forms of trafficking, prescribe sanctions proportionate to the act, and make a concerted effort to contend with organized trafficking” (Wooditch, et all, 2009, p. 237). If a country fails to meet these standards, the United States will limit financial support to only providing trade-related aid or humanitarian aid for the that country (Wooditch, et all, 2009). In addition, the United States will also oppose the financial support these countries may seek from the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, and other such institutions (Wooditch, et all, 2009). On the other hand, if another country decides to create anti-trafficking laws, pursue trafficking criminals, or strengthen investigation efforts, the TVPA will ensure financial assistance is provided (Wooditch, et all, 2009).
In order to keep track of other countries, the TVPA has created a reporting system which lists how countries rank in terms of their anti-trafficking efforts (TIPR, 2006). The report is used in the Secretary of State’s yearly assessment of global anti-trafficking efforts (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). This report, known as the Trafficking in Persons Report, describes how well countries outside of the United States are doing in terms of making efforts to combat trafficking (TIPR, 2006).

In the Trafficking in Persons Report, countries are ranked according to whether they comply with the minimum standards and requirements that was established by the United States’ legislation (TIPR, 2006). This report is published every year and is used to place certain countries in a category, or tier, which represents is ranking (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006).

According to the report, there are three tiers that a country can be rated under (TIPR, 2006). A country that has a Tier 1 ranking means that they meet the minimum standards of the TVPA, recognize that human trafficking exists, and has made effort to combat the problem (U.S. Department of State, 2011). Countries listed under Tier 2 do not meet the minimum standards established by the TVPA, but they are making significant efforts to comply with these standards (U. S. Department of State, 2011). A country listed under Tier 3 is “a country that fails to make significant efforts to bring itself into compliance with the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking in persons, per U.S. law” (TIPR, 2006, p. 5). In addition to these three tier rankings, some countries are listed under a fourth ranking which is a watch list that falls after tier 2 (U.S. Department of State, 2011). Countries that fall under the tier 2 watch list are similar to those listed in the tier 2 category, but they have other issues that do not quite place them in the tier 3 category (U.S. Department of State, 2011).
2.9 National Security

In the year following the enactment of the TVPA, a group of terrorists from the Middle East attacked the United States (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The attack occurred on September 11, 2001 (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). Research indicates that the attack prompted greater concern for all types of national security (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). In addition, the attack also created a greater concern for many crimes that were not initially listed as national security threats (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). More specifically, all forms of transnational crimes were taken more seriously because people were concerned that these crimes involved terrorist organizations (Kalaitzidas 2005). Human trafficking was one of the crimes listed as a concern (Rizer & Glaser, 2011).

According to research, “If organized crime entities are able to bring people into the country undetected, or with false identities, our borders are not secure from terrorists or others who may seek to enter the country through similar channels” (Dill, 2011, p. 2). The years following this attack, several acts were either adopted or revisited in effort to combat human trafficking more effectively (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). One of the first acts to be revised since these attacks is known as RICO (Smith, 2011).

2.10 RICO

Although it was initially part of the Organized Crime Control Act introduced in 1969 by Senator John McClellan, RICO was not officially signed into law until 1970 by President Nixon. RICO stands for the Racketeering Influenced and Corrupt Organizations Act and was originally created for purposes of fighting organized crime connected with lawful businesses (Smith, 2011).

In its beginning stages, RICO was used to help classify racketeering behaviors as criminal and listed over 30 crimes containing these behaviors as punishable by this act (Smith, 2011). This act took a long time to be revised and used as a tool for combating human trafficking. It was not until a couple of years following the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the U.S., that
Congress decided to make an amendment to RICO in support of the anti-trafficking efforts (Smith, 2011).

In 2003, Congress added human trafficking as a crime punishable by RICO (Smith, 2011). RICO also “authorized the imposition of enhanced criminal penalties and new civil sanctions to provide new legal remedies for all types of organized criminal behavior” (Smith, 2011, p. 776). Although Congress has made a lot of effort to combat human trafficking by revising RICO, it took six years for a case to be filed under this act (Smith, 2011). This does not mean that Rico is ineffective; it just means that it took prosecutors a long time to use this act as a tool against human trafficking (Smith, 2011).

2.11 National Security Directive 22

In December of 2002, President Bush signed the National Security Directive 22, which officially documented human trafficking as being a risk for public health and terrorism (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The listing of human trafficking as a national security and public health concern was important and lead to further acts by Congress. Two years following the creation of the National Security Directive 22, Congress added the Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act of 2004 (Rizer & Glaser, 2011).

The significance of this act was the creation of the Human Smuggling and Trafficking center (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). This center focuses on studying human trafficking and human smuggling as well as the criminal organizations involved (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The Human Smuggling and Trafficking Center also works to bring analysts, officers, and investigators together from the CIA, FBI, ICE, Department of State, and Department of Homeland Security in order fuse together information relating to human smuggling and trafficking (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). In addition to this, the Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2005 was adopted (Rizer & Glaser, 2011).
The TVPRA is a revision of the TVPA created in 2000 (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The purpose for this act’s revision was to create a task force to consist of multiple agencies (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The focus of the task force is to study terrorism and its interrelationship with human trafficking (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). In 2006, a report was released by the United States Department of Justice which revealed information regarding the successfulness of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act and its latter versions (Rizer & Glaser, 2011).

2.12 TVPA Results

According to research, results found in a report revealed some successes with the efforts to combat trafficking; however, the report also showed “existing interagency tensions and a lack of either awareness or concern by persons tasked to carry out the implications of the Act” (Rizer & Glaser, 2011, p.73). Additionally, it has been noted that there is a lack of a more clearly defined approach for the agencies involved to follow in order to achieve a better result (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006).

A latter report released by the U.S. Department of Justice listed recommendations for improving the collaboration between agencies as well as recommendations to improve the fight against human trafficking (Rizer & Glazer, 2011). To support the fight against trafficking, the Department of Justice helped set up a program to assist state and local law enforcement agencies receive funding for anti-trafficking task forces (Stolz, 2010).

In addition, the Bureau of Justice Assistance, which is listed as the official Justice Department responsible for the support of all state, local, and tribal authorities’ efforts, also created a program to help fund anti-trafficking efforts (Stolz, 2010). According to research, it is hard to determine how much these efforts help (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). It is also hard to determine the real scope of this problem on a global scale (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006).
2.13 Global Scale

On an international scale, it is very difficult for to obtain precise information of the United States' efforts to combat international human trafficking crime (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). This is because the Interagency Task Force has yet to evaluate, or find a method to evaluate, the United States programs established to combat human trafficking abroad (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). The reason why thus is difficult to measure is because some countries do not have legislation establish against trafficking; or they define trafficking in different ways (Fry, 2008). Additionally, sometimes victims are not viewed as victims because certain laws define them as smuggled immigrants (Fry, 2008). It is also hard to determine what the global estimates of human trafficking crimes were before 2002 (Fry, 2008). One source states that the United States Department of State only started publishing international estimates of human trafficking crimes in 2002 (Fry, 2008).

The Trafficking in Person Report is supposed to help establish accountability for countries that struggle to meet the minimum standards of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TIPR, 2006). However; this report is limited because it only reports on more severe forms of trafficking (TIPR, 2006). Human trafficking crimes are not limited to the United States (TIPR, 2006). The next section will provide information on international policies that address human trafficking.

2.14 International Policies

In the 1990s, the instability of the economy and the collapse of the Soviet Union lead to an increase of migrant classed sex workers in Europe (Mameli, 2002). All countries in the European Union have had issues with sex trafficking due to the wide spread nature of human trafficking (Mameli, 2002). Some people involved in the sex trade migrate and willingly become involved (Mameli, 2002). Others initially intended to find better opportunities for education, jobs; or they just wanted to travel (Mameli, 2002).
In the latter part of the 1990s, the International Organization for Migration started to record trends in sex trafficking and noted the findings in a monthly newsletter (Mameli, 2002). Also during the late 1990s, the United Nations used another tool for documenting human trafficking crimes (Mameli, 2001). This tool is the United Nations Drug Control Program which has been discussed during international conferences (Mameli, 2002). In addition, Europol used its drugs unit to research and create strategies in response to the trafficking problem (Mameli, 2002).

According to Fry (2008), the United Nations General Assembly decided to add two protocols which specifically address the issue of smuggling and trafficking (Fry, 2008). For the purpose of the research study, only the trafficking protocol will be examined.

2.15 U.N. Trafficking Protocol

The trafficking protocol established by the United Nations Global Assembly, requires that countries make trafficking and conduct relating to trafficking a crime (Fry, 2008). Also, the protocol aims to ensure victims are safely returned home and accepted back home (Fry, 2008). Additional requirements include exchanging information relating to the identification of traffickers and victims and exchange information relating to the methods and means traffickers use (Fry, 2008). The enhancement of training for any agency that works to combat trafficking is also of importance as well as the security of all borders (Fry, 2008). The final requirements mandate that countries prevent the use of fraudulent travel documents and use legislature to prevent and punish the commercial transport used in trafficking crimes (Fry, 2008).

