HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN DALLAS: AN ASSESSMENT OF LOCAL LAW
ENFORCEMENT TRAINING, AWARENESS, AND EFFECTIVENESS
IN RECOGNIZING VICTIMS

by

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First, I must express my most profound gratitude to my God, who has been the source of my strength, knowledge, and success, and without whom all this would have been impossible.

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Abstract

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The purpose of this study was to examine the training, awareness, and effectiveness of a local law enforcement agency in recognizing victims of human trafficking. The research questions of this study were: are local law enforcement officers able to recognize victims of human trafficking during their beat, and does time in service effect their ability to recognize victims. This research study was conducted as a blind study, and provided a sample of local law enforcement officers with a self-administered survey that evaluated their perceptions of recognizing human trafficking victims. The officers' effectiveness in recognizing the victims was evaluated by whether they were able to determine the person in question as a potential human trafficking victim. The ANOVA analysis was performed in order to evaluate the effect of years of experience in the field on the ability of the officers to recognize human trafficking victims. The results of this study showed that there were no significant statistical differences found in the officers' ability to recognize human trafficking victims based on their years of experience. The findings of this study should be considered in light of this study's limitations.

Table of Contents

List of Illustrations

List of Tables

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Human Trafficking

Most people tend to associate human trafficking with an image of the victims

being transported across borders in other countries. However, the United States is

estimated to have from a low range of 14,000 to over 300,000 such victims (Brennan,

2005; Cianciarulo, 2008; Polaris Project, n.d.; Rieger, 2007; Tyldum & Brunovskis, 2005).

According to Butler (2012), the United States is also a major destination for these victims,

receiving approximately 50,000 such women and children each year. In fact, the United

States was found to be only the second to Mexico in the number of victims and

perpetrators of human trafficking (Farrell, McDevitt, & Fahy, 2008). This kind of

trafficking is not only a big concern in the United States generally, it is also a major

problem in the state of Texas itself, which is estimated to receive approximately 25% of

the human trafficking victims (Butler, 2012). Approximately 30% of the phone calls made

to The National Human Trafficking Hotline were received from victims and witnesses in

Texas (Butler, 2012). The United States Department of Justice (DOJ) has declared

several specific Texas cities (including Dallas, Houston, and El Paso) as the reproduction

grounds for trafficking, and has therefore funded five National Human Trafficking Task

Forces in this state (Butler, 2012). However, it is crucial to keep in mind that these

statistics are only estimates and do not accurately reflect the actual number of victims,

because human trafficking is an unseen large-scale trade that takes place secretly in

homes or in the guise of legitimate businesses (Wilson, Walsh, & Kleuber, 2006).

It cannot be emphasized enough that human trafficking is not only a crime that

involves taking victims against their wills from their families, but is also a crime against

humanity that strips away the victims' freedom and demoralizes them by enslaving them

1

to cruel and dehumanizing working conditions. Furthermore, victims are often repeatedly raped, deprived of basic human needs, severely beaten, and are still expected to perform hard labor under these conditions. They are often used for the commercial sex industry (such as prostitution, pornography, strip dancing, escort services, etc.) or enforced into labor with little or no pay (such as domestic, restaurant, factory workers, etc.). Additionally, these victims are prevented from escaping because they are either kept in severely restricted environments or are instilled with such fear of law enforcement officials that they would not dare seek their help. In short, even though many people consider human slavery as a phenomenon of the past, not only does it still exist, it has become one of the three largest criminal enterprises worldwide (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [HHS], 2010).

A holistic approach, by the federal, state, local and even non-governmental organizations, is crucial in combating this hidden crime. The federal government has made significant efforts in this connection, including the enactment of legislation to provide resources for law enforcement and victim service agencies to help them recognize and assist victims, and to prosecute traffickers (Farrell et al., 2008). In addition to their own efforts, the federal government officials have clearly recognized the crucial role of local law enforcement agencies in recognizing the victims of human trafficking (de Baca & Tisi, 2002; Braun, 2007). Interviews with senior federal law enforcement officials indicate that the local law enforcement agencies are in the best position to identify such trafficking cases because of their knowledge of their own communities, and their engagement in routine activities that bring them into contact with both the local criminal elements, who might also be involved in the human trafficking crimes (Clawson, Dutch, & Cummings, 2006), and the victims of such trafficking as well. While the federal government has pointed out the critical role of local law enforcement in the recognition

and investigation of such crimes, there is not much information however about either the recognition of the problem by local law enforcements agencies themselves, or their preparation and ability to recognize the trafficking victims (Farrell et al., 2008). According to Cross (2013), local law enforcement agencies are not only unsuccessful in recognizing victims of human trafficking, they actually treat the victims as criminals because of their unawareness and inability to recognize them as victims. Thus the victims are subjected to dual victimization, first by the perpetrators of human trafficking and then by the law enforcement officials. The law enforcement officials often fail to recognize the victims' predicament because of confusing definitions of, and even misconceptions associated with, human trafficking and its prevalence in the United States, and also because of their lack of training in recognizing such victims (Cross, 2013). In addition, while many law enforcement agencies are now beginning to receive at least some training regarding human trafficking, there is a huge gap in research for the effectiveness of the training they receive.

Because of the seriousness of this crime, and the criticality of the role played by the local law enforcement agencies in recognizing such victims, this study aims to fill some gap in research and to evaluate the training, awareness, and effectiveness of a local law enforcement agency in Texas in recognizing victims of human trafficking. This research study aims to achieve its goal by surveying current local law enforcement officers, and by making recommendations to improve the perceptions of human trafficking victims for victim identification and future research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Human Trafficking

A common misconception regarding the definition of human trafficking is that it involves transporting victims across borders against their wills; however, it is much broader than that simple classification, particularly with modern day human trafficking that is occurring in many forms. It is often believed that the trafficking victims are always legally or illegally brought into another country (Logan, Walker, & Hunt, 2009), when in fact it can also occur domestically. Because of these common misconceptions, it is vital to first conceptualize what human trafficking entails and how it is officially defined. The United Nations Protocol (2004) defined human trafficking as:

> The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation or the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs. (p. 42).

Human trafficking consists of three constituent elements including, the act (what is done), the means (how it is done), and the purpose (why it is done) (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], n.d.). The act can be recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons (UNODC, n.d.). The means can consist of threat or use of force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or vulnerability, giving of payments or benefits to an individual in control of the victim (UNODC, n.d.).

4

Lastly, the purpose can include exploitation, prostitution, sexual exploitation, forced labor, slavery or similar practices, removal of organs, or other types of exploitation (UNODC, n.d.). In order to determine whether a case constitutes as human trafficking, the definition along with these three elements needs to be taken into consideration (UNODC, n.d.).

According to Farrell et al. (2008), the Trafficking Victims Violence Prevention Act of 2000 (TVPA) divided human trafficking in the United States into two main categories: sex trafficking and labor trafficking; and it defined human trafficking generally as:

> The recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for one of the three following purposes:
>
> - Labor or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery.
>
> - A commercial sex act through the use of force, fraud, or coercion; or
>
> - Sex trafficking in which a commercial sex act is induced by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform such act has not attained 18 years of age (p. 12).

Under this definition, juveniles do not have to be induced by force, fraud, or coercion to be considered victims, but are considered as such by their involvement in anything benefiting a third party (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Additionally, violations that fit under these definitions can include a variety of services such as domestic services, construction, migrant laboring, and manufacturing (Farrell et al., 2008).

The state of Texas enacted its own trafficking legislation and defined human trafficking as follows:

5

Person commits an offense if the person knowingly: 1) trafficks another person with the intent or knowledge that the trafficked person will engage in forced labor or services; or 2) benefits from participating in a venture that involves an activity described as Subdivision (1), including by receiving labor or services the person knows are forced labor or services (Pennartz, 2011, p.4).

Human trafficking is often misunderstood and confused with the movement of people, including migrant smuggling, which poses challenges for law enforcement agencies and service providers to accurately distinguish between the two, and makes it complicated to disrupt trafficking networks (Farrell et al., 2008). The U.S. Department of State (DOS, 2004) distinguished between trafficking and smuggling by focusing on the final destination of the individual, with smuggling involving the transportation, facilitation, or illegal entry across international border of a consenting individual for profit, while trafficking does not involve the consent of the victim. In migrant smuggling, the relationship between the individual and the transporter ends upon reaching the final destination, whereas the relationship does not end and is often only the first phase of the crime in human trafficking (Logan et al., 2009), if transportation is involved. Even if the individual initially consents, the consent can later on be overreached by deceptive, coercive, and abusive actions of traffickers, thus the key factors that differentiate trafficking from smuggling are force, fraud, or coercion (U.S. DOS, 2004, p.18). The critical point to recognize is that it is not the movement or transportation of the individual itself, but the force, fraud, or coercion applied by the trafficker on an individual to perform services, which constitutes as trafficking (U.S. DOS, 2005). The term "traffic" means to either transport, entice, recruit, harbor, or provide (Butler, 2012). While transportation of an individual is not a necessary element of human trafficking (Renzetti, Bush, Castellanos, & Hunt, 2015), since the trafficking victims do not have to be geographically

moved across any borders to be exploited for labor or sex trafficking (Wilson & Dalton, 2008), it should to be noted that most well-organized human trafficking operations involve both components of transportation, as well as fees charged for the transportation, as a means to entrap people in debt bondage (Logan et al., 2009).

Another common misconception among Americans is that human trafficking occurs in either other countries, or to foreigners who should have known better, or to people who bring it upon themselves (Human Trafficking & Smuggling Center, 2008). In fact, however, this crime takes place in any country, including the United States, to citizens in every state at an alarming rate (Human Trafficking & Smuggling Center, 2008). When Americans hear about a trafficking victim, they typically tend to think that it must be a foreign female, who must have been deceived upon arrival in the United States and lured into sex trafficking, but they cannot even imagine that such trafficking involves American children or adults, who are lured from home and forced to prostitute at a truck stop (Human Trafficking & Smuggling Center, 2008). Even though foreigners, whether they are legally or illegally in the United States, are more susceptible to human trafficking, many United States citizens are also victims of this crime, since traffickers hunt for the most vulnerable people, such as those who might be desperate, young, or easily manipulated (Human Trafficking & Smuggling Center, 2008). Unfortunately, instead of acknowledging trafficking victims as victims, the United States citizens tend to refer to trafficking victims as criminals, prostitutes, runaways, child prostitutes, juvenile delinquents, addicts, or throwaways, while referring to the traffickers only as pimps, perpetrators or criminals.

2.2 Prevalence of Human Trafficking

Before reviewing the statistics and estimates of human trafficking in the United States, it is highly important to keep certain facts in mind. While there have been

attempts made to estimate the prevalence of human trafficking, it is extremely difficult to determine the reliability and validity of these statistics because of the hidden nature of the crime and lack of empirical validation (Farrell et al., 2008). The crime has a clandestine nature because both the traffickers and the victims are hidden populations, since the traffickers deliberately hide their activity from public view, service providers, and law enforcement, while the trafficking victims attempt to hide out of fear of retaliation by the perpetrators, or re-victimization by the criminal justice system which might arrest or deport them (Renzetti et al., 2015). Trafficking victims may recognize their actions and behaviors to be illegal, a belief that is also reinforced by the traffickers, and as a result may not identify themselves as victims (Renzetti et al., 2015). Furthermore, it is impossible to get reliable and valid data because of the challenges in correctly identifying incidents of human trafficking (Farrell et al., 2008). Moreover, the victims may be unaware of their rights and the availability of services and protection for them (Logan et al., 2009; Macy & Graham, 2012). Even though research is attempting to focus on these estimates to analyze policy responses to the problem, it is also limited because of a lack of consensus on what constitutes as human trafficking (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). In addition, most research on the subject tends to focus more on the victims than on the traffickers, clients and law enforcement agencies (Andrees & van der Linden, 2005). Finally, scholars on this subject attribute this gap in estimates of the number of official trafficking cases and trafficking victims to law enforcement's lack of training in effectively identifying possible trafficking cases (Farrell, McDevitt, & Fahy, 2010; Gallagher & Holmes, 2008; Wilson et al., 2006). Because of all these factors, there has been less agreement regarding the definite prevalence with the various estimates (Renzetti et al., 2015).

