Law Enforcement Response to Human Trafficking in Ohio

Thesis

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By

Erin Kelley Michel, B.A.

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Thesis Committee:

Shantha Balaswamy, Advisor

Jacquelyn C.A. Meshelemiah
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Abstract

Addressing human trafficking in Ohio is important because it occurs in various locations throughout the state, most notably in Toledo. The purpose of this study is to analyze Ohio law enforcement officers’ knowledge, training, characteristics of cases, collaborative efforts, and barriers to investigation of human trafficking cases. Both secondary and primary data sources were used to answer the research questions raised in this study. The results of the first phase of the study revealed an overall lack of knowledge and lack of training on human trafficking. Findings in the second phase of the study revealed that law enforcement officers have had experience with almost 300 human trafficking cases and mostly encounter victims when investigating other types of crimes. The majority of law enforcement officers mentioned collaborating with at least one federal, state, or regional level anti-human trafficking organization. Finally, there was an overall consensus among law enforcement officers that lack of training was the primary barrier to identifying and investigating human trafficking cases, followed by lack of awareness, and lack of protocols. This study’s findings yielded social work practice and policy implications based on the ethical requisite for social workers to serve vulnerable populations, enhance human wellbeing, and advocate for social justice.
Dedication

This document is dedicated to those who have been exploited through human trafficking and those who have served to restore survivors’ lives.
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Vita

2003 …………………………….West Geauga High School

2007 …………………………….B.A. Political Science, Loyola University Chicago

2007 …………………………….B.A. Women Studies, Loyola University Chicago

2008 – Present ………………….Master of Social Work Student,

The Ohio State University

Fields of Study

Major Field: Social Work
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Chapter One

Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Since the enactment of the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Prevention Act of 2000, a new concept of victimization was introduced. Human trafficking is the inclusive term used to describe modern-day slavery of people who are forced into the commercial sex industry and involuntary labor. The law defining sex trafficking distinguishes between children and adults. Any person under the age of 18 who is involved in the commercial sex industry is considered a victim of human trafficking. In cases involving adults, an element of force, fraud, or coercion must be present, in order to qualify as a severe form of trafficking. The law defining labor trafficking applies to both children and adults and covers the elements of the crime that facilitate enslavement, such as “recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services.” An element of force, fraud, or coercion must be present, and the conditions of labor trafficking include involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, and slavery (P.L. 106-386 § 103 [8]).

Human trafficking is usually invisible to the public eye but has recently entered the public consciousness, as it has received greater media coverage and more social services have been established to serve those who have been trafficked. Law enforcement
officers hold the responsibility to prevent, intervene, and investigate criminal activity. However, many law enforcement agencies lack adequate training or formal protocols to identify and investigate human trafficking cases (Clawson, Dutch, & Cummings, 2006; Wilson, Walsh, & Kleuber, 2006).

The role of law enforcement is vital to deterring human trafficking activities. As per the law (P.L. 110-457 §103 [8]),

*Human trafficking* – defined as “severe forms of trafficking in persons” by: (A) 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; or (B) the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery.

In order to know the role of law enforcement in combating human trafficking, it is important to understand the definition of law enforcement. Congress defines law enforcement as employees whose duties are primarily to investigate, apprehend, or detain individuals suspected or convicted of offenses against the criminal laws of the United States, including employees who perform these duties in a supervisory or administrative position (5 U.S.C. §8331[17]). The international community defines law enforcement as officers of the law who exercise police powers, especially the powers of arrest or detention, and who serve the community by protecting all persons against illegal acts,
consistent with the high degree of responsibility required by their profession (United

For the current study, law enforcement was defined as employees whose primary
responsibility is to investigate, apprehend, or detain individuals suspected or convicted of
criminal acts, and who work with victims during this process within a public law
enforcement agency.