This same trafficking protocol also aims to help victims by recommending countries protect victim’s privacy, keep the victims updated on the cases against their trafficker, take the victims physical and psychological needs into consideration, make sure the victims are compensated through domestic laws, and make efforts to prevent the re-victimization of trafficking victims (Fry, 2008). One can infer that the reason for the trafficking protocol
enactment was because of the high number of victims found in the United Nations member countries. In fact, research from the European Union found that 90% of sex trafficking victims originate from Eastern and Central European states (Mameli, 2002). There are additional agencies who are involved in the fight against trafficking. Europol efforts to combat human trafficking include identification of source countries and adding protocols (Mameli, 2002). The next section will focus on Europol's anti-trafficking efforts.

2.16 Europol

According to the Europol, the countries that are most responsible for contributing to the European Union's trafficking problem include Ukraine, Hungary, Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Poland, Romania, Russia, and Albania (Mameli, 2002). Outside the European Union, Thailand, China, Vietnam, Ghana, Morocco, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Brazil, Columbia, and the Dominican Republic were identified as countries of origin for sex trafficking in Europe (Mameli, 2002). In addition to Europol's efforts, there were three programs created around this time to help combat trafficking (Mameli, 2002).

The first is called the Incentive and Exchange Program for Persons Responsible for Combating Trade in Human Beings; the second is the Sexual Exploitation of Children (STOP) and the third is the Daphne Programme (Mameli, 2002). All three of these programs were established by the European Commission and are supported by Europol (Mameli, 2002).

The Sexual Exploitation of Children program incorporates help from judges, police departments, public services, public prosecutors, civil servants, and others (Mameli, 2002). Their task is to conduct research and studies for the purpose of providing assistance to the fight against trafficking (Mameli, 2002). As an additional resource, STOP is used to provide training and relay information between Member States (Mameli, 2002).

Lastly, the Daphne Programme is used to work with non-government agencies to help raise public awareness and help combat the violence women and children endure from being a
victim of trafficking (Mameli, 2002). In addition to Europol, Interpol has also made efforts to help with the anti-trafficking efforts.

2.17 Interpol

Interpol is an organization used to support all law enforcement and non law enforcement agencies who work to combat international crime (Interpol, 2011). Since human trafficking is an international problem, Interpol works with areas affected by trafficking crimes in order to help coordinate investigations, provide training, and provide other forms of support to the police agencies involved (Mameli, 2002).

It is noted that “what is of potentially greater use in the future is Interpol’s capacity to partner with differing law enforcement organizations around the world in order to build capacity for identifying, investigating, and intervening in the activities of the transnational sex industry” (Mameli, 2002, p. 73). Interpol works with other organizations to combat human trafficking by establishing a transnational network for conducting research, documentation, and statistics (Mameli, 2002).

According to Mameli (2002), there is need for both Interpol and Europol to work more closely with the United Nations Centre for International Crime Prevention and the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute. The reason for this is to enhance the efforts of the Global Programme Against Trafficking in Human Beings (Mameli, 2002). While this need has been established, there has been nothing formally done to initiate an agreement between Interpol, Europol and the United Nations (Mameli, 2002). Although Interpol, Europol and the United Nations have all implemented their own strategies to assist the anti-trafficking efforts internationally, other countries individually, have their own methods.
2.18 Individual Efforts

To combat its problems with organized crime, Germany decided in 2003 to include international terrorism and human rights violations among others, as part of its definition of threats (Germany Defense & Security Report, 2009). In Germany, the trafficking of humans is a growing concern as people from the eastern parts of Europe are transported to Germany under false claims (Germany Defense & Security Report, 2009).

In a 2004 Action Plan, Australia’s government decided to invest as much as $20 million to help with their human trafficking problem (Marmo & La Forgia, 2008). This plan “established a 23-member Transnational Sexual Exploitation and Trafficking Strike Team within the Australian Federal Police, and proposed legislative changes to adopt the 2000 UN Protocol supplementing the Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime, namely the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (referred to as the Palermo Protocol)” (Marmo & La Forgia, 2008, p. 177).

In a latter revision of the Palermo Protocol, under the Criminal Code Amendment, Australia added women to the list of victims (Marmo & La Forgia, 2008). The identification of women as trafficking victims gives women a chance to seek counseling and legal services, but only temporary as they are only permitted to stay in Australia for a short term (Marmo & La Forgia, 2008). A third country who has been individually putting fourth effort to combat its trafficking problem is Greece.

In 2001, Greece created the Galatsi Group which is Greece’s main tool for their anti-trafficking efforts (Papanicolaou, 2008). The Galatsi Group is comprised of different non-governmental organizations and other organizations who all aim to prevent trafficking and aid victims of trafficking (Papanicolaou, 2008). What helped Greece create its own anti-trafficking tool is mainly pressure from the United States (Papanicolaou, 2008).

The United States Department of State listed Greece as a tier 3 country in 2001 (Papanicolaou, 2008). The tier 3 category placement of Greece was due to the fact that Greece
was not making any effort to combat trafficking and was not in compliance with the United States’ Trafficking Victims Protection Act (Papanicolaou, 2008). The country’s tier 3 rating had come out in the United States’ yearly trafficking report which prompted Greece to take action (Papanicolaou, 2008). By 2006, the United States’ trafficking report listed Greece as a tier 2 rating because Greece had made significant anti-trafficking efforts (Papanicolaou, 2008). However; it was still not in full compliance of the TVPA (Papanicolaou, 2008).

The Trafficking in Persons Report, " has been a factor of organization in the Greek anti-trafficking campaign, firstly by paving, year after year, the way for the anti-trafficking campaign’s subsequent steps at the level of demands for policy reform, and secondly, by securing the campaign’s prior achievements to the extent that it directly included the levels of public funding and support for infrastructure creation as criteria for the assessment of Greek government’s anti-trafficking policies" (Papanicolaou, 2008, p. 387). Another country that has been noticeably influenced by the United States’ TVPA is Jamaica.

According to the United States, Jamaica, which is a source country for child sex trafficking, failed to take any action against trafficking prior to 2005 (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). That is, Jamaica, “failed to investigate, prosecute, or convict any traffickers during the previous year, despite the passage of a law to protect minors” (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006, p. 31). Jamaica’s failure to indicate any anti-trafficking effort is what placed Jamaica under the 2005 U.S. TIP Report’s tier 3 category (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). In response to this ranking, Jamaica finally decided to create a anti-trafficking unit for its police force (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006).

Greece, Australia, Jamaica and Germany are only a few countries that have seen the need for creating their own anti-trafficking policies and efforts. Although Greece did get a lot of encouragement from the United States, they still took the initiative to implement anti-trafficking efforts (Trends in Organized Crime, 2006). In the United States, stat and local law enforcement agencies have their own anti-trafficking challenges.
2.19 U.S. Law Enforcement Challenges

In effort to encourage law enforcement agencies to take action against human trafficking, the U.S. Department of Justice created a fund to help support state and local law enforcement agencies’ anti-trafficking task forces (Stolz, 2010). In order for state and local law enforcement to be fully equipped to combat human trafficking, they need to overcome certain challenges (Stolz, 2010). Since the U.S. Department of State is assisting with finances, one of the remaining concerns regards training (Stolz, 2010).

One challenge that needs to be faced is the challenge of realizing whose responsibility it is to enforce trafficking crimes. State and local law enforcement agencies need to realize that they can enforce these crimes even though they may additionally include immigration and labor law violations (Stolz, 2010). It has been recognized that law enforcement agencies that do not have the proper training it takes for them to identify and investigate trafficking crimes, report fewer incidents of human trafficking (Mattar & Van Slyke, 2010). It is also important for law enforcement to be able to properly identify victims because “fear and mistrust of police is reinforced when victims are treated as criminals on account of a lack of comprehensive training” (Hepburn & Simon, 2010, p.19).

Most times, identifying human trafficking crimes takes a proactive approach which includes surveillances, raids, and searches in order to find victims and capture criminals (Stolz, 2010). If agencies want to catch human traffickers, they need to allocate more resources and create specialized unites to maximize effectiveness (Mattar & Van Slyke, 2010). An additional problem for some law enforcement agencies is the frequency in which they agencies deport victims (Mattar & Van Slyke, 2010).

According to one report, at least a fifth of law enforcement agencies deport trafficking victims which “gives weight to victim advocates’ concerns that current law enforcement strategies discourage reporting” (Mattar & Van Slyke, 2010, p. 197). It is logical to conclude that underreporting human trafficking crimes causes an underrepresentation of human
trafficking crimes. The following section will provide further information on human trafficking victims.

2.20 Victims

Typically, victims of human trafficking are poor (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). Victims have very little employment options in their country of origin which compels them seek work somewhere else (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). Trafficking victims are promised better education and employment (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). Often they have no idea that they are being deceived (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). They are targeted and exploited by traffickers (Smith, 2011).