According to the International Labor Office (ILO, 2012) there are approximately 21 million victims of labor trafficking worldwide, with 18.7 million (90%) exploited in private economy, of which 4.5 million (22%) are victims of sexual exploitation, and 14.2 million (68%) are victims of forced labor in economic activities, including construction, domestic work, manufacturing, or agriculture. Individuals of all ages and genders are vulnerable, with estimates of up to 5.5 million (26%) below the age of 18 years, 45% of female victims, and 55% of male victims being used for purposes of forced labor, and 98% of females and 2% of males being used for commercial sexual exploitation (ILO, 2012). According to the U.S. DOJ (2004) approximately 600,000-800,000 victims are estimated to be trafficked internationally annually, of which approximately 14,500-17,500 are estimated to be trafficked into the United States every year (Miko, 2004). It is approximated that 600,000-800,000 victims are of the transnational nature (U.S. DOS, 2007), but accounting for those that are exploited within their own borders account for up to 2.3 million (U.S. DOS, 2010). The United States is approximated to have anywhere from a low range of 14,000 to over 300,000 victims of human trafficking (Brennan, 2005; Cianciarulo, 2006, Polaris Project, n.d.; Rieger, 2007; Tyldum & Brunouskis, 2005). According to Butler (2012), over 50,000 women and children are brought into the United States each year for sex trafficking. According to Polaris Project report (2015) there were potentially 5,544 cases reported by the National Human Trafficking Resource Center (who received 21,947 calls, 1,535 webforms, and 1,275 emails), 177 cases reported by BeFree Textline (who received 1472 text messages), more than 1,600 survivors reached out for help in the year 2015, and human trafficking occurred in all 50 states. Of these cases, approximately 75% constituted sex trafficking, 13% labor trafficking, 3% both sex and labor trafficking, and 9% non-specified trafficking (Polaris Project, 2015). Out of the 25,696 total cases of human trafficking reported from 2007-2015, 8,676 involved U.S.

citizens (Polaris Project, 2015). The top three sex trafficking venues were commercial front brothel, hotel/motel-based brothels, and residential brothels; while the top three labor trafficking industries were domestic work, traveling sales crews, and restaurant/food services (Polaris Project, 2015).

The United States has been considered the most frequent destination for human trafficking from Latin America and the Caribbean, as well as one of the top three destinations for victims from Asia; however, because of the hidden nature of the crime, it is challenging to ascertain which countries are the primary sources for trafficking victims to the United States (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). According to Clawson, Small, Go, and Myles (2003), victims that are trafficked to United States are most likely from third-world countries with high rates of poverty, violence, and corruption that increase the probability of the country for becoming a source of trafficking victims. The most common form of human trafficking within the United States is sex trafficking, and such domestic sex trafficking most commonly involves minors (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). According to UNODC (2006), domestic food care services, garment and agricultural slavery makes up approximately 46.2% of trafficking cases in the United States.

Approximately 25% of all trafficking victims in the United States are found in Texas, and by far most of these victims in Texas are U.S. citizens (Butler, 2012). The National Human Trafficking Hotline approximately received 30% of phone calls made by victims or witnesses from Texas (Butler, 2012). The U.S. DHHS (2010) also estimated that 25% of non-American victims were trafficked somewhere in Texas. The state of Texas has become a major center of domestic child sex trafficking (Butler, 2012). A report by the Dallas Women's Foundation estimated that approximately 700 minors were featured for sexual services on the internet during a month period from Dallas alone (Butler, 2012). The geographical position of Texas, because it shares a larger

10

international border with Mexico than any other state in the country (Pennartz, 2011), makes it a hot spot for human trafficking. Houston is considered a hub and gateway for human trafficking, because of its proximity to the Mexican border, and its national airports and seaports, as well as it typically holding major sporting events and national conventions, provide the perfect supply and demand for sex trafficking (Office of the Attorney General, 2008). The U.S. DOJ has recognized Highway I-10 as the travel route used most heavily for human trafficking victims, accounting for approximately one in five victims passing through Texas (Shared Hope International, 2011).

Apart from the variability in statistics, there is also an extensive gap between the number of officially investigated and prosecuted cases, and the estimates of trafficking victims from data of provided services (Renzetti et al., 2015). According to the U.S. DOS (2013) there were less than 2500 human trafficking cases investigated by the federal law enforcement agencies and taskforces, while only 128 federal trafficking prosecutions were initiated against the 200 defendants who were charged in 2012. According to Wilson & Dalton (2008), some of the factors that can impede the investigation and prosecution of human trafficking case include: lack of awareness, training, resources, policies, desire to protect prostitutes, and distinction between the juvenile justice and child welfare systems. Reports from the DHHS (2009), which allows victims of trafficking to be eligible for federal and state benefits, indicated that 286 foreign adults were certified in 2008 alone. Of these 286 individuals, 23% were from Mexico, 19.5% were from Thailand, 16% were from Philippines, 4% were from Korea, and 2.7% were from China (DHHS, 2009).

Human trafficking has become second to the trade of illegal drugs in criminal enterprises (Butler 2012), with 90% of the victims being women and girls (Butler, 2012). The federal law enforcement officials project the approximate profits from human

trafficking to be $9.5 billion a year, with which other criminal activities are supported (U.S. DOS, 2006). It is estimated by the U.S. Government Accounting Office that over 500,000 children are trafficked for labor each year in the U.S. (Buter, 2012). Nine out of ten law enforcement respondents in a study also indicated that human trafficking is connected to other criminal networks (Farrell, McDevitt, & Fahy, 2007).

2.3 Characteristics & Forms of Human Trafficking

The comprehension of the processes via which human trafficking victimization occurs, and the characteristics of the victims, is limited (Farrell et al., 2008). Most information is acquired from anecdotal accounts, some qualitative research, and applications of theoretical frameworks from research in other areas of criminal justice system (Brennan, 2005). Reports by non-governmental organizations are a great source for information, but they typically do not involve a peer-reviewed process and have thus been considered subjective (Bales, 2005), and fail to provide a basis of concrete information (Farrell et al., 2008). Despite the lack of information, it is vital to have an understanding about the characteristics and forms of human trafficking from the limited information that is available (Farrell et al., 2008).

Labor exploitation involves forced labor and debt bondage, while sexual exploitation includes compulsory sex acts in the commercial sex industry; however, sexual exploitation in private homes by traffickers who demand work and sex are categorized under labor exploitation by law (Logan et al., 2009). Hepburn and Simon (2010) examined human trafficking in 25 nations and found that, while each country had its own environmental factors that contributed to a unique set of anti-trafficking obstacles (for example, in the United States, trafficking cannot be discussed without the mention of immigration), the characteristics of human trafficking are very similar worldwide. The common characteristics of human trafficking, regardless of the nation it occurs in, are:

12

fraudulent recruitment of victims, inflated fees for travel, placement in debt bondage, withholding of victims' visas or identification documents, deportation threats, control and limitation of victims' movements, and threats to harm the victims or their families (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). Research has indicated that the victims are often recruited or lured, rather than abducted (Newman, 2006). Some of the tactics for recruiting the victims of sex trafficking include promises of a glamorous lifestyle, and promises of opportunities for victims of labor trafficking (Wilson & Dalton, 2008).

Victims of sex trafficking may often be initially recruited for the hotel and tourism industries, but end up working in commercial sex establishments, such as brothels and massage parlors (U.S. DOS, 2004). The sex trafficking rings appear to operate in a similar fashion, in which victims are rotated among motels, truck stops, or highway welcome centers, as well as conventions, sporting events, or cathouses (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Victims are also trafficked under temporary entertainment or artistic visas that are seized from them upon arrival at their destination (U.S. DOS, 2004). Most victims are deceived by false promises of economic opportunities in affluent countries, and some are exploited by traffickers immediately by being charged fees for such promised employment, transportation, and housing (Clawson et al., 2003), and are forced to work prolonged hours with little or no pay (Wilson & Dalton, 2008).

In an analysis of previous research and reports from various sources on the various sectors of human trafficking in the United States, Logan et al. (2009) found that the major types of trafficking consisted of sex work (23%-66%, prostitution and commercial sex), other sex-work-related activities (3%-30%, exotic dancing, pornography, entertainment), domestic labor (7%-45%), personal service (1%-37%, domestic or sexual servitude, servile marriage), restaurant labor (9%-33%), and agricultural or other labor (10%-46%), as well as other activities, such as begging or

trinket selling, and food industry. It is also important to note that sometimes the line

between human trafficking and domestic violence can be blurred in terms of personal

service or servile marriage (Logan et al., 2009). Some areas of labor trafficking also

include hotel workers, nail salon workers, landscape and gardening laborers, casino

servers, Chinese acrobats (U.S. DOJ 2007), and even the magazine crew industry,

among other areas that have possibly not been identified yet (Logan et al., 2009).

The traffickers can even be prominent doctors or businessmen, who have

money, influence, and respect within their communities, as was found in Wilson and

Dalton's (2008) research in Toledo, Ohio. This study also found that labor traffickers

tended to work alone rather than with coconspirators, and that women, even the victims

themselves, played a role in recruiting other women and enforcing the rules of their

traffickers (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Labor costs are minimized for traffickers because

they pay victims little or no money at all, house them in unsanitary and crowded living

conditions, make them work for prolonged hours (Neville & Martinez, 2004), until they

become disposable and are of no further use to the traffickers (Logan et al., 2009).

Some studies in the United States have suggested that human traffickers typically

engage in a wide range of crimes against their victims, including rape, assault, homicide,

extortion, abduction, as well as crimes against others, such as money laundering,

document fraud, tax evasion, and corruption of public officials (Bales & Lize, 2005).

The relationship between the sex trafficking victims and their traffickers can be

complicated (Wilson & Dalton, 2008), as some victims have intimate relationships with

the traffickers who pimp them (Estes & Weiner, 2001). The scenario is typical where a

pimp befriends a runaway or homeless girl, initially spends money on her and pays

attention to her, but eventually convinces her to prostitute for money, thus making the

relationship more contractual and less emotional (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Studies have

suggested that some girls seek prostitution, perceiving it to be a glamorous lifestyle (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Often, the pimp will also father a victim's child, in order to deepen his control over the victim (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). The relationship between the victim and the trafficker in labor trafficking cases is not well known, but the trafficker is typically respected in the community (Wilson & Dalton, 2008).

The forms of coercion and obtaining control over the trafficking victims include stripping away their travel and identity documents, threatening to turn them to the police, and inflicting sexual or physical abuse, isolation, and debt bondage (Bales & Lize, 2005; Schauer & Wheaton, 2006). Sex traffickers often give victims new identities and command them to never disclose their real name or age to law enforcement officials or agencies (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Often the victims are beaten, and even murdered, as found in some cases where violence prompted official investigation that led to the discovery of major sex trafficking rings (Erb & de Boer, 2006). The powerful effects of the psychological coercion by the traffickers are considered to play a key role in the entrapment and continued enslavement of the victims (Kim, 2007; Logan, 2007).