Even though there is a law criminalizing human trafficking at the federal level,
local law enforcement often are not aware of the law, nor are they necessarily assigned
the responsibility to enforce federal law. It is commonly recognized that barriers exist to
cooperation between federal and state levels and federal and local levels of law
enforcement agencies. Ohio, notably, does not have a stand-alone human trafficking law,
and therefore, law enforcement officers in Ohio operate under statutes that are divergent
from federal human trafficking law. Statewide, there is an absence of a standard law
enforcement protocol requiring law enforcement to receive training on human trafficking.

Of the 12 cases studied in Wilson and Dalton (2007), law enforcement identified
only one victim. Furthermore, law enforcement officers, who have received training and
have protocols for responding to human trafficking cases, interview prostituted adults and
children and treat them as victims. Skilled interactions with victims tend to elicit victim
response and more often yields useful information that can be used in prosecution. When
gathering evidence, law enforcement officers with more training on human trafficking
understand the importance of collaboration with other law enforcement, as well as victim
services, because of the complexity of the crime and operations. At the same time, lack of
systematic collaboration between the federal and state levels and federal and local levels, as well as between local agencies, poses barriers to identifying and investigating cases.

**Human Trafficking Victim Characteristics**

There is no universal or systematic method of collecting data on human trafficking. Prior to 2000 with the enactment of the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act, statistics of human trafficking did not exist. Local and state law enforcement agencies may record incidents of human trafficking differently than federal agencies and nongovernmental organizations. For instance, sex trafficking may also be recorded as prostitution, abduction, kidnapping, missing persons, and disorderly conduct. Therefore, data and statistics gathered about human trafficking are rough estimates that may not precisely measure the magnitude of the problem. Most human trafficking data is collected on the national level, thereby making state and local data less available and sometimes non-existent.

On a global scale, the U.S. Department of State (2004) estimated that there are between 600,000 and 800,000 people who are trafficked into slavery each year for both sex and labor trafficking. However, the United Nation’s International Labor Organization (ILO) “estimates that there are at least 12.3 million adults and children in forced labor, bonded labor, and commercial sexual servitude at any given time” (International Labour Office, 2005, p. 10). About 1.39 million people are trafficked into the commercial sex industry. The U.S. Department of State declared in 2004 that 14,500 to 17,500 of these victims were trafficked into the United States from other countries.
The U.S. Department of State determined that over 50% of trafficked victims are children and between 70% and 80% are females. About 30% of victims are trafficked for the purpose of labor, whereas 70% of victims are forced into the commercial sex industry (U.S. Dept. of State, 2004). In 2009, there were 1,229 human trafficking investigations in the United States. A vast majority (83%) were sex trafficking cases, most of which involved U.S. citizens (63%) and nearly one-third of which included minors (Kyckelhahn, Beck & Cohen, 2009). The ILO, on the other hand, found that “56 percent of all forced labor victims are women and girls” (U.S. Dept. of State, 2009, p. 8).

After Germany where prostitution is legal, the United States is the number two destination for human trafficking victims (Mizus, Moody, Privado, & Douglas, 2003). Men, women, and children are brought from developing and underdeveloped countries in Asia, Eastern Europe, Africa, and Latin America (Farrell et al., 2008). Another study surveyed law enforcement officers regarding the country of origin of trafficking victims. Sixty agencies identified Mexico as the number one country of origin followed by China and Korea with 26 and 19 agencies, respectively, reporting victims from these countries. Central and South American countries were reported by 34 agencies. Southeast Asian countries were reported by 33 agencies. Russia and the Ukraine were reported by 15 agencies. In 2007, the Department of State certified 234 victims of international trafficking, most of whom were from El Salvador, Mexico, Korea, and Honduras (U.S. Dept. of State, 2007).

Although studies have made estimates of the prevalence of human trafficking, the number of people enslaved in Ohio is unknown. In 2007, Wilson and Dalton found five
concrete labor trafficking cases in Columbus and ten concrete sex trafficking cases in Toledo. Key respondent interviews with employees in criminal justice agencies and social service agencies in Columbus and Toledo revealed that they encountered anywhere between 2 and 75 traffic victims per year, with most respondents reporting between 12 and 20 victims per year (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). However, these numbers do not represent the overall prevalence of human trafficking in Ohio.