Research shows, “Human trafficking preys on the most vulnerable of populations-the most destitute, uneducated, those with no hope, and nowhere to run; people who think no other alternatives or options exist” (Dill, 2011, p.4). Victims are commonly in dire situations and easily targeted by human traffickers (Elezi, 2011).

Once a women or child becomes a victim, they are only expected to live eight years (Dill, 2011). Victims are from all parts of the world and it is often that victims from certain areas are commonly used for specific purposes (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). The Anti-Slavery International organization recognizes that there are correlations between the type of forced labor and the victim's country of origin (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009).

People from certain parts of Central or Eastern Europe are commonly used for agricultural purposes (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). People from other parts of Eastern Europe, including Lithuania, Africa, China, and Thailand, are used for sex trade purposes (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). For criminal and labor use, Vietnam is reported as the main source of victims (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009).

Domestic labor victims are more likely to be from the Philippines, India, and Sri Lanka (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). Victims used for cleaning jobs are from South America.
In addition to research from the Anti-Slavery International Organization, the Poppy Project also points out that there are fairly high numbers of females from Albania who are trafficked for sex (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009).

Most victims of trafficking are women and children (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). In fact, studies have indicated that “at least 70 percent of women involved in prostitution were introduced into the commercial sex industry before reaching 18 years of age” (Kotral, 2010, p.182) The hard part is narrowing down the exact number of children victims.

2.21 Child Victims

According to research, “Sexual exploitation of children is the most frequent consequence child trafficking, knows no boundaries and continents; it is organized in places where there is demand for such criminal activities and is facilitated by vulnerability of safety systems and inadequate social responsibility in relation to the harm that victims of human trafficking, country’s nationals, as well as illegal underage immigrants, can be exposed to” (Vinkovic, 2010, p. 1). “Poverty, broken families, violence, alcoholism, addiction to drugs, poor children’s social care in some environments, and a desire to have a better future are the most frequent reasons why children are easily deceived by stories of a better life outside their country of origin and why they unexpectedly end up in the claws of traffickers” (Vinkovic, 2010, p. 5).

Often girls from Eastern Europe are told that by traffickers that they will work as maids, babysitters, waitresses in bars, or models (Vinkovic, 2010). They are often exploited in the sex industry instead of given what they were promised (Vinkovic, 2010). According to research, there have been operations established that specifically target child trafficking crimes (Dill, 2011).

In 2003, Operation Predator was established to assist with international and domestic efforts targeting people who seek out and gain sexual gratification from children (Dill, 2011). Since this began, almost 13,000 human traffickers have been arrested (Dill, 2011). One
incident reported that a man from the United States went to Russia in order to purchase a 12 year old boy for sexual purposes (Dill, 2011). This man was arrested, convicted, and sentenced to serve a max of 25 years in prison (Dill, 2011). The amount of money traffickers received from these crimes is largely to blame for the scope of this problem (Traffick911).

2.22 Scope of Child Trafficking

The trafficking industry is very lucrative. The profit criminals receive for this crime on a yearly basis is over $32 billion (Traffick911). It is estimated that over 300,000 children are bought and sold in the United States as sex slaves (Traffick911). In a 2004 report, the United States Department of State documented that between 600,000 and 800,000 people were trafficked across international borders (Simons, 2006). Another report, from 2006, claims that globally there are over 10 million children who become victims of different forms of involuntary servitude; this includes sex slavery (Simons, 2006).

More recent statistics state that worldwide, the number of new children who fall victim to sex traffickers each year is over one million (Traffick911). This number breaks down to at least one child being forced into the sex trade every two minutes (Traffick911). In particular, children from the United States are the most vulnerable group to fall victim of trafficking in this country (Kotrla, 2010).

In fact, “in the first ever national-level data on human trafficking investigations, 83 percent of the 1,229 investigations were sex trafficking cases; of those, 63 percent involved U.S. citizens, and almost one-third involved minors” (Kotrla, 2010, p. 182). On an international level, there are several children who either try themselves or are forced to enter the United States (Kotrla, 2010). Most were victims of sex trafficking (Kotrla, 2010).
2.23 Border Crossing

The number of children caught attempting to illegally cross the United States borders is approximately 100,000 (Gozadziak, 2010). Reports state that the children who are caught trying to enter the United States are not accompanied by anyone at the time of their capture (Gozadziak, 2010). Often, these children are returned to their country of origin due to agreements between the United States and other countries (Gozadziak, 2010). Mexico is one country that requires the United States to return captured Mexican citizens, including children (Gozadziak, 2010). The United States Federal Government houses about 9,000 children every year who are found under such circumstances (Gozadziak, 2010). One source says that there is no official data to indicate exactly how many children are victims of trafficking (Gozadziak, 2010). Research on this topic is currently limited (Gozadziak, 2010).

Other issues that make it hard to narrow down this number include a lack of attention to this problem, a lack of questions regarding the methods used in certain studies, and the fact that this crime is clandestine in nature (Kotrla, 2010). The United Kingdom states that there is a lack of an agreement regarding the number of trafficking victims (Trends in Organized Crime, 2009). Research shows, it is often hard to recognize a child victim of human trafficking (Stolz, 2010). There are many reasons for this.

One of the main reasons why it is hard to identify victims is because most victims of trafficking hide their need of help from law enforcement agencies (Stolz, 2010). Many victims are either afraid that they or their family will be harmed by the trafficker or they are afraid of law enforcement (Stolz, 2010). Victims are also intimidated by their trafficker (Simons, 2006).

Other reasons may include love for the trafficker, difficulty speaking a language, and denial of their status as a trafficking victim (Stolz, 2010). Also, some victims actually see themselves as criminals; not victims (Kotrla, 2010). Not all victims are uneducated, and easy to distinguish (Trends in Organized Crime, 2005). Sometimes young females are mistaken as victims because they blend in fairly well and are viewed as “the girl next door” (Trends in
Organized Crime, 2005, p. 26). In addition to these reasons, it is also a fact that not everyone knows the true nature of this problem (Traffick911).

2.24 Child Trafficking in the U.S.

People in the United States are not all aware that local children are trafficked for sex (Traffick911). To explain what local means, the Federal Bureau of Investigation documents that sex trafficking and sex slavery occur all over the United States; including the backyards of U.S. citizens (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). Sex trafficking includes several forms such as pornography, escort services, stripping, and other related sexual acts (Kotrla, 2010).

The majority of victims live on the streets because they either ran away or were thrown out by their families or roommates (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). A large number of victims are also victims of domestic abuse and neglect (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). It is also stated that girls who are not educated, are often more likely to become victims of trafficking and domestic violence (Dill, 2011).

A 2007 report states that on a global level, more than 66 million girls are not educated due to lack of access (Dill, 2011). These factors make it easy for traffickers to detect their distressed victims and trick victims into trusting them (Traffick911). “Traffickers and pimps know about these vulnerabilities, and initially act as a parent figure or other caretaking role in order to gain the individual’s trust and loyalty” (Dill, 2011, p. 4). Most victims believe that there is no one else they can turn to and they believe they have no other options (Dill, 2011). This is why it is so easy for traffickers to control their victim’s mind, emotions, and life (Dill, 2011). There are certain things to look for in order to identify a trafficking victim (Traffick911).

Some of the things to look for when coming across a potential child victim include inconsistencies in story, tattoos or branding which indicate ownership or money, malnourishment, clothing that is inappropriate for the weather or say “Daddy’s girl”, not attending school on a regular basis, dating older abusive men, inability to make eye contact or
fear, excessive flirting with men, physical markings indicating abuse, and consistently running away (Traffick911). Also research shows that when questioned, a lot of these children respond with answers that appear to be scripted (Traffick911).

What often makes the number of trafficking child victims difficult to obtain is the fact that most female children are trained to lie (Gozadziak, 2010) They claim to be adults so that they are classified as such (Gozadziak, 2010). These girls are trained to state their status as married or related to the trafficker (Gozadziak, 2010). In some cases, victims are in fact related to the person trafficking them.

2.25 Who Trafficks Children

It is a myth that all sex traffickers are strangers to these children; some traffickers are the victims own parent (Traffick911). Sometimes children become victims because they are forcefully abducted, pressured by parents, looking for means to support themselves; or because parents are deceived by agreements they make with traffickers (Walker-Rodrigues & Hill, 2011). One source states that a 13 year old female victim’s mother sold her over 100 times (Traffick911). The mother did this so that she could receive money to purchase drugs (Traffick911). This particular incident occurred in the metropolitan area of Dallas –Fort Worth, Texas (Traffick911). The same things occur overseas (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007).

In Africa, the state of Nigeria is listed as one of the main sources and destinations for human trafficking (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007). Trafficking here not only involves the purpose of labor and sex, but also children are often sold for their body parts (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007).