Fear is the biggest reason that victims stay entrapped; other reasons are lack of knowledge regarding alternatives, isolation, and physical and psychological confinement (Logan et al., 2009). Fear can include a number of things, such as of physical or sexual violence, inflicted pain, deformity or permanent injury, harm to family members, and of law enforcement, for example, that one might be deported, prosecuted, incarcerated or suffer other legal consequences such as lost custody of children, etc. (Logan et al., 2009). The fear factor is complex; therefore, it can be a combination of above fears, rather than of any single threat (Logan et al., 2009). The victims' lack of knowledge about available services is often due to their beliefs that they do not have any choice but to stay enslaved (Logan et al., 2009). This belief, in turn, can be due to inability to speak

the native language or poor language skills, causing an inability to learn when exposed to news or other sources of information, or lack of awareness about institutions offering help (Logan et al., 2009).

Isolation is another frequently used tactic used by traffickers to limit victims' contact with family and outsiders, as is lack of transportation, which creates dependence on the trafficker (Logan et al., 2009). The traffickers confine the victims psychologically by taking control of the their money and legal documents, imposing debt bondage, exorbitant charges and interest rates, and even using drugs or alcohol as inducements for compliance (Logan et al., 2009; Logan, 2008; Raphael & Ashley, 2008; Raymond et al., 2002; Zimmerman, 2003; Zimmerman et al., 2006). The traffickers may also confine the victims psychologically by degradation and abuse, threats to shame victims and expose their conditions to their family, their particular community or cultural groups, or the public at large (Logan et al., 2009). For example, in one case, a woman was raped, and the trafficker used cultural and religious shame tactics to blackmail her into slavery (Logan, 2007).

The alarming factor in human trafficking situations is that the victims can become so adapted to slavery that their instincts of fight or flight become stifled, because they feel that their situation is impossible to change (Logan et al., 2009). Such adaptation makes this kind of entrapment the most harmful type for physical and mental health (Gilbert, 2000). In their attempts to change their situation and make it less threatening, victims sometimes negotiate for money, better living conditions or gaining favors (Batstone, 2007; Florida State University, 2003), even for little things such as a radio or magazines, just to make their situation tolerable (Logan et al., 2009). But even such attempts to improve their situation may involve great risks, such as getting locked in a closet for 15 days, as was the instance in one case (Logan et al., 2009). Again, fear plays a

16

significant role in imposing constraints on thinking and decision-making, which further helps explain why victims do not escape even when they have an opportunity to do so (Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, & Welch, 2001; Logan, Walker, Cole, & Leukefeld, 2006).

Cognitive changes often occur in victims after their behavioral submission, and may become narrowed or distracted (Clawson, Dutch, & Wiliamson, 2008), which also occurs when all of one's energy is focused on survival (Gross, 1998a, 1998b). Cognitive changes can also occur in other ways, such as distraction, attention shifting, reappraising the situation to rationalize the situation, minimizing harm, justifying, or simply accepting the situation, in an attempt to perceive it in a way that minimizes its emotional impact (Gross, 1998a, 1998b). The victimization can also result in the form of mental defeat, which is the perception of losing all autonomy and efforts to retain an identity, leading to total subordination, as if one was merely an object, and even in one's losing the will to live (Ehlers, Maercker, & Boos, 2000).

2.4 Reasons for the Existence of This Crime

One of the reasons for the existence of commercial sexual exploitation is because of the lack of regulation within the sex industry in the United States (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). Even though prostitution is illegal in all states (except Nevada), strip clubs and pornography are legal and highly unregulated (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). This is a concerning fact, since strip clubs are often used as a front for prostitution, and pornography often uses trafficked persons as subjects (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). The CIA has estimated that approximately 50,000 women and children are trafficked annually throughout the United States for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation, which occurs in the forms of prostitution, stripping, live sex shows, and pornography (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). Pornography is highly pervasive in the United States, making up to 10 billion dollars a year, and linked with some of the biggest Untied States corporations

17

(including Time Warner, Westin, Hilton, AT&T and Marriott), making tens of millions of dollar per year in distribution (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). According to Kotrla (2010), one of the problems in recognizing the victims is the culture of tolerance and the difficulty in defining what the sex trafficking industry looks like. The United States is found to be one of the four major countries containing major commercial sex markets, which flourish because of its culture of tolerance that tends to favor the growth of sex trafficking markets (Shared Hope International, n.d. -a). According to Kotrla (2010), this culture of tolerance - which glamorizes pimping, prostituting, and involves aspects of daily life, such as clothing, television, games, songs, and a majority of other types of entertainment - plays a major role in normalizing and promoting commercial sex in the United States. Such a normalization and cultural tolerance serves to make it difficult to recognize sex trafficking victims, whose actions or predicament might be seen as 'normal', 'consensual', or even 'cool', as being a pimp is considered by some to be 'cool' (Shared Hope International, n.d. -a), instead of recognizing these practices as demoralizing and victimizing. The demand for commercial sex is so high that traffickers have also abducted children and applied other tactics to meet the demand and profit from others (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). For example, in 2008, a twelve-year old runaway was taken by a twenty-two year old man in Dallas, and was forced to work as a prostitute and also dance at a Dallas strip club (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). Commercial sex businesses, as well as numerous websites, support the demand for sex, blatantly posting pictures of minors for sexual services (Butler, 2012).

Lawlessness and high demands for cheap labor, especially in the aftermath of natural disasters, create an atmosphere for human trafficking (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). For example, labor trafficking began within two months in the aftermath of the Katrina and Rita hurricanes (Hepburn & Simon, 2010). Extreme poverty is the single most important

18

vulnerability for becoming a victim of human trafficking; and poverty is the most common factor especially among immigrant victims, who may lack even the basic means of survival and are therefore most vulnerable to promises of livelihood, so they can escape their dire plight (Logan et al., 2009). However, according to Bales (2005), viewing vulnerability in terms of poverty is more complex than just viewing it alone, since vulnerability tends to be a mixture of poverty, level of civil unrest, violence in community, cultural acceptance of trafficking, and corruption in local governments. Logan (2007) also found that personal characteristics, lack of education or knowledge about legal rights, and cultural factors can also increase a victim's vulnerability or acceptance of trafficking as part of their new culture. Moreover, Logan et al. (2009) found that being female, young, healthy, and strong were also vulnerability factors (Logan et al., 2009). Some reports indicated that the victim's isolation, use of substances, or poor decision-making skills also increased vulnerability (Logan et al., 2009).

Victims are typically trafficked in three ways: born into slavery; kidnapped, sold or physically forced; or are tricked (Bales, 1999). Some families may have been in debt bondage or in slavery for generations (Skinner, 2008), while some are sold by parents in hopes of getting financial assistance for themselves as well as an opportunity for their children to have better education and better lives, all of which is usually promised by the traffickers (Bales, 1999, 2005). Another method of modern-day slavery is by trickery, where the victims are fooled into thinking they will be getting legitimate employment (Logan et al., 2009). Such trickery is accomplished by false documentation and contracts, such as childcare, domestic work, landscaping, or waitressing, and the victims do not realize that they have been tricked until they arrive at destination (Logan et al., 2009).

It is difficult to identify human trafficking victims for many reasons. What makes human trafficking different from other crimes is that it is more challenging to identify, because of the prejudice towards the victims, greater needs but fewer resources or services, greater fear and safety concerns, limitations in access to justice, and difficulty in prosecution because of the complexity of such cases (Logan et al., 2009). The difficulties in identification and prosecution of traffickers also makes this crime more profitable and less risky for the culprits (Logan et al., 2009). Moreover, murder investigations are less likely to be pursued because of the unknown identity of the victims, and lack of concerned families or witnesses (Logan et al., 2009). The prejudice and discrimination against immigrants, which is mainly facilitated by the media, leads many people to even believe that victims make up human trafficking stories just to obtain a visa (Logan, 2007; Logan et al., 2009).

Researchers have suggested three sources in helping to identify these victims (Logan et al., 2009). The first and most important source is law enforcement officers (Clawson et al., 2006; Logan, 2007). The second source is neighbors, customers, coworkers, or other members of communities (Clawson et al., 2006; Free the Slaves, 2004; Logan, 2007). The third and final source is social, medical or employment dispute services that victims might seek at some point (Free the Slaves, 2004; Logan, 2007). These sources that can help identify trafficking victims makes it vital to provide education and training in human trafficking to law enforcement agencies, as well as service providers and community members, so that they would all be aware of its existence and be able to recognize it when they come across it. They must all be taught and trained to recognize the red flags indicating cases of human trafficking (Logan et al., 2009). Such red flags include the individual's demeanor, story indicators, situational indicators, such as lack of English-speaking individuals in an establishment, frequent movement through

20

establishments, or high number of individuals housed in a private residence (Logan et al., 2009). In order to improve current responses to human trafficking, law enforcement officers and service providers must be trained to identify human trafficking victims, differentiate types of cases, know actions to be taken when coming in contact with victim or suspicious activity, as well as in specifics regarding TVPA (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Tailored training, such as training law enforcement officers on available programs and particular questions to investigate, can also help professionals to provide services in providing services to trafficking victims (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). The community at large can also assist by being educated about the crime that would improve their awareness and help intervene upon coming in contact with victims (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Law enforcement could also improve the detection and investigation of human trafficking cases, by increasing the number of personnel assigned to such cases (Wilson & Dalton, 2008).

This crime that takes away basic rights and dignity of human beings, by the use of force, fraud, or coercion, and often involving grueling work hours, physical, emotional and sexual abuse, is highly prevalent. However, there appears to be less governmental and policies related to human trafficking than there are on the legality of immigration and international terrorism (Logan et al., 2009). In fact, human trafficking receives little public outrage, as if the public does not even believe that such a practice could exist in our democracy (Logan et al., 2009).

2.5 Official Responses

The Trafficking Victims Violence Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA), Pub L. 106-386, was enacted by Congress as means to prevent human trafficking, protect the trafficking victims, as well as prosecute the traffickers (Braun, 2004). The United States federal government has prioritized the prosecution of human trafficking cases since 2008;

21

however, the cases are more likely to be brought to the federal prosecutors by local law enforcement, because the latter are in the best position to recognize and identify the victims, who are typically hidden in the communities served by the local law enforcement officers (Renzetti et al., 2015). Thus, it is the local police officer on the beat who is most likely to be the first official to come in contact with the trafficking victims (Wilson et al., 2006). It is because of their recognition of this critical role played by the local law enforcement agencies in being able to accurately identify such victims that the federal government has made the human trafficking training of the local law enforcement agencies its primary objective in the Federal Strategic Action Plan on Services for Victims of Human Trafficking in the United States, 2013-2017 (President's Interagency Task Force to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, 2014). However, the effectiveness of this training in improving local law enforcement officers' awareness and ability to identify human trafficking cases in their jurisdictions, has not been thoroughly researched and evaluated (Renzetti et al., 2015).

The United States has joined global initiatives to fight human trafficking by establishing federal victim-assistance and trafficking-prevention legislations (Wilson et al., 2006). The United States joined this international effort by supporting the Palermo Protocol (The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights [OHCHR], 2000) and by establishing TVPA (Grubb & Bennett, 2012). Even though these initiatives have been adopted on a global scale, it is imperative that the essence of such initiatives be adopted at all federal, state, and local levels in each nation, by enforcing the international legal standards through domestic and regional legislation (King, 2009).