About two-thirds of children who are exploited in the commercial sex industry are White, and about three-fourths come from middle class or working class households (Davis, 2006). The prime age for recruitment for prostitution is 15 to 16 years old. Another study found the average age of sex traffic victims to be between 12 and 14 years old (Estes & Weiner, 2001).

In one study of human trafficking cases in Toledo and Columbus, victims of minor sex trafficking were “almost exclusively female, ranging in age from 10 to 17, and [were] equally likely to be Black as White. There [was] also a small percentage of Hispanic victims in each study site” (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, p. 16). Most victims of labor trafficking in these cities were from countries other than the United States. The Greater Cincinnati Human Trafficking Report interviewed 137 respondents, 38% of whom reported encountering or serving victims of human trafficking. Out of those who reported working with victims in some way, “12 responders indicated the victims were minors, and 22 answered the victims were adults. In terms of gender, 27 states the victims were female while seven said the victims encountered were male. Twenty-two (22)
respondents had been in contact with foreign national victims, and 10 agencies interacted with American victims” (National Underground Railroad Freedom Network, 2009).

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to analyze law enforcement responses to human trafficking in Ohio. Studying circumstances of law enforcement officers’ approaches to human trafficking is important because law enforcement officers are likely the first to respond to reports of human trafficking. Also, their responses determine the strength of subsequent prosecutions and ultimately the prosecution and convictions of traffickers (Bales & Lize, 2005).

Addressing human trafficking in Ohio is important because it occurs in various locations throughout the state. Based on data from the Innocence Lost Task Force, Toledo is recognized as the fourth human trafficking location and the number one location per capita in the United States (Ohio Trafficking in Persons Study Commission Research and Analysis Subcommittee (OTIPSC), 2010). Between 2003 and 2006, five cases of labor trafficking in Columbus, Ohio and ten sex trafficking cases in Toledo, Ohio were substantiated (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Between 2007 and 2009, one case of labor trafficking in Cincinnati, three cases of labor trafficking in Columbus, and one case of labor trafficking in Cleveland were substantiated (OTIPSC, 2010). Also, between 2007 and 2009, “one case of sex trafficking in Cincinnati and two cases of sex trafficking in Columbus were recorded” (p. 26). Between 2006 and 2009, 78 victims and 18 traffickers have been recovered from federal task force operations. All 18 traffickers were indicted on human trafficking charges and sentenced to no less than 25 years in prison. The
prevalence of the number of identified victims creates a sense of urgency for law enforcement intervention. Also, more generally, human trafficking is a form of slavery and has devastating impacts on individuals, families, and communities (OTIPSC, 2010). While the data provides the intensity of the problem in human trafficking, the available knowledge about the role and challenges faced by law enforcement officers is at best anecdotal and limited.

In order to fill gap in knowledge and to facilitate a greater understanding of the role of law enforcement officers in investigating human trafficking cases this study focused on five objectives using both secondary and primary data. The first objective examined the level of knowledge of issues related to human trafficking among law enforcement officers in Ohio. The second objective examined the extent of training received by enforcement officers in human trafficking. The third objective examined collaborations between law enforcement at the federal, state, and local levels and between law enforcement and social service providers. The fourth objective aimed to discover the characteristics of human trafficking cases, and last, the fifth objective explored the barriers and challenges to law enforcement officers when identifying and responding to human trafficking cases.

Recently, there were two national landmark research studies published in the field of human trafficking and the role of law enforcement officers (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008), but neither of these studies included Ohio, which made it less applicable to local experiences. Two other studies, however, published studies explored human trafficking in Ohio (Wilson & Dalton, 2007; Davis, 2006). While these studies
were groundbreaking, they did not seek to include solely law enforcement as the sample populations. In fact, Wilson and Dalton (2007) obtained information about law enforcement in Columbus from various individuals involved in the justice system, not exclusively law enforcement detectives and patrol officers. Furthermore, Wilson and Dalton’s study identified cases through media accounts, as opposed to directly contacting law enforcement agencies. Davis (2006) presented a descriptive account of forms of human trafficking in Ohio and provided detailed explanations of legal and policy issues. This study did not include any information from the perspective of law enforcement officers in Ohio. Neither of the Ohio studies solely focused on exploring law enforcement responses, therefore this study seeks to fill this gap in knowledge by targeting law enforcement officers.