In regards to children in Nigeria, traffickers are often somewhat wealthy business men who have connections with corrupt Nigerian government officials (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007). Most child victims from Nigeria are often poor and uneducated (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007). Traffickers here use the same tactics that others use in order to obtain their victim. The promise of jobs and education is often what it takes to obtain a victim since traffickers know that
victims are desperate for these things (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007). Friends and family members of victims are often used as a method of providing traffickers with victims (Elechi, Okosun, & Ngwe 2007). Money and the fact that Nigeria is a impoverished country are two of the main reasons why Nigeria is listed as one of the major countries for trafficking (Elechi, Okosun, & Ngwe 2007). There are additional third world countries which thrive from trafficking crimes.

In Cambodia, anyone can purchase a child as a sex slave for as little as $100.00 (Dil, 2011). One story in particular says that a mother of an 11 year old girl sold her daughter to a Japanese businessman for $500 (Malarek, 2007). The girl was told by her mother that she had to go with her “auntie” for a few months (Malarek, 2007). What the girl did not know was that she would soon be preforming sexual favors and men from America, Germany and the United Kingdom would start off paying $10.00 for these services (Malarek, 2007). Later, the same girl was considered “used goods” and the price for her sexual favors lowered to $2.00 (Malarek, 2007, p. 10). This girl did latter return home, but only to die from HIV which she had contracted as a result of her being used in the sex trade (Malarek, 2007). As the pattern of these two stories indicate, the age of children who fall victim of sex trafficking are generally fairly young.

According to one non-governmental organization, the majority of children who are raped as a result of sex trafficking are between the ages of 12 and 13 (Traffick911). Similarly, the average age girls are forced into prostitution is between 12 and 14 years of age (Walker-Rodrigues, & Hill, 2011). It is not just girls that become sex trafficking targets, transgender children and boys are also known victims (Walker-Rodrigues, & Hill, 2011). In fact, both boys and men are often targeted by traffickers (Jones, 2012). They are often neglected when it comes to the investigation aspect of these crimes (Jones, 2012). The average of boys and transgender children who are trafficked is 11 to 13 years (Walker-Rodrigues, & Hill, 2011).
In Europe, 10 to 30 per cent of trafficked children are between 15 and 18, but reports indicate that these ages are lowering (Vinkovic, 2010). It has been reported that children as young as 5 fall victim to the sex trafficking industry (Traffick911).

2.26 Reasons for Trafficking

The trafficking of humans violates the dignity and rights of the victims involved; it is also an international crime (Elechi, Okosun & Ngwe, 2007). Some may find it hard to believe how frequently this happens, but there are reasons for this. One of which has to deal with the culture of the people who allow trafficking to occur.

Jamaica, Japan, the United States and the Netherlands are known for their large commercial sex markets (Kotrla, 2010). It is argued that because of the scope of the problem in these countries, they have a tolerance for this behavior which is related to their culture (Kotrla, 2010). One article on human trafficking states "it is important to recognize that the trafficking of thousands of American children for commercial and sexual exploitation would not exist if the demand form them were not present" (Kotrla, 2010, p. 182). What this means is that even trafficking follows the basic rule of supply and demand.

According to the chief of Child Exploitation and Obscenity Section of the Criminal Division of the Department of Justices, traffickers have an endless supply of children in the United States because there is a large population of children who run away and are thrown away (Kotrla, 2010). A lot of these children have already been exposed to abuse (Kotrla, 2010).

One research article says that when listing factors related to predicting the amount of trafficking occurring from a country, “the most powerful predictor was government corruption, followed by the percent of population under 14 year’s old and infant mortality (Fry, 2008). This means that the supply of children is important to consider when predicting how bad the problem of trafficking may be for a particular country (Fry, 2008).
According to additional research, there are as many as 2.8 million children who either run away from home or are thrown out of their home each year (Kotrla, 2010). It has been suggested that a large number of these children will end up victims of sexual exploitation (Kotrla, 2010). This is what helps supply the demand.

The demand comes from both the trafficker and the consumer (Kotrla, 2010). The trafficker’s demand is due to greed and a desire to make money (Kotrla, 2010). The consumer’s demand has nothing to do with money; rather, it is a desire to fulfill their sexual wants and needs (Kotrla, 2010).

In countries outside of the United States, like Thailand, the supply comes from a surplus of migrant workers and the demand comes from consumers located in Asia, Europe, and the United States who look for prostitutes (Taylor, & Jamieson 1999). To help further understand, it is important to see that “the supply of workers available for export is a function of specific economic conditions in the poorer country, and the demand for their services is a function of economic and social processes elsewhere within the world” (Taylor, & Jamieson 1999, p 261). Generally, people who have the means can fulfill their desires. Often, the object people desire from trafficking is money (Kotrla, 2010).

Traffickers around the world make a lot of money for what they do (Kotrla, 2010). There is no exact statistical figure to show the profit child traffickers make for exploiting children, because of how well hidden these crimes are (Vinkovic, 2010). Only estimates have been given to determine these figures.

One such estimate shows that traffickers who are connected with organized networks receive money from an industry that profits between $32 and $91 billion (Kotrla, 2010). Individual traffickers in the United States force some victims to earn $500 a night for sexual services which gives the trafficker a tax-free yearly profit of $182,000 (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). “From a cost-benefit analysis, trafficking is low risk and has a high profit margins” (Hepburn & Simon, 2010, p.21).
People become traffickers for money (Kotrla, 2010). One report stated that a doctor from the Ukraine moved to England and decided to become a trafficker because she did not think she was making enough money as a doctor (Malarek, 2007). It is estimated that this female doctor made more than $210,000 in an eight month time frame before she was arrested and deported (Malarek, 2007).

In some cases, it is a combination of poverty and lack of protection for citizens that allow trafficking to thrive (Rizer & Glaser, 2011). The problem with having a universalized pursuit of capital is that it creates “extreme polarities of haves, a gigantic middle struggling to have, and a massive lower class abandoned as have-nots at the bottom” (Elechi, Okosun & Ngew, 2007, p. 2). To better understand the reasons why some people chose to become traffickers, a theory on crime is included in the section below. This theory is commonly referred to as an Institutional Anomie theory.

2.27 Crime and the American Dream

According Messner and Rosenfeld (2007), the main goal people have is to obtain wealth and success. They argue that this is a part of a well known phenomenon commonly referred to as the “American Dream” (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007). One downside to this dream includes the fact that people tend to over emphasize the importance of gaining money, and fail to consider the methods they chose to use to obtain this goal (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007). It is not always important for some people to find socially acceptable methods they can use to gain what they want or need (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007). To fully understand the reasons why people chose criminal methods to obtain their monetary goals, the social environment in which people live should be considered (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007).

Mesener and Rosenfeld (2007) state that it may be acceptable in some societies for people to participate in criminal behavior in order to achieve their goals. The “dark side” of choosing to pursue the American Dream is when so much focus is placed on gaining success (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007, p. 10). This amount of focus is bad because “it helps create and
sustain social structures incapable of restraining criminogenic cultural pressures” (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007, p. 10). The mother in Cambodia and the mother in the United States both sold their daughters to traffickers for money (Malarek 2007; Traffick911). In addition to the rule of supply and demand and money; another factor that makes trafficking one of the fastest-growing international crime deals with the organization of trafficking networks.

2.28 Trafficking Networks

Trafficking networks are very organized and often contain a hierarchical system which is similar to other organized criminal networks (Walker-Rodrigues & Hill, 2011). It is argued that sex traffickers are currently more organized and violent (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). Many traffickers are members of either local or international gangs (Simons, 2006). If a trafficker is part of a domestic or international criminal syndicate, it is often common for the organization to also be involved in other crimes such as money laundry, identity theft, and cyber-crime (Simons, 2006). International criminal syndicates are particularly known for using human trafficking routes to also transport drugs and guns (Simons, 2006).

In addition to criminal syndicates, trafficking organizations are also known to include family operations which use family members on both sides of international borders to assist in the trafficking schemes (Simons, 2006). Other commonly known types of trafficking organizations include independently owned businesses, executives, bar owners, pimps and other individuals (Simons, 2006).

Traffickers ensure that victims are properly taken care of by using members in the organization to take care of “transportation, documentation, transit, accommodations, guided border crossings, financial resources, and the contacts necessary to bribe law enforcements and immigration officials” (Simons, 2006, p. 5). These networks transport victims locally and internationally by using cars, buses, vans, trucks, and even planes (Walker-Rodriguez, & Hill, 2011). When it is needed, traffickers have the means to counterfeit identification documents so they can ensure their victim’s true identity will not be recorded in the event of a victim’s arrest
(Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). Traffickers know what they are doing and know how to gain the most from their efforts (Simons, 2006). They also have a tendency to follow a particular model for trafficking (Simons, 2006).