The TVPA mandates yearly reports on anti-trafficking efforts within the United States, and provides statistics of arrests, prosecutions, and convictions in such cases (U.S. DOS, 2010). As of 2008, 29 states in the United States had enacted anti-trafficking

statues that provide local law enforcement agencies with the necessary tools to aid in the detection, arrest, and prosecution of traffickers, and in the provision of services to the victims (Schauer & Wheaton, 2006). By 2010, 43 states in the United States carried instituted criminal laws to combat this crime (Polaris Project, 2010), allowing prosecution at the state level by local, county, and state law enforcement agencies. However, many states do not mandate training of law enforcement personnel on human trafficking (Grubb & Bennett, 2012).

The State of Texas has responded to the call by enacting the most comprehensive and progressive anti-trafficking laws in the country (Shared Hope International, 2011). In 2003, it enacted its own anti-trafficking legislation, criminalizing trafficking (Pennartz, 2011). This legislation made Texas and Washington the first two states in the United States to have enacted their own anti-trafficking legislation (Pennartz, 2011). The Texas Penal Code Section 20A criminalizes human trafficking as a felony offense (Butler, 2012). The Attorney General's Office, however, continues to present proposals in order to strengthen the penal code terminology, while the burden of proof focusing on the use, of force, fraud, or coercion still generally determines the success or failure of prosecuting the perpetrators of human trafficking (Pennartz, 2011).

The Human Trafficking Rescue Alliance (HTRA) was established in 2004 to strengthen the relationship between law enforcement agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in dealing with human trafficking, and consists of three sections: law enforcement, victim services, and core training (Ellerin, 2013). Further legislation was also passed that, at the suggestion of the Department of Justice in 2008, authorizing the Texas Attorney General to organize data and findings necessary in order to fight human trafficking at the state level, and resulted in the human trafficking task force, comprised of experts from the public and private sectors (Pennartz, 2011).

The House Bill (H.B.) 2009 made training on human trafficking a mandatory requirement for law enforcement officers who had been newly licensed or sought promotions (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). The Texas Human Trafficking Prevention Task Force was formally established and codified under Section 402.035 of the Texas Government Code (2009). It consists of such agencies as the offices of the Governor and the state attorney general, Health and Human Services Commission, Texas Department of Family and Protective Services, Department of Public Safety, Texas Workforce Commission, Texas Alcoholic Beverage Commission, Texas Department of Criminal Justice, Texas Juvenile Probation Commission, Texas Youth Commission, and the local law enforcement (Pennartz, 2011; Sanborn & Lew, 2012). The Task Force has also established its own offices in Austin, Dallas, Ft. Worth, El Paso, Houston, and San Antonio, all of these cities carrying a relatively high trafficking volume (Pennartz, 2011). The Task Force also assists and trains the judges, attorneys, and all the relevant staff, in the recognition and prevention of human trafficking (Tex. Gov't Code § 402.035). Texas has also enhanced the civil and criminal penalties against the traffickers, facilitators and buyers of commercial sex, especially in the case of child victims (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). Moreover, H.B. 3000 (Tex. Penal Code Ann. § 20A.03) makes it a first-degree felony offense to engage in human trafficking two or more times in a 30-day period.

According to the Polaris Project (2013), the state of Texas was deemed as a "Tier 1" state, making it one of just five states to such a high grade of human trafficking legislation. The Tier rankings are based on a state's enactment of laws in ten categories: sex trafficking, labor trafficking, asset forfeiture for human trafficking and/or investigative tools for law enforcement, training on human trafficking for law enforcement and/or human trafficking commission or task force, posting a human trafficking hotline, safe harbor laws protecting sexually exploited minors, a lower burden of proof for sex

24

trafficking of minors, victim assistance, access to civil damages, and vacating convictions for sex trafficking victims (Polaris Project, 2013). The state of Texas met the requirements for all the categories but the safe harbor laws and the vacating of convictions for sex trafficking victims (Polaris Project, 2013).

In 2010, the Texas Supreme Court reinterpreted the law on juvenile prostitution, holding *In re B.W.* (2010) that a child under the age of fourteen cannot be adjudicated for prostitution because he/she is too young to legally consent to sex. The 82nd legislature enacted two laws giving law enforcement the discretion to bring a child to the Child Protective Services (CPS) or into detention, avoiding criminal charges, if the child was suspected of being a trafficking victim, and the ability to take children into custody if the parents were traffickers (Tex. Fam Code 262.104[a][1],[3]; Tex. Fam Code 161,001[1][1][xv-xvi-]), in order to prevent victims from serving time in the juvenile detention and then returning to the streets or to the trafficking parents (Ellerin, 2013). However, these laws stripped law enforcement of a tool to remove children from traffickers, and many children as a result are referred to probation departments on charges such as failure to ID, not as a punitive measure, but to protect them by placing them in secured detention, since there is a serious shortage in Texas of residential placements and rehabilitative services for victims (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). Juvenile specialty courts (such as Harris County's GIRLS Court and Dallas County's ESTEEM Court) have been established to work with children charged with prostitution and related crimes (Sanborn & Lew, 2012). Despite all this progress, however, children continue to become victims of trafficking and are charged with offenses stemming from their own exploitation (Sanborn & Lew, 2012).

According to Pennartz (2011), the Texas Office of the Attorney General sent out surveys on human trafficking prosecution cases to all county and district attorney offices

in the state of Texas, but only 7.4% of the surveys were returned, and based on the data

obtained from these surveys, 24% of the county and district attorney offices had human

trafficking prosecutions, which in turn led to only 19 human trafficking convictions

between 2003-2010. These findings indicate that, despite working in a state that is

considered as a leader in taking human trafficking initiatives, many law enforcement

agencies, attorneys, and judges still continue to lack the proper training to facilitate

identification of human trafficking cases (Pennartz, 2011).

In spite of the specialized human trafficking task force that Texas established, the

effectiveness of the training that is received by the task force has not been measured.

During the 2011 Super Bowl at Arlington, Texas, the task force (in conjunction with the

local law enforcement and its informants) established initiatives worth hundreds and

thousands of dollars to monitor local, high sex trafficking areas, and sex-service

websites, in order to identify and prosecute sex traffickers; however, the initiative resulted

in few arrests and prosecutions (Pennartz, 2011). Butler (2012) suggested that Texas

must revise its statutory definition of human trafficking to incorporate the protection of a

broad range of minors who are exploited, shift the focus from prosecution of traffickers to

protection of minors and prevention of exploitation; and revise the safe harbor provisions

to foster a stronger child welfare model for the protection of victims, while reducing

delinquency adjudication and punishment (Butler, 2012). Moreover, because of the focus

placed on sex trafficking, people tend to underestimate the pervasiveness of domestic

child labor trafficking, and therefore most reform movements in Texas have focused on

sex trafficking, and not so much on the child labor trafficking (Butler, 2012).

2.6 Criticality of Local Law Enforcement's Role in Victim Identification

Considering the high prevalence of human trafficking in the United States,

approximately 100,000 victims (Estes & Weiner, 2002; Hughes, 2007), it is quite

concerning that there are massive challenges for law enforcement personnel, as well as common citizens, to recognize victims of human trafficking. There are several reasons for this difficulty. One of the reasons is that human trafficking is often a hidden crime itself (Cross, 2013). Moreover, several other factors play a part, such as the amount of traveling between jurisdictions, the inability and unwillingness of the victims to reach out for help, the victims' fear of deportation or retaliation from the trafficker, as well as their general distrust of the law enforcement (Cross, 2013). However, one of the biggest reasons is that the local law enforcement personnel, who are usually the first ones to encounter these victims, lack the proper training to appropriately recognize the victims (Cross, 2013). The major problem arises when the victim is mistaken for being a perpetrator when engaged in a criminal activity (Cross, 2013), and is re-victimized by the criminal justice system, which prosecutes the victim as a criminal. According to Cross (2013), this systematic failure by the criminal justice system to not properly distinguish between the victims and the actual perpetrators is one of the leading causes of the victims' dual victimization, and can only be resolved by statutory changes.

Police officers are the gatekeepers to the criminal justice system, as their response to a situation - either by direct observation or in response to a call for help - is the first step that officially labels an incident as a crime and passes it forward for prosecution (Darwinkel, Powell, & Tidmarsh, 2013). Local police officers are also known to be among the first to encounter human trafficking victims and perpetrators (de Baca & Tisi, 2002; Finckenaurer & Liu, 2006; Newman, 2006; Wilson et al., 2006), typically in traffic accidents or border checks and stops (Albanese, Donnelly, & Kelegian, 2004). They are also more likely than a federal agent to encounter crimes, such as prostitution, that may be related to human trafficking (Wilson et al., 2006). As such first responders, local law enforcement officers are usually the first to interact with the victims, and their

perception of the situation determines what crime has taken place and whether additional investigation is warranted (Grubb & Bennett, 2012).

However, research shows that many local law enforcement agencies do not think that human trafficking occurs in their jurisdiction, and are therefore not well-prepared to identify the victims of this crime or investigate such cases (Renzetti et al., 2015). There is also a gap in research conducted on the law enforcement's response to the human trafficking problem in the United States (Wilson et al., 2006). In addition, research has also shown that the police officers' lack of knowledge regarding specific crimes or their acceptance of victim-blaming can result in high case attrition (Gover, Pudrzynska, & Dodge, 2011; Lonsway & Archambault, 2012; Spohn & Tellis, 2012). This is a serious problem because the federal government, which has prioritized prosecution of trafficking cases, expects local law enforcement agencies to bring forth such cases (Renzetti et al., 2015). Currently, many states do not even mandate any training standards in human trafficking for the local law enforcement (Grubb & Bennet, 2012). Research evaluating the effectiveness of training and the police officers' responses is also limited (Renzetti et al., 2015).

Wilson et al., (2006) conducted their research on 163 law enforcement agencies across the United States to evaluate the agencies' response to human trafficking in their jurisdictions, and found that those agencies were not well-prepared to recognize trafficking victims or to investigate such cases. They found that their sample of law enforcement agencies believed trafficking to be a problem that existed elsewhere, and 72% of those agencies believed that human trafficking should be addressed by federal law enforcement (Wilson et al., 2006). A majority of the agencies did not have specific policies, protocols, and training for human trafficking (Wilson et al., 2006). However,

officers who had received specialized training in regarding human trafficking also had greater awareness of it in their jurisdictions (Wilson et al., 2006).

Farrell et al., (2010) conducted a national study and found that the a majority of the local, county, and state law enforcement agencies believed that human trafficking was either rare or nonexistent in their jurisdictions. The research also found that less than one in five local law enforcement officers received any training in identifying and investigating human trafficking, that less than one in ten officers worked in a jurisdiction with a policy or protocol on human trafficking, and that less than one in twenty agencies had designated or specialized personnel to investigate these cases (Farrell et al., 2010).

Research in the State of Georgia also seemed to show a lack of training and awareness of human trafficking in the local law enforcement agencies (Grubb & Bennett, 2012). Over 75% of the participants in the study reported that there had not been any human trafficking training provided in their agencies in the preceding four years (Grubb & Bennett, 2012). Some information indicated that a lack of priority for the subject and budgetary concerns might be some of the reasons that deter the agencies from obtaining such trainings (Grubb & Bennett, 2012).