The social systems theory framework was used to assist in understanding law enforcement response to human trafficking. Social systems theory accounts for the complexity of interwoven individual, organizational, institutional, and structural factors involved in organizational responses to social problems. The concepts of social systems theory are illustrated in a model that demonstrates the process of interaction between a subject system, that is law enforcement officers, and the environment. (See Figure 1 in Appendix A.)

Understanding the role of law enforcement in combating human trafficking is important and can potentially have a direct impact on the prevalence of human trafficking in the State of Ohio. When law enforcement does become involved in investigating human trafficking cases, they are likely to recover victims who will require supportive
services. Social workers will provide the services victims need, such as access to shelter, food, transportation, health care, mental health counseling, and more.

**Research Questions**

Five research questions were explored:

1. What is the level of knowledge about human trafficking among law enforcement?

2. What is the extent of training received by law enforcement officers in human trafficking?

3. What are the characteristics of human trafficking victims and perpetrators encountered by officers?

4. What collaborations exist among various officers who investigate human trafficking cases and among law enforcement and community agencies that serve victims?

5. What are the barriers and challenges in investigating cases?
Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

The modern concept of slavery has transformed under U.S. and international laws as human trafficking, a term that includes slave labor and commercial sex activities. Over 100 nations have enacted human trafficking laws since 2000, thus leading to the “emergence of an international legal consensus on the nature of the ‘trafficking problem’” (Gallagher & Holmes, 2008, pp. 318-319). Slave labor continues to exist in modern societies due to persistent demand market for cheap labor, despite the fact that slavery is illegal in every country throughout the world (U.S. Dept. of State, 2009).

Likewise, sex trafficking exists because there is a market demand that perpetuates the existence of the commercial sex industry. In order to monitor and combat human trafficking, a global response by law enforcement to this crime is crucial.

The literature review will first define human trafficking in terms of federal and state level laws; second, it will explore various aspects of law enforcement response to human trafficking; third, it will discuss the nature of human trafficking in Ohio; and fourth, it will provide a theoretical context to law enforcement response to human trafficking in Ohio.
Law Enforcement Response to Human Trafficking

Although there has yet to be a stand-alone human trafficking law instituted in Ohio, law enforcement agencies have begun to respond to the existence of human trafficking in part due to increased awareness of the problem in Toledo, Ohio. The prevalence of human trafficking in Toledo was brought to light when the federal Operation Innocence Lost Task Force recovered nine child sex trafficking victims in 2005 (Erb & de Boer, 2006). The Ohio Peace Officer Training Academy has developed a two-hour overview of human trafficking training curriculum and is in the process of developing a six-hour law enforcement investigations training curriculum (Personal communication, February 26, 2010). Additionally, the Ohio State Highway Patrol is in the process of training its commanders and patrol officers about identifying and responding to human trafficking cases (Personal Communication, February 17, 2010).

According to two media review studies, between 2003 and 2009 a total of 33 human trafficking cases were identified as involving individuals in Ohio. Between 2003 and 2006, five cases of labor trafficking in Columbus, Ohio and ten sex trafficking cases in Toledo, Ohio were substantiated (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). In terms of labor trafficking, two cases in Cincinnati, four cases in Columbus, and one case in Cleveland were recorded between 2007 and 2009. Also between 2007 and 2009, there were 11 sex trafficking cases involving international victims. Of these eleven cases, one case was confirmed in Cincinnati, and two cases were confirmed in Columbus (Ohio Trafficking in Persons Study Commission [OTIPSC], 2010).
In 2005, 78 victims, 45 of whom were prostituted children, all of whom had ties to Toledo, Ohio, have been recovered from federal task force operations. Also, 18 traffickers were indicted on human trafficking charges and sentenced to no less than 25 years in prison (OTIPSC, 2010). The prevalence of the number of identified victims creates a sense of urgency for law enforcement intervention. Also, more generally, human trafficking is a form of slavery and has devastating impacts on individuals, families, and communities.