Further research indicates that there are five types of human trafficking models which are often followed by traffickers (Simons, 2006). The first model, known as the natural resources model, is based on a short-term profit goal which allows traffickers to recruit victims and sell them to intermediaries who hands them off to markets (Simons, 2006). The trade and development model is the most profitable of the five because it is set up like a professional business (Simons, 2006). It also uses underground banking methods in order to keep profits they make from keeping, not selling, their victims (Simons, 2006). They also save money by not using intermediaries (Simons, 2006).

The third model mainly targets children (Simons, 2006). This model is more commonly used in the United States and Central America (Simons, 2006). It is referred to as the supermarket model (Simons, 2006). The cost to operate this model is low (Simons, 2006). Although they share profit with local law enforcement for their assistance with moving victims across borders; they only pay small fees for transporting victims (Simons, 2006).

The fourth model is by far the most violent (Simons, 2006). Crime groups in the Balkans are the most commonly seen members of this trafficking model (Simons, 2006). Like the trade and development model, the violent entrepreneur model ensures full control of their victims by taking sole responsibility of the recruitment and exploitation processes (Simons, 2006). In addition, those belonging to a violent entrepreneur model have the advantage of using corrupt law enforcement agents in their operations (Simons, 2006). As a result, the levels of corruption and civil unrest in this area are high (Simons, 2006).

The final model, known as the traditional slavery with modern technology model, commonly profits from trafficking and other crimes (Simons, 2006). This final group is known to
expose victims to the most dangerous conditions (Simons, 2006). Sometimes little pay is sent to the victim’s family (Simons, 2006).

No matter what model traffickers may follow, all traffickers seek the most financial gain possible and fail to regard victims as anything other than a commodity (Simons, 2006). In addition to commonly following a particular model, traffickers are also known to have specific roles they follow (Schloenhardt, 1999). For every trafficking network, there is a division of labor which is a necessary aspect for most criminal organizations (Schloenhardt, 1999). This division of labor creates different roles for traffickers to fill which, in turn, creates a hierarchy (Schloenhardt, 1999). The individuals who work on the lower levels have less education and serve to protect higher ranking individuals from getting caught by law enforcement (Schloenhardt, 1999).

Those on the very top of trafficking networks are known as investors or arrangers (Schloenhardt, 1999). These individuals are highly competent investors who supervise the entire trafficking enterprise they are over and invest money into the organization (Schloenhardt, 1999). They are also in charge of ensuring their operation is ready to make the necessary changes in its functions (Schloenhardt, 1999). They are also responsible for responding to the changes made by legislator and law enforcement in order to avoid detection (Schloenhardt, 1999).

The position of recruiter is the next lower level. This position requires a person to find victims, make transportation arrangements, and collect money from victims at certain transit points (Schloenhardt, 1999). Most of these people do not know the exact trafficking routes and they are not permanent workers; they are only casually used for jobs (Schloenhardt, 1999).

Traffickers tasked with assisting people across borders, or to big cities are known as transporters (Schloenhardt, 1999). These individuals have to be smart enough to recognize changes in law enforcement tactics so that they can avoid detection while transporting others to their destinations (Schloenhardt, 1999). Similar to recruiters, transporters lack communication
with higher ranking traffickers and are only contacted casually by intermediaries (Schloenhardt, 1999).

The next category of traffickers includes corrupt public officials and protectors (Schloenhardt, 1999). Since trafficking often involves the movement of people across international boarders, it is often that government and law enforcement individuals accept bribes from traffickers in exchange for travel documents (Schloenhardt, 1999). Sometimes, the only way for traffickers to get by with moving people illegally across boarders is with the assistance of designated “corruptees” who are situated along trafficking routes (Schloenhardt, 1999). These “corruptees individually or collectively protect the criminal organization through abuses of their positions, status, privileges or through other violations of the law” (Schloenhardt, 1999, p. 218). Although the next category of traffickers is knowledgeable about law enforcement changes, they are not a part of the government or law enforcement agencies.

Traffickers often have to keep updated on changes made by law enforcement and government agencies. The task of the informer is to do exactly that (Schloenhardt, 1999). Informers gather information on boarder surveillance, law enforcement, asylum systems, and changes in transit procedures (Schloenhardt, 1999). Informers also use technology to gain access to a centralized communication system in order to manage the flow of information needed for the trafficking organization (Schloenhardt, 1999).

The traffickers who are responsible for guiding people across boarders by sea or air are referred to as crew members or guides (Schloenhardt, 1999). These people accompany the individuals they transport on the vessels they charter to ensure their destination is reached (Schloenhardt, 1999).

“Further categories of personnel are: enforcers, who are often themselves illegal migrants and are primarily responsible for policing state and migrants and for maintaining order, often using of violence; debt-collectors, who are the people in charge of collecting the fees from the migrants in transit and destination countries, often using threats, coercion and violence; and
money-launderers who find ways of legalizing the proceeds of their activities which are not reinvested in other operations” (Schloenhardt, 1999). The last category involves support staff.

Supporting personnel and specialists are mostly local individuals who are paid casually for their assistance needed to find accommodations for victims and other forms of aid (Schloenhardt, 1999). These people do not stay in contact with members of the organization; they are only used when needed (Schloenhardt, 1999).

Now that information regarding trafficking networks has been presented, the next section will provide information on the backgrounds of traffickers.

2.29 Traffickers

Traffickers come from all social, racial, and ethnic backgrounds (Walker-Rodriguez, & Hill, 2011). Those who are involved in trafficking are commonly referred to as madams, or pimps (Elezi, 2011). They represent men and women (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011). They use drugs, money, and emotional tactics as methods to control their victims (Walker-Rodriguez & Hill, 2011).

Traffickers know that the most vulnerable people are children because they believe the trafficker’s promises and they are easy to exploit (Smith, 2011). Traffickers also know how to control foreign victims with fear (Smith, 2011). They use the victim’s lack of ability to speak English and lack of knowledge of U.S. laws to convince them that seeking help from law enforcement will lead to their deportation (Smith, 2011). They also use violent sexual acts as weapons against victims and as another method of control (Elezi, 2011).

So far, there has been little research done that specifically addresses the traffickers involved in human trafficking crimes (Troshynski & Blank, 2008). There has been some research conducted to find information regarding trafficking routes, and reasons why traffickers chose to traffic others, but there is not much information beyond this (Troshynski & Blank, 2008). As a result, there is a lack of knowledge regarding the reasons why traffickers chose
enter this underground criminal network; other than they seek money and power (Troshynski & Blank, 2008).

Human trafficking is difficult to understand because of its illicit nature (Jahic & Fickenauger, 2005). This chapter aims to review the current and historical data on human trafficking, but since little is known about this crime; the information presented in this chapter is limited. This chapter has addressed human trafficking as it pertains to law enforcement, victims, traffickers, and policies. Having presented a literature review of human trafficking, the reader will now be directed to the methodology that was used in this scientific research study.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

There have been several studies published on human trafficking, but there is yet to be found a study that measures the perceptions of criminology and criminal justice college students while controlling for race and ethnicity. The purpose of this study is to measure perception, while controlling for race and ethnicity, towards human trafficking.

3.1 Design/Analysis

For this study, a quantitative empirical approach was used to measure the current knowledge of students towards human trafficking. The students included in the study were selected from the University of Texas at Arlington’s undergraduate and graduate criminology and criminal justice classes. A non-experimental cross-sectional survey design consisting of a single observation of the students selected was used. A non-probability convenience sample was used for a total sample of n=108. The best instrument to use for this study is a survey because of its potential to be confidential and it does not put any undue pressure on students. The students who chose to participate had as much time as they needed to complete the survey. The amount of time most students’ needed was approximately fifteen minutes on average.

3.2 Survey Instrument

All questions in the survey are closed-ended questions. The knowledge and perception questions used a five-point Likert-scale. Each question had a response set that ranges from agree strongly to disagree strongly (i.e. agree strongly, agree, neutral, disagree, and disagree strongly). The number 1 represents a response of agree strongly, while the number 5 represents a response of disagree strongly. The questions in the survey pertained to the perception and knowledge of the individual. In addition, general demographic questions are
also included in the survey (i.e., race, age, gender, and level of education etc). There were no questions that ask for the individual to provide any identifiable information. The survey instrument used for this study is included in the Appendix.

3.3 Data Collection Method

The principal investigator submitted the necessary paperwork to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval to use the survey instrument for the study. An approval letter was obtained from the IRB by the principal investigator and the major professor granting permission to distribute the surveys for the study.

Students who chose to participate in the study were given all the time they need to respond to the survey questions. The typical response time need for each student is fifteen minutes. Following the distribution and collection of the surveys, the data was coded and analyzed on Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; a statistical program. After the data set was inputted into the program, the data was reviewed to determine the level of knowledge the students have on human trafficking, based on their race and ethnicity backgrounds.

The University of Texas was chosen because it was the most convenient location for the principal investigator to distribute the surveys. Narrowing the study down to one university allows for the surveys to be distributed and collected in a timely manner. The classes selected by the principal investigator for the study are criminology and criminal justice undergraduate and graduate classes. The specific classes selected for the study were selected due to availability and convenience. Prior to the class selection process, criminology and criminal justice undergraduate and graduate professors were contacted to obtain permission for the principal investigator to distribute the surveys in their classes. Once permission was granted, the principal investigator obtained written consent to conduct the survey in the selected classes per IRB requirements.