Rezetti et al., (2015) evaluated the effectiveness of the statewide training conducted by victim advocates, and adopted by the Department of Criminal Justice Training at the Kentucky Leadership Institute, in terms of raising awareness in the officers' jurisdictions, increasing the likelihood of the officers' self-reports of identifying and investigating possible human trafficking cases, and the dissemination of knowledge obtained through training by executive and mid-level officers to the patrol level officers. The results showed that participation in training resulted in positive but limited effects in terms of the above three areas of interest (Renzetti et al., 2015). They found that a brief, four-hour training resulted in an increase in the executive level officers' perception of

prevalence of human trafficking in their jurisdictions, and in the number of arrests made in their agencies for human trafficking cases; however, there were no changes reported for the mid-level officers (Renzetti et al., 2015). There were also some positive findings that patrol officers who were aware of members in their agencies that had received specialized human trafficking training, and who were also aware of a formal protocol in place to guide human trafficking investigations in their agencies, were more likely to report that their department had investigated or made arrests for human trafficking cases (Renzetti et al., 2015). Conversely, it was found that patrol officers who believed that they were unlikely to encounter a human trafficking case in their jurisdiction, were also less likely to report whether their department had investigated or made an arrest for a human trafficking case (Renzetti et al., 2015). These findings support the earlier findings (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014; Darwinkel et al., 2013) that there is a potential for cultural blinders and confirmation bias (Renzetti et al., 2015), which are personal beliefs whereby perceptions of prevalence of human trafficking in the patrol officers' jurisdictions influence the likelihood of their identifying or investigating human trafficking cases (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014; Darwinkel et al., 2013).

Farrell and Pfeffer (2014) reported that criminal justice professionals may be unaware of even the legal definition of human trafficking. They (2014) found in their research that it was typically challenging for police officers to distinguish between consent and coercion in potential sex trafficking cases, which are often confused with prostitution. Officers also had difficulty distinguishing between unfair labor practices and labor trafficking (Renzetti et al., 2015). Similarly, research has also indicated that policing human trafficking is hindered, not because the police considers it to be a less serious offense, but because of a lack of knowledge and misunderstanding about the crime (Renzetti et al., 2015).

30

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Purpose

The primary purpose of this research was to examine the training, awareness, and effectiveness of a local law enforcement agency in recognizing victims of human trafficking. This study attempted to fill the gap in research regarding the effectiveness of the training that the local law enforcement personnel receive on human trafficking. However, like any research study, it was not free of limitations. The research provided a sample of local law enforcement officers with a self-administered survey that evaluated their perceptions of human trafficking victims. However, since this was a blind study, the survey did not contain questions that were directly related to human trafficking. Rather the questions presented scenarios relating to human trafficking, and the officers' effectiveness in recognizing the victims was evaluated by whether the officers were able to determine the person in question as a potential human trafficking victim. The IBM SPSS statistics version 19 and 23 were utilized to analyze the data from the completed surveys. The sample selection, procedure, measuring instrument, analysis, discussion, limitations, and recommendations are discussed below in detail.

3.2 Sample Selection

The sample for this research was taken from a local law enforcement agency in Dallas, Texas. Prior approval to conduct the research at the agency was obtained from the agency's chief. For purposes of this study, and due to time limitations on obtaining approval from other agencies, a non-probability sampling method of convenience sampling was utilized. The sample consisted of 72 participants from multiple departments within the agency. The departments included the patrol and traffic divisions, criminal investigations division (CID), physical evidence section (PES), and the warrant

execution/special weapons and tactics (S.W.A.T.). The sample consisted of both male and female sworn personnel with a diverse age group, ethnic background and level of field experience.

3.3 Procedure

Upon receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the captains, lieutenants, and sergeants from the participating departments were contacted by phone and email, to schedule the dates and times for the primary investigator to meet the personnel at the substations in order to solicit the personnel for participation in and administration of the survey. The primary researcher travelled to several substations seven times, on different days at various times in order to recruit a sample from personnel working on different shifts. The personnel were solicited either at the beginning of their shifts, during detail, or at the conclusion of their shifts. Since this research was designed to be a blind study, in which the true purpose of the study was not to be revealed (to prevent bias and for other validity reasons), the participants were only advised that the purpose of the study was to assess their law enforcement training, awareness, and effectiveness in their daily encounters and interactions on duty, and that some aspects of the study were not revealed at that time, but that they would be revealed at the conclusion of the research project. Specifically, the participants were not told that the research aimed to evaluate their training, awareness, and effectiveness to recognize human trafficking victims. They were also informed that their participation was completely voluntary, and that their names, as well as their agency's name, were going to be kept confidential. Moreover, they were informed that the possible benefits of the study were to improve the quality of training and to assist them in obtaining self-awareness in terms of their duties, that there were no known risks for participating in the research, nor

32

was there any compensation for participation, and that the approximate time for completing the survey was 20-30 minutes.

The participants were instructed to turn in their informed consent separately from the survey to ensure confidentiality, and the primary investigator was present for collection of both the consent forms and the surveys. The participants were informed that the surveys consisted of scenarios that they might encounter while on duty, and required them to select what they believed to be the best response from the available options. The participants were allowed to ask questions for any clarifications during the survey. All participants were also provided with an optional form to request a copy of the thesis or the results, if they desired, which was also collected separately from the surveys to ensure confidentiality. All participants were also advised that due to some aspects not being revealed at that time, the primary researcher would schedule a follow-up time in order to debrief all participants, as well as discuss the results and analyses obtained from the research.

3.4 Measuring Instrument

The survey was created by the primary investigator, which consisted of eight demographic questions and ten scenarios. The scenarios were constructed from the previous working experience of the primary researcher in terms of situations that the law enforcement personnel might encounter in performing their regular duties. The survey was also reviewed by a federal law enforcement agent who conducted training on human trafficking for law enforcement entities, as well as by the Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice faculty chair and committee members of the University of Texas at Arlington. The survey was constructed using appropriate and easy-to-understand words, to reduce the possibility of any participant's misunderstanding the questionnaire, and

included a cover page with clear directions and information. All attempts were made to avoid any biased language, and open-ended or leading questions.

The survey was divided into two sections. The first section consisted of eight demographic questions, regarding gender, age, race/ethnicity, education, number of years served as law enforcement personnel, usual unit type, department, and rank. The second section consisted of ten scenarios, which were constructed in a manner that the participants could relate to. One of the questions was based on an ordinal scale requiring 5 items to be ranked in terms of what the participant perceived as priorities to be addressed in Dallas. The remainder of the questions involved picking a response from multiple choices. There were seven multiple-choice questions that required only one answer, while the remaining two allowed multiple answers (see Appendix A for a complete copy of the survey).

3.5 Results

The primary research questions in this study were: (1) Are local law enforcement officers able to recognize victims of human trafficking during their beat, and (2) does time in service affect their ability to recognize victims. Following are the null hypothesis and the hypothesis for this study.

1. H_o= There is no difference in the means between groups, and the time served in service does not affect the officers' ability to successfully recognize human trafficking victims.

2. H_I = The officers will successfully recognize human trafficking victims. There is at least one or more groups that significantly differ from the other group means, and the time served does affects the officers' ability to recognize human trafficking victims.

The primary independent variable in this research study was the number of years served as law enforcement personnel, and was measured by a direct question in the survey. The dependent variable was the ability of the officers to effectively recognize human trafficking victims, and was measured by the number of times human trafficking was selected as an answer for the questions.

Table 3.1 illustrates the descriptive statistics for the sample population. The total number of participants (n=72), included 67 males and only 5 females. The participants belonged to various age groups, with the highest percentage belonging to the age group of 25-34 years (33.3%), followed by 35-44 years (30.6%), 45-54 years (27.8%), 55-64 years (2.8%), and 18-24 years (1.4%). Three participants did not indicate their age group and are categorized as missing. The participants belonged to diverse race and ethnic groups, with 34.7% Caucasians, 37.5% African-Americans, 22.2% Hispanics, and 1.4 % Asian/Pacific Islander. Three participants did not identify their race and ethnic origins, and were therefore also categorized as missing.

Table 3.1 Descriptive Statistics for the Sample Population

Demographics	N	Percent
Gender		
Male	67	93.1
Female	5	6.9
Age		
18-24	1	1.4
25-34	24	33.3
35-44	22	30.6
45-54	20	27.8
55-64	2	2.8
Missing	3	4.2
Race/Ethnicity		
White	25	34.7
Black	27	37.5
Hispanic	16	22.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	1.4
Missing	3	4.2

Table 3.2 illustrates the educational levels of the participants, and the length of their experience in the field. The majority of the participants (54.2%) had some college or no degree, 18.1% held a Bachelor's degree, 15.3% had High School diplomas, 11.1% had an Associate's degree, and only 1.4% had a Master's degree. The experience in terms of number of years served in law enforcement also varied, with 26.4% of the participants having an experience of 2-5 years, 22.2% of more than 20 years, 20.8% of 6-9 years, 13.9% of 10-15 years, 12.5% of 15-20 years, and only 1.4% of 0-1 years. Table 3.2 also illustrates that the majority (65.3%) of the participants were from the traffic division, 11.1% were from the warrant execution/S.W.A.T., 9.7% from the CID, 4.2% from the PES, and 9.7% indicated being from other departments, including Patrol and Tactical. The table further illustrates that 51 participants were deputies, 10 were sergeants, 6 were

detectives, 1 was lieutenant, and 2 identified themselves as other (of which 1 was captain). One of the respondents did not disclose his or her rank, and is indicated as missing. Approximately 88.9% of the personnel worked individually, as a one-man unit, while 11.1% of the respondents usually worked with a partner, as a two-man unit.

Table 3.2 Descriptive Statistics for Educational & Occupational Background

Demographics	N	Percent
Education		
High School	11	15.3
Some college/ no degree	39	54.2
Associates Degree	8	11.1
Bachelor's Degree	13	18.1
Master's Degree	1	1.4
Number of years served as a deputy		
0-1 years	1	1.4
2-5 years	19	26.4
6-9 years	15	20.8
10-15 years	10	13.9
15-20 years	9	12.5
20+ years	16	22.2
Missing	2	2.8
Rank		
Lieutenant	1	1.4
Sergeant	10	13.9
Deputy	51	70.8
Detective	6	8.3
Other	3	4.2
Missing	1	1.4
Department		
Traffic	47	65.3
Warrant Execution	8	11.1
CID	7	9.7
PES	3	4.2
Other	7	9.7
Usual Unit Type		
One-man unit	64	88.9
Two-man unit	8	11.1

Figure 3-1 shows a bar chart to help demonstrate that the majority of the sample (n=47)

identified themselves from the traffic/patrol division. Approximately, 8 participants were

from the warrant execution department, 7 from the CID, only 3 from the PES, while 7 were from other departments.
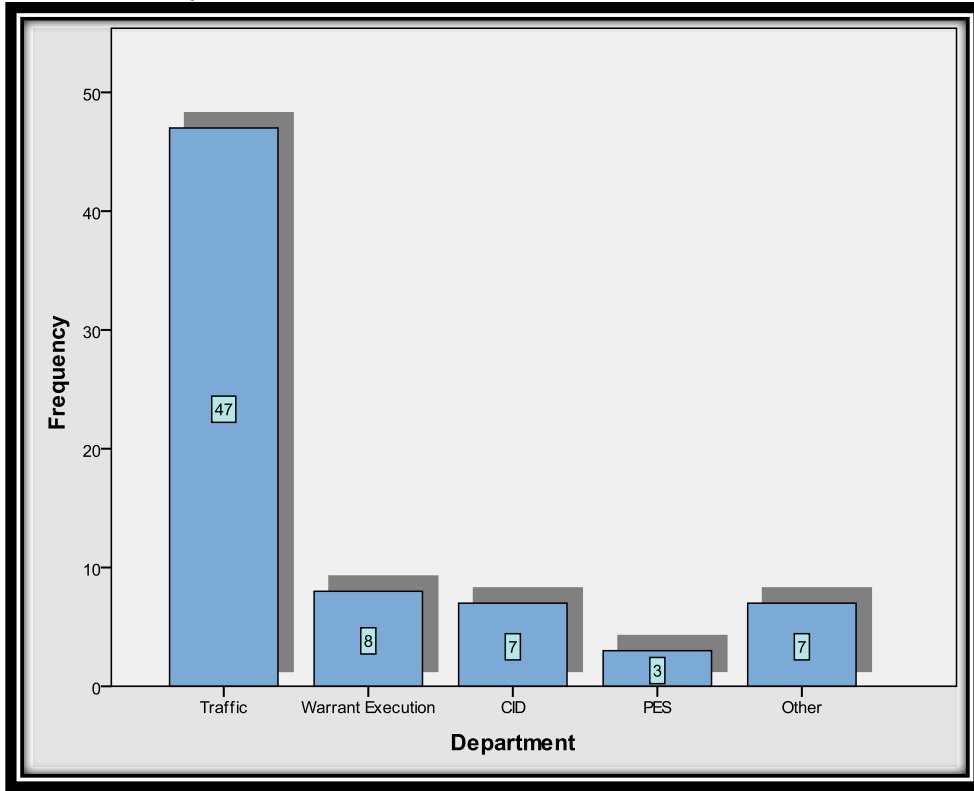

Figure 3-1 Descriptive Statistics of Participating Departments

Table 3.3 illustrates the frequency of answers for each of the ten survey questions (please see Appendix A for the complete questions). For question 1, asking the participant to rank the priority of crimes needed to be addressed in Dallas, the respondents selected as follows: domestic violence (43.1%); human trafficking (30.6%); driving while intoxicated (DWI) (13.9%); and drug offenses (9.7%). None of the participants picked status offenses (such as truancy or running away) as deserving a number one priority. Two of the participants did not respond to the question and are indicated as missing.

In response to question 2, asking the respondent to guess the reason for a juvenile's frequent running away from a residential facility, the participants responded as follows: "inability to get along with other residents" (54.2%); "just being a typical juvenile" (23.6%); "abuse from staff" (15.3%); and only 6.9 % picked "possible victim of human trafficking".

In response to question 3, regarding the 20-year-old Hispanic female with a 40-year-old White male who was driving the car in which 20 grams of cocaine was discovered by the officer in a routine traffic stop, 70.8% of the participants picked the female passenger to be a possible victim of human trafficking, while 13.9% picked her to be possibly involved in the drug trade, 8.3% picked her to be a possible prostitute, 4.2% picked her to be possibly subject to arrest for failure to provide information, and 2.8% picked her to be possibly the driver's significant other.

In response to question 4, asking the respondent how to deal with the 16-year-old black male, who was possibly selling drugs, and who is found to be a runaway but refuses to cooperate or give his or his parents' identification, 83.3% o f the participants favored arresting him for possibly selling drugs and refusing to cooperate or provide any information, 13.9% wanted to investigate whether he was a potential victim of human trafficking, and 1.4% favored reporting him to the DEA. One participant did not respond to this question, and is categorized as missing.

In response to question 5, regarding the 17-year-old boy found at the corner of Harry Hines and Royal (which is considered to be a high crime and prostitution area), 52.8% of the participants favored doing nothing because he was considered an adult free to make his own decisions, 15.3% wanted to investigate because he was most likely just lost, 13.9% wanted to investigate because he was most likely prostituting, 8.3% thought that he was most likely selling drugs, and only 8.3% wanted to investigate because he

40

was most likely a victim. One participant did not answer this question and was categorized as missing.

In response to question 6, regarding a 27-year-old white female passenger with a busted lip and a tattoo on her wrist, and who was accompanied by a 50-year-old Hispanic male driver with a similar tattoo on the wrist, 73.6% of the participants assumed the female to be a victim of domestic violence, 19.4% thought that might be a victim of human trafficking, 2.8% thought that she might be a prostitute, and 2.8% thought that she might be the driver's significant other. One participant did not answer the question, and is categorized as missing.

In response to question 7, regarding the 20-year-old thin and pale waitress, who does not appear to speak English, and was motioned by the owner to step out of view when the officers entered the restaurant, 63.9% of the participants picked her to be a victim of human trafficking, 18.1% thought she might be an illegal immigrant, 13.9% thought she might be anorexic, and 2.8% thought she might be a victim of domestic violence. One participant did not answer this question, and was categorized as missing.

In response to question 8, regarding the 18-year-old female who was found in provocative clothing by the XTC Cabaret night club, and who quickly started to move away as soon as she saw the police squad car, 40.3% of the participants favored conducting a pedestrian stop to make sure that she was not prostituting, 23.6% favored conducting a pedestrian stop to investigate whether she was a victim, 18.1% wanted to do nothing because they considered her to be old enough to make her own decisions, and 18.1% wanted to do nothing because they thought she was probably leaving the club.

In response to question 9, in which a 38-year-old white driver claimed the 16-year-old Hispanic female passenger to be his daughter and also answered questions on

her behalf, 83.3% of the participants wanted to investigate whether the passenger was a victim of human trafficking, 6.9% wanted to do nothing because of not having enough information to identify the victim or charge the driver, 5.6% wanted to give only a verbal warning due to the driver's appropriate behavior, 2.8% wanted to do nothing because the passenger was in his vehicle at her will, and 1.4% wanted to arrest the driver for the traffic violation for which he had been stopped.

In response to question 10, regarding the 20-year-old female who did not notice the police squad car and was putting herself out for prostitution, 45.8% of the participants wanted to investigate whether she was a victim, 40.3% wanted to arrest her for prostitution, 5.6% wanted to give her a verbal warning, 5.6% wanted to forget about it because they had a major accident pending, and 2.8% wanted to do nothing because she was not in their jurisdiction.

Table 3.3 Frequency of Answers on the Questionnaire

Variables	N	Percent
Question 1. Crimes that are priorities in terms of addressing in Dallas		
Drug offenses	7	9.7
DWI	10	13.9
Domestic Violence	31	43.1
Human Trafficking	22	30.6
Missing	2	2.8
Question 2. Potential reason behind juvenile's frequent occurrence of running away from a residential facility		
Inability to get along with other residents	39	54.2
Abuse from staff	11	15.3
Possible victim of human trafficking running away to engage in prostitution	5	6.9
Just being a typical juvenile	17	23.6
Question 3. 20 year old Hispanic female passenger with a 40 year old white male driver, with cocaine inside vehicle, could potentially be		
Involved in the drug trade	10	13.9
Prostitute	6	8.3
Victim of human trafficking	51	70.8
Arrested for failure to provide information	3	4.2
Driver's significant other	2	2.8
Question 4. 16 year old black runaway male refusing to cooperate and not providing parents' identification		
Arrest him and transport to the juvenile facility	60	83.3
Investigate whether he is a potential victim of human trafficking	10	13.9
Report him to DEA	1	1.4
Missing	1	1.4
Question 5. 17 year old male at the corner of Harry Hines and Royal around 0300 hours		
Nothing, he is considered an adult and free to make his own decisions	38	52.8
Investigate, he is most likely selling drugs	6	8.3
Investigate, he is most likely prostituting	10	13.9

Table 3.3—*Continued*

Investigate, he is most likely a victim	6	8.3
Investigate, he is most likely just lost	11	15.3
Missing	1	1.4

Question 6. 50 year old Hispanic driver with 27 year old white female passenger, with a busted lip. Driver and passenger have similar tattoo on wrist

Victim of domestic violence	53	73.6
Prostitute	2	2.8
Victim of human trafficking	14	19.4
Driver's significant other	2	2.8
Missing	1	1.4

Question 7. 20 year old thin and pale waitress, doesn't appear to speak English, motioned by owner to step in another room

Victim of domestic violence	2	2.8
Victim of human trafficking	46	63.9
Anorexic	10	13.9
Illegal immigrant	13	18.1
Missing	1	1.4

Question 8. 18 year old female by XTC Cabaret in provocative clothing

Do nothing, she appears to be old enough to make her own decisions	13	18.1
Conduct a pedestrian stop to make sure she is not prostituting	29	40.3
Conduct a pedestrian stop to investigate whether she is a victim	17	23.6
Do nothing, she is probably leaving the club	13	18.1

Question 9. 38 year old white male driver, with 16 year old Hispanic female passenger, claims she is his daughter and answers all questions for her

Give a verbal warning due to driver's appropriate behavior and clear	4	5.6
Arrest the driver for the traffic violation	1	1.4
Investigate, the passenger could be a victim of human trafficking	60	83.3
Do nothing, the passenger is in his vehicle on her will	2	2.8

Table 3.3—*Continued*

	Do nothing, as you do not have enough information to identify the victim or charge the driver	5	6.9

Question 10. 20 year old female putting herself out for prostitution at Harry Hines and Northwest Highway at 4 AM

	Clear your traffic stop, and arrest her for prostitution	29	40.3
	Clear your traffic stop, and give her a verbal warning	4	5.6
	Clear your traffic stop, and investigate whether she is a victim	33	45.8
	Clear your traffic stop and do nothing, it is not your jurisdiction	2	2.8
	Clear your traffic stop, and forget about it because you have a major accident holding	4	5.6

Analysis

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to evaluate the officers' ability to recognize human trafficking victims based on their years of experience in the field. The ANOVA was used instead of multiple t-tests in order to prevent the inflation of the type I error. The independent variable represented the four different levels of experience in the field: 1) 0-5 years; 2) 6-9 years; 3) 10-15 years; and 4) 16+ years. The dependent variable was the number of human trafficking answers that were selected by the participants in the survey. A participant was considered to be effective in recognizing human trafficking victims if the participant selected human trafficking as an answer for at least 5 out of the 10 questions. Table 3.4 lists the means and standard deviations for each of the above-mentioned four experience groups. An alpha level of .05 was used for all analyses.

Table 3.4 Means and Standard Deviations of Standardized Test Scores

Level of Experience	N	Mean	Sd. Deviation
0-5 years	20	.2500	.44426
6-9 years	15	.1333	.35187
10-15 years	10	.1000	.31623
16+ years	25	.3200	.47610
Total	70	.2286	.42294

An overview of Table 3.4 shows that there are significant variances in the means and the standard deviations among the groups, which violates the homogeneity of variance assumption. This assumption holds that the variances of the distributions in the populations are equal. The sample sizes for each group were also not equal, with n=20 for 0-5 years of experience, n=15 for 6-9 years of experience, n=10 for 10-15 years of experience, and n=25 for 16+ years of experience. The test for homogeneity of variance was also significant based on the Levene's test [*Levene F*(3, 66) = 4.78, p < .004] indicating that the homogeneity of variance assumption underlying the application of ANOVA was not met. This shows that the variances between the four experience groups are statistically significant and unequal. Because of this violation of the equal variance assumption, the robust tests of equality of means was applied. Table 3.5 lists the results of the robust Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests.