After obtaining approval by the IRB to conduct the study, the principal investigator contacted the professors for each class selected to set a time and date for the surveys to be
distributed. The professors were present for each class that was selected for the study and the informed consent was read to the students prior to the distribution of the surveys. The semester chosen for the study to be conducted was the spring semester of 2012. The total number of surveys distributed were n=155 among 5 classes.

Upon collection of the surveys, if there were any found to not be fully completed, the principal investigator collected the surveys and use the information that was completed for the study. The main focus of the study is to gather information regarding the current knowledge criminology and criminal justice students have that relates to human trafficking. The data from the surveys collected was inputted into the 20.0 Windows version of SPSS; a statistical program for analysis.

The survey used in this study consists of six questions that pertain to perception, two questions that pertain to training, ten questions that pertain to knowledge, and eight questions that pertain to the student’s demographics. The questions in the survey are based on the information found through researching issues that pertain to human trafficking. More specifically, they relate to human trafficking as a criminal offense, law enforcement issues and role, policy and legislation, victims, traffickers, security and borders, prostitution, and social welfare and economic issues. The study was strictly anonymous. In order to keep track of the number of surveys gathered, a number was coded on each survey that ranges from one to one hundred and eight. The total number of surveys passed out was n=155. Out of this total, only 108 were either completely or mostly filled out. The table below shows the classes that were selected for the study.
Table 1. Courses Selected for Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Academic Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Writing for Criminal Justice Majors, Course 3310, section 001</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal Justice Statistics, Course 3340, section 001</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction into Research Methods in Criminology and Criminal Justice,</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course 3350, section 001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judicial and Constitutional Processes, Course 5327, section 001</td>
<td>Graduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Criminology, Course 5350, section 001</td>
<td>Graduate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the surveys that were obtained from the study were coded into the 20.0 Windows version of SPSS. The surveys were coded in the order they were numbered. Any question that was either not answered, or was marked for more than one answer was coded as missing a response and given the code of -1. Correlations and frequencies tests were run in SPSS for analysis. The correlations test is run to determine a comparison in responses in order to decide whether responses were statistically significant. The level of significance is used to determine the degree in which two variables are related. Once this information is obtained, the decision to accept or reject a hypothesis can be made (Del Carmen Balderas, 2006). A t-test was used to measure the student’s perception of human trafficking based on the individual’s race/ethnic background. The t-test measured responses from both white students and non-white students. The following chapter will provide the findings for the study and provide tables for the tests that were ran for the analysis.
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the data that was collected from the graduate and undergraduate criminology and criminal justice students selected for the human trafficking study. The purpose of this study is to measure perception, while controlling for race and ethnicity, towards human trafficking.

For this study, descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data from the surveys. Descriptive statistics was used because it allows for the variables in the study to be compared. More specifically, it was used to show how people responded to the questions, based upon the category of questions that were asked. To show the level of significance between the white and non-white criminology and criminal justice students; a t-test was used. The expectation is that there will be a statistically significant difference between the white and non-white responses. Any significant difference shown between the perceptions of white and non-white students as they relate to human trafficking will be useful in determining how to focus future research on this topic.

The findings are shown in the following sections. The first section shows the demographic information of the students who participated in the study. The second section shows the comparison of student’s perception of human trafficking based on their racial background of either white or non-white. The last two sections will show the comparison of how students responded to the questions pertaining to their knowledge and human trafficking and to the questions pertaining to the level of training they have received in regards to human trafficking.
4.1 Demographic Information

The table below displays the demographic information of the students who were sampled in the study. Of the 108 surveys that were completed, there was a fairly equal response rate between females (50%) and males (49%) with only 1 response missing. The majority of students were classified as undergraduate students (83%), while only a small proportion (16%) were graduate students. With regard to the age of the students, the majority responded that they were between the age of 18 and 25 (70%).

In regards to the length of time spent living in Texas, the majority (76%) stated that they have lived in Texas for over 15 years. The majority (79%) of students also stated that they consider themselves to be from Texas. Of those who were not born in the United States, the majority (8%) stated that they were born in Mexico. With regards to race, the majority (64%) of students is non-white and 33% is white.

Table 2. Demographics of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your classification?</th>
<th>Percentage (%) (n=)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49% (53)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50% (54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your age?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>70% (76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>20% (22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>7% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51- over</td>
<td>1% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Demographics of Participants
Table 2 Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How long have you lived in Texas?</th>
<th>Percentage (%) (n=)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-4 years</td>
<td>5% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>7% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>11% (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 15 years</td>
<td>76% (82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you consider yourself to be from any of the following states?</th>
<th>Percentage (%) (n=)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>79% (85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>3% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>15 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you were not born in the U.S. where were you born? (skip to question 25 if from the U.S.)</th>
<th>Percentage (%) (n=)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>8% (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>1% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>1% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central or South America</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Country</td>
<td>6% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your racial background?</th>
<th>Percentage (%) (n=)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>19% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>35% (38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>5% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>33% (36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>1% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What religion do you practice?</th>
<th>Percentage (%) (n=)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>62% (67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddhist</td>
<td>2% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14% (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Religion</td>
<td>19% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Knowledge of Human Trafficking

There are a total of ten questions in the survey that relate to knowledge and human trafficking. These particular questions were included in the survey for the purpose of identifying the student’s knowledge of human trafficking. Table 3 shows the frequency in which respondents agreed, disagreed, or were neutral in response to the questions provided. For the most part, students were in agreement with their responses to the questions provided. There were only a few questions where the responses showed the students to be in less agreement. The scales for the study lists number 1 to represent strongly agree and number 5 to represent strongly disagree.

Of the responses provided, most students agreed (63%) that human trafficking and sex trafficking are different things. The question regarding whether human trafficking occurs mostly between Mexico and the U.S. showed that the majority of students (75%) disagreed. Most students selected that they disagreed (73%) to the statement that human trafficking is not much of a problem in Northern Texas. The majority (87%) also disagreed to the statement that sex trafficking and prostitution is not related.

The most similarity found in responses was found in two of the questions pertaining to knowledge. The first was from the statement that most people who become victims of sex trafficking are adults. For this question, the majority (94%) disagreed which is consistent with the data found in the literature review. The statement that human trafficking is a worldwide problem showed that 96% of students were in agreement. In regards to human trafficking and the gender of the victim, most students agreed (71%) that females are the majority of the human trafficking victims. In regards to the age of victims, most students disagreed (88%) that children are rarely victims of human trafficking in the U.S.

The least agreement among students was found in regards to the statement that human trafficking primarily involves individuals from countries other than Latin America and Mexico. That is, the responses to this question showed a lack of consistency. For this question, the
majority disagreed (43%). However; 31% agree and 26% were neutral. The last question that pertains to knowledge shows the majority disagreed (63%) to the statement that human trafficking is not considered by law enforcement as being a highly organized crime. Table 3 shows how people responded to the above mentioned questions. Based on the data, most respondents seem to have a solid level of knowledge in regards to human trafficking.

### Table 3. Knowledge on Human Trafficking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human trafficking and sex trafficking are different things.</th>
<th>Agree (63%)</th>
<th>Neutral (9%)</th>
<th>Disagree (28%)</th>
<th>Total (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking mostly occurs between Mexico and the United States.</td>
<td>17 (16%)</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
<td>81 (75%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is not much of a problem in Northern Texas.</td>
<td>8 (7%)</td>
<td>21 (19%)</td>
<td>79 (73%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex trafficking and prostitution are not related.</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>94 (87%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most people who become victims of sex trafficking are adults.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
<td>102 (94%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is a worldwide problem.</td>
<td>104 (96%)</td>
<td>3 (3%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females are the majority of the human trafficking victims.</td>
<td>77 (71%)</td>
<td>14 (13%)</td>
<td>17 (15%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children are rarely victims of human trafficking in the U.S.</td>
<td>5 (4%)</td>
<td>8 (7%)</td>
<td>95 (88%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking victims primarily involves individuals from countries other than Latin America and Mexico.</td>
<td>33 (31%)</td>
<td>28 (26%)</td>
<td>47 (44%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is not considered by law enforcement as being a highly organized crime.</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
<td>29 (27%)</td>
<td>68 (63%)</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1 Knowledge Statements

Table 3 above displays the information gathered from all students in relation to the knowledge statements provided in the survey. In this table, there was no control for
race/ethnicity. In the table provided below (table 4), race/ethnicity is controlled by whites and non-whites. Meanwhile, the data in table 4 shows a comparison of the means for both white participants and non-white participants. The column to the far right shows the P-Value (Sig 2-tail) which represents the level of significance for the comparisons. The scale used for the study listed 1 as representing strongly agree and number 5 as strongly disagree.