Table 3.5 Robust Tests of Equality of Means

	Statistic a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.081	3	31.901	.371
Brown-Forsythe	1.106	3	64.448	.353

It can be concluded from the Welch test results of F (3, 31.901) = 1.081, p <.371, and the Brown-Forsythe test results of F (3, 64.448) = 1.106, p < .353 that the adjusted F ratio is

not significant. The p-value is greater than .05, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the post hoc tests cannot be conducted.

Thus, there is significant evidence to retain the null hypothesis and conclude that the years of experience do not have a significant impact on the effectiveness of law enforcement personnel in recognizing human trafficking victims.

3.5 Discussion

According to Mizus et al. (2003), the United States of America ranks as the second largest market country for human trafficking. The CIA estimates that approximately 700,000 people are annually trafficked worldwide (Office on Violence Against Women [OVAW], 2000), and that up to 50,000 are estimated to be trafficked into the United States (Schauer & Wheaton, 2006). It is estimated that between 100,000 to 150,000 people are kept under this modern type of slavery in the United States (Schauer & Wheaton, 2006). The United States has taken multiple initiatives to combat this crime. The federal government and all the states have defined human trafficking as a crime, and have established many resources to aid in the identification of this problem (Farrell, Pfeffer, & Bright, 2015). The federal government recognizes the important role of the local law enforcement agencies in identifying the human trafficking cases, and has established human trafficking task forces to help them identify the human trafficking victims (Farrell et al., 2008). Research has also shown that local, county, and state law enforcement officials are more likely than the federal authorities to first encounter these victims (de Baca & Tisi, 2002). However, Wilson et al. (2006) and Farrell et al. (2008) found that most law enforcement agencies in their studies had not received any training on human trafficking. Grubb and Bennett (2012) also found that 75% of their participants had not received any training on human trafficking in the preceding four years. Newton, Mulcahy, and Martin (2008) found in their research that local law enforcement officers

were most often unaware of even the existence of their state laws on human trafficking. In fact, most officers defined human trafficking differently from their state's legal definition (for example, some officers confused it with migrant smuggling and believed that human trafficking required movement of victims) (Newton, Mulchay, & Martin, 2008). Farrell and Pfeffer (2014) also found that, in addition to misinterpreting both the federal and state definition of human trafficking, the officers also lacked in having a investigative culture for such cases. Finally, despite the critical role of the local law enforcement agencies in the identification of these victims, there is a major gap in research on the effectiveness of the human trafficking training on the officers' ability to identify such victims.

This study aimed to evaluate the training, awareness, and effectiveness of a local law enforcement agency in recognizing victims of human trafficking. The research questions proposed by the principal investigator was how effectively can the police officers recognize victims of human trafficking when they encounter one during their regular calls, and whether time served in the field had any effect on their ability to recognize these victims. This evaluation was conducted by presenting personnel from a local law enforcement agency with a survey consisting of scenarios with a possible human trafficking victim. The participants' ability to effectively recognize these victims was evaluated by the number of times they selected the person in question to be a possible human trafficking victim. The study also analyzed whether the participants' time served in the law enforcement made any difference in their ability to effectively recognize human trafficking victims.

The ANOVA results indicated that one of the assumptions of the ANOVA test, the test of homogeneity of variance, was violated. This violation indicates that the results were insignificant, and so the null hypothesis has to be retained and cannot be rejected. Thus, the results cannot be generalized to local law enforcement agencies, and have to

48

be considered in light of the limitations of the study, which are discussed in detail below. Even though the ANOVA test results were insignificant, there were several interesting observations noted that are also discussed below.

Figure 3-2 shows a bar graph to illustrate the answers to the survey's first question. This question instructed the participants to rank five categories of crime on a scale of 1-5, with 1 being the highest and 5 being the lowest, in terms of how they believed these crimes should be prioritized in Dallas. Majority of the participants (43%) ranked domestic violence as the number one priority to be addressed in Dallas, which is also of major concern in many states. However, approximately 22% of the sample did select human trafficking as the number one priority to be addressed in Dallas. While some participants gave DWI and drug offenses the number one priority, none of the participants selected status offenses (not shown on the graph) as the number one priority.
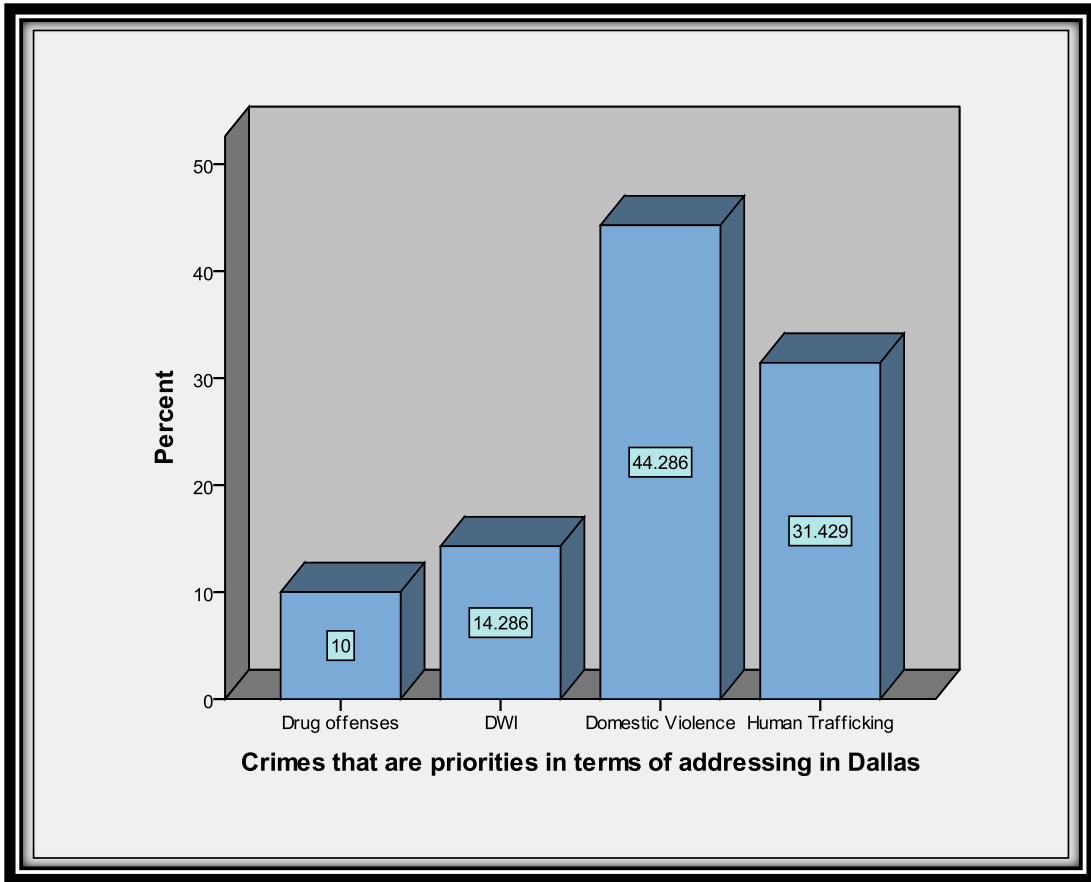
Figure 3-2 Crimes That Are Priorities in Terms of Addressing in Dallas

Question number six presented another interesting observation. This was actually a "give away" question, because it contained a major hint that the passenger might be a human trafficking victim. The question depicted the concept of "branding", a common practice utilized by the traffickers to mark or "brand" their victims with tattoos to show that victims are their property. The perpetrator often also has the same tattoo. Figure 3-3 displays a pie chart illustrating the participants' responses to this question based on their years of experience. Only 14 participants guessed that the passenger might be a victim of human trafficking, while 53 thought that the passenger might be a victim of domestic violence. Most of those 14 participants indicated having only 2-5 years

of experience, while most of the 53 participants who thought the passenger might be a domestic violence victim had 6-20+ years of experience. There were only 2 participants who thought that the passenger might be a prostitute, and both of these participants had over 10 years of experience.
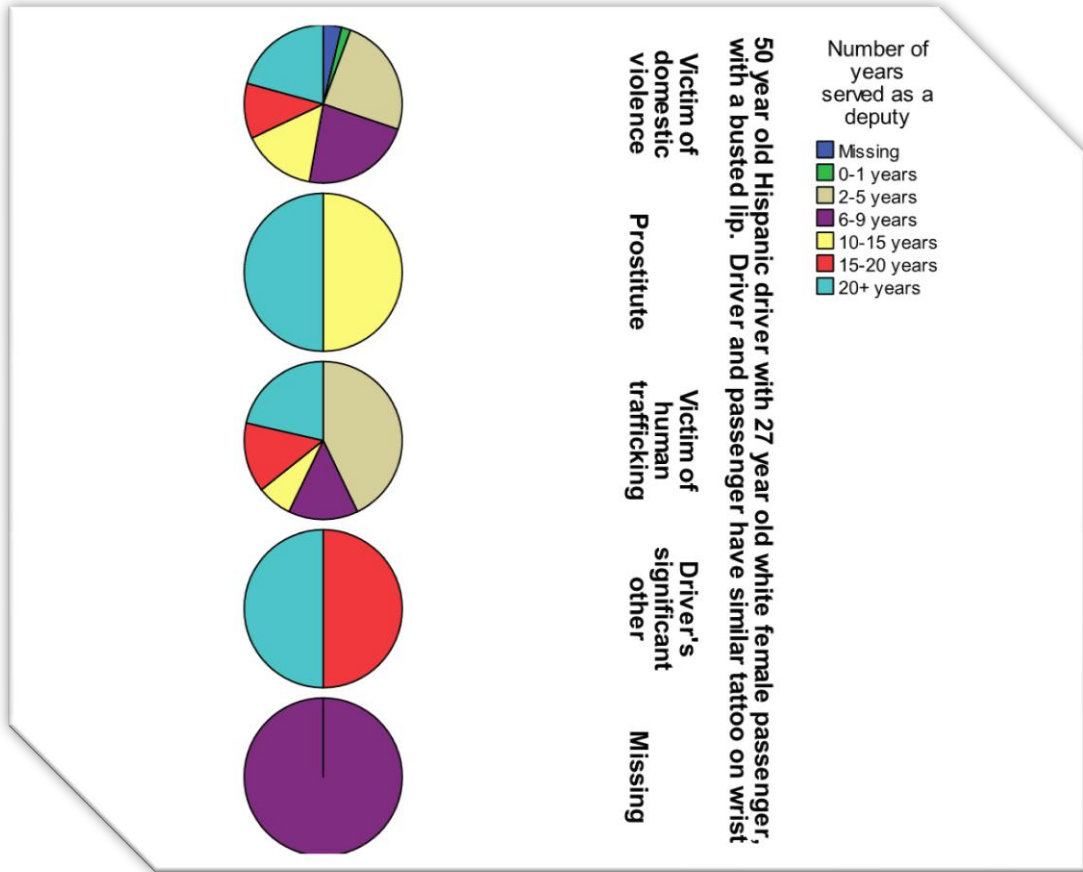

Figure 3-3 Responses to Question Number 6 Based on Level of Experience

Limitations

As with any research study, this one was not free of limitations, and the results must be considered in light of its particular limitations. For instance, due to time restraints, a non-probability sampling method of convenience sampling was utilized, resulting in a sample size of 72 participants from a single agency. This study aimed to

have at least a sample size of 100; however, only 72 responded. Because of the relatively small sample size, as well as the fact that all the participants were from a single agency, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to the whole agency, let alone to all local law enforcement agencies. The sample size might have been responsible for the violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption for the ANOVA test. Additionally, the response rate for the law enforcement personnel who had served more than ten years in the profession was lower than that for those who had served less than ten years.