Table 4. Knowledge Statements while Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables for Knowledge Questions</th>
<th>White (mean)</th>
<th>Non-White (mean)</th>
<th>P-Value (Sig 2-tail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking and sex trafficking are different things.</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking occurs mostly between Mexico and the United States.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is not much of a problem in Northern Texas.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex trafficking and prostitution are not related.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most people who become victims of sex trafficking are adults.</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>0.006**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is a worldwide problem.</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females are the majority of the human trafficking victims.</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children are rarely victims of human trafficking in the U.S.</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking victims primarily involve individuals from countries other than Latin America and Mexico.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is not considered by law enforcement as being a highly organized crime.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.031*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Statistically Significant at the 0.05 confidence level  
** Statistically Significant at the 0.01 confidence level

The findings from the knowledge statements show that there are four questions that indicate a statistically significant difference exists between the white respondents and the non-
white respondents. The findings from the remaining six statements did not indicate a statistically significant difference in responses.

For the first statement, "human trafficking and sex trafficking are different things" results from the t-test indicate that there was no statistically significant difference between the knowledge of whites versus the knowledge of non-whites. The mean for white respondents is 2.33 and the mean for the non-white respondents is 2.62 which gave a p value of 0.067. The p value is above the 0.05 level which means no statistically significant differences exist between the responses.

The second statement, "human trafficking mostly occurs between Mexico and the United States" also shows no statistically significant difference between white and non white responses. The mean for whites is 3.67 and the mean for non-whites is 3.93. The p value from the t-test is 0.62 which is above the 0.05 confidence level. The third question, on the other hand, does indicate a statistically significant difference between white and non white responses.

The responses to the statement "human trafficking is not much of a problem in Northern Texas" a comparison of the means between whites (3.72) and the means of non-whites (3.97) showed a statically significant difference at the 0.05 level. That is, the p value was of 0.03. This indicates there is a 95% chance that the differences in responses are not due to chance alone.

With regards to the question, "sex trafficking and prostitution are not related", results from the comparison of the means of whites (3.94) and non-whites (4.12) indicate no statistical significance. The p value for this question was of 0.157, which is above the 0.05 confidence level.

The fifth question from the survey, "most people who become victims of human trafficking are adults" shows statistical significance between the means of whites (4.42) and the means of non-whites (4.62). The p value was of 0.006 which is below the 0.01 confidence level.
That is, there is a 99% chance that there is a statistically significant differences between the way whites and non-whites responded to this question and the difference is not due to chance.

With regards to the statement, "human trafficking is a worldwide problem", a comparison of the means of whites (1.31) and non-whites (1.39) showed a p value of 0.222. This indicates that there is no statistical significances found between the responses of whites and non-whites.

The statement, "females are the majority of the human trafficking victims" also shows no statistical significance. That is, a comparison of the mean of whites (2.36) and the mean of non-whites (2.25) showed a p value of 0.351.

In regards to the statement "children are rarely victims of human trafficking in the U.S.", a comparison of the means of whites (4.14) and non-whites (4.55) indicate that a statistically significant relationship exists between white and non-white responses. That is, the p value was of 0.000 which indicates that the confidence level is of 0.01.

The next statement, "human trafficking victims primarily involves individuals from countries other than Latin America and Mexico" showed no statistical significance. For this statement, a comparison of the means for whites (3.33) and non-whites (3.10) showed a p value of 0.134.

With regards to the final knowledge statement "human trafficking is not considered by law enforcement as being a highly organized crime", a comparison of the means of whites (3.97) and non-whites (3.70) showed a statistical significant difference at the 0.05 confidence level. That is, the p value was of 0.31.

4.3 Perception of Human Trafficking

There are six questions shown from the survey which represent the perception of students towards human trafficking. The purpose of this section is to analyze how students perceive human trafficking in regards to law enforcement and policies. The findings show that most of the students were in agreement with the questions provided. Only one question
showed students to be in disagreement. This question asked whether human trafficking is best handled by law enforcement. The responses showed that while most did agree (38%), there was a large number that disagreed (33%) and quite a few that were neutral (28%). The remainder of the responses showed that students were in agreement.

In response to the statement that we need better policies and legislation in the U.S. in order to provide better assistance for victims of human trafficking, the majority of respondents (86%) agreed. While most people disagreed (67%) that human trafficking is more of a law enforcement issue than a social service issue, the majority agreed (81%) that there should be more effort by law enforcement to combat human trafficking. The next question showed that most (63%) disagreed that human trafficking is strictly limited to our ability to control illegal immigration in the U.S. The last question showed that most disagreed to the statement that it is easier to catch a human trafficker than it is to catch a white collar criminal. The responses to the questions on perception are shown in table 4 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. Perceptions of Human Trafficking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Trafficking is best handled by law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enforcement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We need better policies and legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the U.S. in order to provide better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assistance for victims of human</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trafficking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is more of a law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enforcement issue than a social service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>issue.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is strictly limited to our ability to control illegal immigration in the U.S.</td>
<td>15 (14%)</td>
<td>25 (23%)</td>
<td>68 (63%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be more effort by law enforcement to combat human trafficking.</td>
<td>88 (83%)</td>
<td>17 (16%)</td>
<td>3 (3%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easier to catch a human trafficker than it is to catch a white collar criminal.</td>
<td>20 (19%)</td>
<td>26 (24%)</td>
<td>62 (57%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.1 Perception of Human Trafficking while Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

Table 6 below shows the differences in perception towards human trafficking between white respondents and non-white respondents. There are a total of six questions in this category. All six questions showed statistical significance at the 0.01 confidence level. This means, that the differences in responses to these questions is not due to chance alone. The table below represents the findings.

Table 6. Perceptions of Human Trafficking while Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables for Perception Questions</th>
<th>White (mean)</th>
<th>Non-White (mean)</th>
<th>P-Value (Sig 2-tail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is best handled by law enforcement.</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We need better policies and legislation in the U.S. in order to provide better assistance for victims of human trafficking.</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is more of a law enforcement issue than a social services issue.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking is strictly limited to our ability to control illegal immigration in the U.S.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be more effort by law enforcement to combat human trafficking.</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easier to catch a human trafficker than it is to catch a white collar criminal.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Statistically Significant at the 0.01 confidence level**
With regards to the question, "human trafficking is best handled by law enforcement", a comparison of the means of whites (2.40) and non-whites (3.03) showed a statistically significant difference at the 0.01 level. That is, the given p value of 0.000 means that there is a 99% chance that the relationship between the responses to this question is not due to chance.

The statement "we need better policies and legislation in the U.S. in order to provide better assistance for victims of human trafficking" also shows the same results as the statement above. The means of whites (2.03) and the means of non-whites (1.57) give a p value of 0.000 when compared which is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

Responses to the statement "human trafficking is more of a law enforcement issue than a social service issue" indicate that there is a statistically significant difference at the 0.01 level. The comparison of the means of whites (3.25) and non-whites (3.99) has a p value of 0.000 which means that the relationship is not due to chance.

A comparison of the means of whites (3.44) and non-whites (1.71) for the statement, "human trafficking is strictly limited to our ability to control illegal immigration in the U.S." indicates a statistically significant difference exists between the responses of whites and non-whites. That is, a p value of 0.000 was found.

In regards to the statement "there should be more effort by law enforcement to combat human trafficking", a comparison of the means of whites (2.08) and non-whites (3.88) indicates a statistical significance at the 0.01 level. That is, the p value of 0.000 was found.

The final statement that relates to the perception of students towards human trafficking also shows a p value of 0.000. The comparison of the means of whites (3.22) and non-whites (3.70) indicates that the relationship is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.
4.4 Training

This section is intended to show how students responded to the two questions regarding human trafficking and training. The responses received indicate that there are very few students (11%) from this study who have had experience in dealing with human trafficking. There are also very few students (8%) who have received training on human trafficking. The responses included in table 7 below.

Table 7. Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In my profession, I have dealt with human trafficking.</td>
<td>12 (11%)</td>
<td>17 (16%)</td>
<td>79 (73%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have received training in human trafficking.</td>
<td>9 (8%)</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
<td>89 (82%)</td>
<td>108 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.1 Training while Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

The table below represents the analysis of the responses to questions on training and human trafficking. There were only two questions for this category. Both questions showed similar results.

Table 8. Training while Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables for Training Questions</th>
<th>White (mean)</th>
<th>Non-White (mean)</th>
<th>P-Value (Sig 2-tail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In my profession, I have dealt with human trafficking.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have received training in human trafficking.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.756</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Statistical Significance at the 0.05 level

With regards to the statement, “in my profession, I have dealt with human trafficking”, results from a comparison of the means between whites (4.06) and non-whites (4.14) showed no statistical significance. That is, the p value was of 0.529.
A comparison of the means of whites (4.31) and non-whites (4.28) for the statement "I have received training in human trafficking" also fails to show a statistical significance. The p-value for this comparison was of 0.756.
CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION

The findings of the research show the differences between the perceptions of white and non-white criminology and criminal justices students in regards to human trafficking. The purpose of this study is to measure the perception, while controlling for race and ethnicity, towards human trafficking in 2012. A survey was distributed to a sample of 108 criminology and criminal justice students at the University of Texas at Arlington in order to measure the perception of the students.

The overall outcome of the study shows that without controlling for race/ethnicity, most students were in agreement in regards to their knowledge and perception of human trafficking. Also, the responses indicate a consistency with the literature review. However; as chapter 4 suggests, while controlling for race/ethnicity, there are some differences in the way that white and non-white students responded.

The biggest differences were found in the questions pertaining to the student's perception of human trafficking. All of the questions pertaining to the student's perception showed that there are statistically significant differences between white respondents and non-white respondents. In addition, these differences were found to be at the 0.01 confidence level which means that there is a 99% chance that the differences were not due to chance alone.

The scaled used for the study used the number 1 to represent strongly agree, and number 5 to represent strongly disagree. For the questions pertaining to knowledge, most of the responses for white students had smaller means, while most responses for non-white students had large means. This shows that whites tended to agree with the questions that pertained to
knowledge, while most non-whites tended to disagree with the same questions. Also, for questions pertaining to perception, four of the six questions showed that white students tended to lean towards agree, while non-white students tended to lean more towards disagree.

5.1 Implications of Research

The findings of the research conducted at the University of Texas at Arlington have a few implications. For one, the findings reveal that there is an overall agreement in regards to knowledge of human trafficking. However; after controlling for race and ethnicity, results indicate that there are quite a few differences in responses between white and non-white respondents.

The differences in responses between whites and non-whites are seen by looking at the responses to the questions pertaining to the individual's knowledge and perception of human trafficking. These differences imply that there is a need to further research why those differences exist. In addition, it is also implied by the findings that there is a need to further education on human trafficking.

Based on the findings, white and non-white respondents have a number of differences in regards to their perception of human trafficking. That is, most items vary in the degree of response even though; most items are on the same end of the scale. However; there are some statistically significant differences. It is the researcher's opinion that a difference in culture, race, and exposure shapes the views people have towards crime. Perhaps the findings indicate that there are cultural and racial divisions in opinion between whites and non-whites towards human trafficking. This could be an explanation for the differences in opinion between white and non-white students.

Since the differences are statistically significant, it can be recommended that the government should implement a method of educating people on human trafficking and ensure this is done in a culturally sensitive manner. Designing a culturally sensitive method of training
and educating people on human trafficking ensures that all have an equal chance of understanding. Furthermore, since the study was conducted on a university campus, policy makers should also consider implementing culturally sensitive classes on human trafficking for all college campuses.

5.2 Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

It is expected that this research on human trafficking will make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of criminology and criminal justice. While there have been many research studies on human trafficking, there are none that have been conducted at the University of Texas at Arlington which measured the perception and knowledge of criminology and criminal justice students while controlling for race/ethnicity.

Historically, there have been more whites than non-whites who work in law enforcement (T. Bowman, personal communication). While this may be true, it has been found that there are some law enforcement agencies are trying to hire more non-white individuals in order to make the population of law enforcement officers more diverse (T. Bowman, personal communication). The reason law enforcement agencies are increasing the number of non-white officers is because there is a need for law enforcement to be more representative of the general population in terms of race and ethnicity (T. Bowman, personal communication). Since the majority of students in this study are enrolled in criminology and criminal justice classes, it is expected that many of them will pursue a career in criminal justice.

5.3 Limitations of Research

It is important to note that there are some limitations to the research in the current research study. First of all, the researcher acknowledges that the study is limited to students at the University of Texas at Arlington who were enrolled in criminology and criminal justice classes during the time of the study and cannot be generalized to any other population. Also,
although the university selected for this study is known for its diversity in regards to the student population, it is important to note that most of the students claim to be from Texas. Additionally, there are some students selected for the study may not have all been criminology and criminal justice majors. Also, the research was drawn from a convenience sample rather than a random sample which increases the chance for selection bias. The size of the sample was rather small, which increases the chance of an error in the sample. In addition, the number of students who were white was not equal to the number of students who were non-white.

5.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Since the study is strictly limited to the population sampled, it would be ideal for future research on this topic to be conducted on other campuses throughout the United States. This would be useful to see whether white and non-white students in other areas have similar differences in perception. Since Texas is known as a conservative state, a measure of the perceptions of students in a more liberal state may reveal other differences. In addition to college campuses, it would be beneficial to also conduct research in business, churches and in other areas in order to gauge the general perception and knowledge of human trafficking.

It can be argued that while knowledge that human trafficking exists throughout the world is important, it is also important for people to be knowledgeable enough to know when to spot a potential human trafficking crime. When citizens know how to detect a crime, they have a greater chance of reporting the crime to the proper authorities. According to a website of a non-governmental organization ( Traffick911), the signs of a child trafficking victim are similar to that of a runaway who lives on the streets. Some children are malnourished, date older men who are abusive, and appear untrusting of adults (Traffick911).

The knowledge of human trafficking can lead to the report of human trafficking crime. The importance of this study is to measure the knowledge and perception of human trafficking. The results of this study can be useful in determining how to focus future research and future
education on this topic. As stated in an International Policing class at the University of Texas at Arlington, "homeland security depends on hometown security" (T. Bowman, personal communication, 2012). The more people know about crime in their hometown, the more likely they are to report the crime. When crime is reported, law enforcement takes action to combat the crime. An increase in crime reports can lead to an increase in security for our homeland (T. Bowman, personal communication, 2012).
APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT
U.S. Human Trafficking Survey Instrument

Most of the following questions pertain to the U.S. unless otherwise noted.

1. Human trafficking and sex trafficking are different things.

2. Human trafficking mostly occurs between the Mexico and the United States.

3. Human trafficking is not much of a problem in Northern Texas.

4. Sex trafficking and prostitution are not related.

5. Most people who become victims of sex trafficking are adults.

6. Human trafficking is a worldwide problem.

7. Females are the majority of the human trafficking victims.

8. In my profession, I have dealt with human trafficking.

9. I have received training in human trafficking.

10. Human trafficking is best handled by law enforcement.

11. Children are rarely victims of human trafficking in the U.S.
12. Human trafficking victims primarily involves individuals from countries other than Latin America and Mexico.

13. We need better policies and legislation in the U.S. in order to provide better assistance for victims of human trafficking.

14. Human trafficking is more of a law enforcement issue than a social services issue.

15. Human trafficking is strictly limited to our ability to control illegal immigration in the U.S.

16. There should be more effort by law enforcement to combat human trafficking.

17. It is easier to catch a human trafficker than it is to catch a white collar criminal.

18. Human trafficking is not considered by law enforcement as being a highly organized crime.

19. What is your gender?

20. What is your classification?

21. What is your age?

22. How long have you lived in Texas?

23. Do you consider yourself to be from any of the following states?

24. If you were not born in the U.S. where were you born? (skip to question 25 if from the U.S.)

6. Middle East  7. Other Country

25. What is your racial background?

6. Other

26. What religion do you practice?

APPENDIX B

STATEMENT READ BEFORE THE COMPLETION OF THE SURVEY
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR

Jennifer Jones  
Criminal Justice/Criminology  
Jennifer.Burttschell@mavs.uta.edu

FACULTY ADVISOR  
Dr. Alejandro del Carmen  
Criminal Justice/Criminology  
adelcarmen@uta.edu

To be read aloud prior to passing out the survey:
This study is being conducted through the Criminology and Criminal Justice Program at UTA. It is aimed at measuring society's current perceptions of human trafficking by conducting an in-class survey from Criminal Justice/Criminology undergraduate and graduate students. This survey is strictly voluntary and anonymous. You are not required to participate in this project and you have the right to terminate this survey at any point before its completion. There are no risks associated with participation in the survey. You will personally receive no direct benefit as a result of completing the survey. The potential benefit of the research is increased understanding how education influences society's current perceptions of human trafficking. The findings of this study may be used as supporting data for several research articles that will be submitted for publication in academic journals.

If you have any questions or research-related problems at any time, you may contact Jennifer Jones at Jennifer.Burttschell@mavs.uta.edu or Dr. Alejandro del Carmen at adelcarmen@uta.edu. Any questions you may have about your rights as a research participant or a research-related injury may be directed to the Office of Research Administration; Regulatory Services at 817-272-2105 or regulatoryservices@uta.edu.
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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Jennifer Jones obtained an Associates of Arts Degree in International Studies from Northwest Vista College in San Antonio, TX and a Bachelor of Arts in Criminology and Criminal Justice at the University of Texas at Arlington in 2008. Latter, she earned a Master of Arts in Criminology and Criminal Justice. She has volunteered as a facilitator at the WARM Place where she worked directly with children who were grieving the loss of a loved one. She has worked as an intern for the U.S. Postal Inspection Service and is pursuing a career in Federal Law Enforcement.