The research instrument had some limitations as well. Even though the questionnaire was carefully worded, there was still a possibility for some participants to misunderstand one or more questions. During the administration of the study, many participants asked for clarification on some of the questions, but some of the participants might have answered the questions without clearly understanding them. Because of a printing error, the choice of answers to one of the questions was split between two pages, which might have led some participants to pick between only the two choices attached to the question, without realizing that there were more choices on the next page.

The timing of the administration of the instrument, which was either at the beginning or at the end of a shift, could have impacted the participants' responses to the questionnaire in various ways. For example, the participants beginning their shift might have rushed through the questionnaire in their hurry to attend to their duties, while the participants finishing their shift might been too exhausted and anxious to get home to properly answer the questionnaire.

Finally, the research instrument was developed by the principal investigator, therefore it has not yet been tested for its validity and reliability.

Future Studies & Recommendations

First and foremost, future studies should seek to further evaluate the effectiveness of the human trafficking training received by the law enforcement personnel. Specifically, future studies should seek to determine the amount and type of training necessary to help the officers in effectively recognizing human trafficking victims (Renzetti et al, 2015). It has been suggested that a one-size-fits-all training for officers at different levels may not be appropriate, since the executive and mid-level officers may respond differently than others to various types of training delivery, content, and length (Renzetti et al., 2015). Research should also be conducted to identify effective methods for officers who have received the necessary training and are knowledgeable about this crime, to disseminate the information and knowledge with other officers who have not yet received such training (Renzetti et al., 2015). Farrell et al. (2010) considered training, as well as the perceptions of the leaders' of police agencies regarding the human trafficking problem in their jurisdiction, to be important factors for increasing identification of cases. Moreover, in addition to the factual and educational information regarding human trafficking, it is recommended that the training should include scenarios and role-play, thus teaching the officers how to apply theoretical concepts to real-life situations. Future studies should also explore how to remove the cultural blinders towards human trafficking, in order to overcome the previously explained confirmation bias among law enforcement personnel (Renzetti et al., 2015).

In addition to federal legislation, the states need to institute changes in their own legal system, by providing more authority to local officials to intervene and address the human trafficking problem, in order to avoid the difficulties associated with federal prosecutions (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Improvement at the policy level could include incorporation of a screening process and establishment of standard protocols for law

enforcement officers, to help them recognize and interact with human trafficking victims (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). The human trafficking training, as well as an annually required refresher course, should also be mandated for all local law enforcement agencies in every state. Connections and cooperation between law enforcement agencies and service providers are the key to effective justice system responses (Wilson & Dalton, 2008), as service providers play a critical role in helping victims cooperate with the law enforcement (Bales & Lize, 2005). This role is of critical importance, since studies have found cooperation by the victims to be the most frequent difficulty faced by law enforcement agencies in human trafficking cases (Farrell et al., 2007).

Improvement at the state policy level can also include stricter licensing and inspection of public places (for example, spas, clinics, hotels, massage parlors, etc.), which should help in the detection of human trafficking cases (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Moreover, juvenile prostitutes and runaways, who are typically given low priority, should be automatically presumed to be possible human trafficking victims (Wilson & Dalton, 2008). Finally, federal, state, and local authorities need to consider the effect of their immigration laws on human trafficking (Wilson & Dalton, 2008).

Promulgation of mandatory human trafficking training initiatives in all states; use of written protocols, procedures and policies for human trafficking offenses; and development of better communication on this subject between the federal, state agencies, and NGOS are some of the things that can help create a more rational and unified approach to combat human trafficking on a national scale (Grubb & Bennett, 2012).

Conclusion

While a great amount of research still needs to be conducted, it is this researcher's hope that the present study will help expand the knowledge base necessary

to improve the human trafficking training received by the local law enforcement agencies, and thus will help combat this heinous crime. Findings from this study can also be used to develop a national human trafficking training curriculum for local law enforcement agencies. Finally, it is also hoped that this study will help the law enforcement personnel who participated in this study, to become more aware about the human trafficking problem and thus more effective in recognizing the human trafficking victims.

Appendix A

Survey

UT Arlington

Please indicate the following:	
Gender:	◯ Male ◯ Female
Age:	◯ 18-24 ◯ 25-34 ◯ 35-44 ◯ 45-54 ◯ 55-64 ◯ 64+
Race/Ethnicity:	◯ White ◯ Black ◯ Hispanic ◯ Native American ◯ Asian/Pacific Islander ◯ Middle Eastern ◯ Other (Please specify) _____
Education:	◯ High School ◯ Some College/no degree ◯ Associates Degree ◯ Bachelor's Degree ◯ Master's Degree ◯ Doctorate Degree ◯ Technical/vocational training
Number of years that you have served as a deputy	◯ 0-1 years ◯ 2-5 years ◯ 6-9 years ◯ 10-15 years ◯ 15-20 years ◯ 20+ years
Usual unit type:	◯ One-man unit ◯ Two-man unit
Department:	◯ Traffic ◯ Warrant Execution ◯ CID ◯ PES ◯ Other (Please specify) _____
Rank:	◯ Lieutenant ◯ Sergeant ◯ Deputy ◯ Detective ◯ Other (Please specify) _____

1.	Please rank the following crimes in the order that you think are priorities in terms of addressing in Dallas, with *1 being the highest and 5 being the lowest.*
a.	Drug offenses
b.	DWI
c.	Domestic Violence
d.	Human Trafficking
e.	Status Offenses

2.	You are dispatched to a juvenile runaway call at the residential facility. This juvenile is known to be running away from the facility all the time. What could potentially be one of the reasons behind this <u>frequent</u> occurrence? *(Please select one)*
a.	◯ Bad food at the residential facility
b.	◯ Inability to get along with other residents
c.	◯ Abuse from staff
d.	◯ Possible victim of human trafficking running away to engage in prostitution
e.	◯ Just being a typical juvenile

3.	On a routine traffic stop, you find 20 grams of cocaine inside the vehicle. The driver is a 40 year old White male and the passenger is a 20 year old Hispanic female. The passenger is non-compliant in providing any information and even refuses to give her name. The passenger refuses to answer any questions and appears to be hesitant and scared. Based on this information, the passenger could potentially be: *(Check all that apply)*
a.	◯ Involved in the drug trade
b.	◯ Prostitute
c.	◯ Victim of human trafficking

d.	◯	Arrested for failure to provide information
e.	◯	Driver's significant other

4.		**During the patrol of a known high crime area for drugs, you notice a 16 year old black male possibly selling drugs. Upon investigation, you find out that the male is a runaway but refuses to cooperate and does not provide his or his parents' identification. You: _(Select one)_**
a.	◯	Arrest him and transport to the juvenile facility
b.	◯	Arrest him and transport to Lew Sterrett
c.	◯	Investigate whether he is a potential victim of human trafficking
d.	◯	Report him to ICE
e.	◯	Report him to DEA

5.		**During your routine patrol, you find a 17 year old boy at the corner of Harry Hines and Royal around 0300 hours. What would you do? _(Select one)_**
a.	◯	Nothing, he is considered an adult and free to make his own decisions
b.	◯	Investigate, he is most likely selling drugs
c.	◯	Investigate, he is most likely prostituting
d.	◯	Investigate, he is most likely a victim
e.	◯	Investigate, he is most likely just lost

6.		**On a routine traffic stop, you encounter the driver a 50 year old Hispanic male, and a passenger who is a 27 year old white female. You notice that the female has a busted lip. Both the driver and the passenger have a similar tattoo on their wrist. The driver keeps speaking on her behalf. The passenger is possibly: _(Select one)_**
a.	◯	Victim of domestic violence
b.	◯	Prostitute
c.	◯	Victim of human trafficking
d.	◯	Runaway
e.	◯	Driver's significant other

7.		**During your lunch break, all officers decide to go to a local restaurant. Lunch was being served by a 20 year old waitress, who is motioned by the owner to step in another room when you and your fellow co-workers enter. The waitress does not appear to speak English and looks extraordinarily thin and pale. The waitress could potentially be: _(Select all that apply)_**
a.	◯	Victim of domestic violence
b.	◯	Prostitute
c.	◯	Victim of human trafficking
d.	◯	Anorexic
e.	◯	Illegal immigrant

8.	During your routine patrol at 3 AM, you encounter a 18 year old female standing by the XTC Cabaret in provocative clothing. She sees your squad car and quickly starts to walk away. You: *(Select one)*
a.	○ Do nothing, she appears to be old enough to make her own decisions
b.	○ Conduct a pedestrian stop to make sure she is not prostituting
c.	○ Conduct a pedestrian stop to investigate whether she is a victim
d.	○ Do nothing, she is probably leaving the club
e.	○ Conduct a pedestrian stop and arrest her for prostitution

9.	During a traffic stop, you encounter a 38 year old white male with a 16 year old Hispanic female in the passenger seat, that he claims to be his daughter. The male subject is able to provide his identification and apologizes for his violation. The male also answers all questions on the behalf of the female. You: *(Select one)*
a.	○ Give a verbal warning due to driver's appropriate behavior and clear
b.	○ Arrest the driver for the traffic violation
c.	○ Investigate, the passenger could be a victim of human trafficking
d.	○ Do nothing, the passenger is in his vehicle on her will
e.	○ Do nothing, as you do not have enough information to identify the victim or charge the driver

10.	During a traffic stop on Harry Hines and Northwest Highway at 4 AM, you notice a 20 year old female putting herself out for prostitution. She obviously did not notice your squad car. You: *(Select one)*
a.	○ Clear your traffic stop, and arrest her for prostitution
b.	○ Clear your traffic stop, and give her a verbal warning
c.	○ Clear your traffic stop, and investigate whether she is a victim
d.	○ Clear your traffic stop and do nothing, it is not your jurisdiction
e.	○ Clear your traffic stop, and forget about it because you have a major accident holding

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Biographical Information

Nazeeya Pervaiz Zubairie was born and raised in Orange, California. She earned her Associate Degree in Sciences from Richland College in 2005. She later earned her Bachelor of Science as a Cum Laude with a double major in Child Learning & Development & Psychology (B.A.), and a minor in Business Administration from the University of Texas at Dallas in 2009. She further earned her Master in Social Work in May 2015, as well as a Master of Arts in Criminology and Criminal Justice in December 2016 from the University of Texas at Arlington. She has been a member of multiple honors societies throughout her academic years, including Phi Theta Kappa, Golden Key International Honour Society, Psi Chi, The National Scholars Honor Society, and Phi Alpha. She also earned Outstanding Master's Student awards twice while earning her Master in Social Work. She earned her Licensed Chemical Dependency Counselor-Intern in 2012 and her Licensed Master Social Work in 2015.

Ms. Zubairie has previously served as a Public Service Officer, 911 Dispatcher, and is currently working as a therapist for the Dallas County Community Supervision & Corrections Department. She is also pursuing her clinical licensure in social work. She is also greatly interested in sharing her knowledge and expertise to provide pro bono services to the community, and currently does so as a social worker for the free medical clinic at the Islamic Association of North Texas (IANT). Her volunteer projects also include traveling to other countries to share her pro bono services, and she serves as a disaster response team member for Islamic Relief USA.

Lastly, Ms. Zubairie's future plans are to further her education by earning her Doctoral degree, and pursue her research interests by conducting research studies in various areas. Some of her research interests include human trafficking, psychology, criminal justice, and neuroscience.

71