Role of Law Enforcement

The Trafficking and Violence Protection Act (TVPA) grants authority to the Department of Justice’s Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), the Department of Homeland Security’s Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), and the Department of Labor’s Civil Rights Division (CRD) to investigate, prosecute, and prevent cases of human trafficking (Seekle & Siskin, 2008). At the same time, federal law enforcement oftentimes relies on local law enforcement to identify human trafficking cases because local officers are familiar with the communities they serve and are more likely to encounter and potentially more likely to identify trafficking victims and perpetrators (Clawson et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2006). Federal law enforcement officers perceived their roles in trafficking cases to include “covert/overt operations, following up on leads, conducting surveillance, and interviewing victims” (Clawson et al., 2006, p. 29). A majority of line officers perceived their main roles as conducting covert and overt operations and interviewing victims.

In contrast to federal law enforcement perceptions, line officers did not perceive
their roles to involve collaboration with federal law enforcement, and 20% of investigators perceived their roles to involve collaboration. Almost all local law enforcement respondents (90%) admitted not knowing the role of federal law enforcement when investigating human trafficking cases or the role of service providers to assist victims (Clawson et al., 2006). Another study found that 72% of local officers viewed human trafficking as “best addressed by federal law enforcement” (Wilson et al., 2006, p. 154).

Since 2000, 42 multi-agency task forces have formed to combat human trafficking. Multi-agency task forces unite all levels of law enforcement with social service and healthcare providers, as well as community organizations (Farrell et al., 2008). Understanding professional roles within the task force is essential to productive and efficient collaboration (The Advocates for Human Rights Minneapolis [AHRM], 2008). Task forces enable comprehensive networks of people, who would not work together under normal circumstances, to strengthen the safety net for victims and to cooperate in training law enforcement about human trafficking.

**Law Enforcement Perceptions of Human Trafficking**

Farrell et al. (2008) revealed that local law enforcement agencies do not identify human trafficking as a “widespread” or “occasionally” occurring problem in their jurisdictions. In fact, 50 to 60 percent of respondents in a nationwide random sample reported labor and sex trafficking as non-existent in their communities. Nearly 20 percent of “law enforcement agencies indicated they were unsure about the prevalence of human trafficking in their local community,” and between 6 and 10% of respondents in a random
sample perceived human trafficking as a severe problem (Farrell et al., 2008, pp. 35, 38).

In contrast to the sample population in Farrell et al. (2008), Clawson et al. (2006) selected a sample of law enforcement agencies known to be located in areas with substantiated cases of human trafficking and found that 36% of 121 respondents perceived trafficking as a serious or very serious problem. Fifty-eight percent perceived trafficking as a “high or very high priority within their agency” (Clawson et al., 2006, p. 26).

Officers in law enforcement agencies serving larger populations are more likely to perceive human trafficking as a problem. Wilson et al. (2006) surveyed 83 law enforcement agencies that serve populations of 150,000 or more, 46% of which identified human trafficking as “a problem within their region of the United States” (p. 153). Even though 23% of respondents had investigated one or more cases, only 18% reported human trafficking to exist in their jurisdictions, and only 12% reported it to be a concern for their department. In addition, out of 392 respondents from local, county, and state agencies serving communities of 75,000 people or more; 17.2% perceived domestic sex trafficking as “widespread or occasional;” 20.3% perceived international sex trafficking as “widespread or occasional;” and 16.8% perceived international labor trafficking as “widespread or occasional” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 36).

The Greater Cincinnati Human Trafficking Report found about 50% of local law enforcement officers answered “poor” or “fair” when asked about their knowledge of human trafficking.¹ Almost all of the other local law enforcement officers reported not

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¹ The Greater Cincinnati Human Trafficking Report included study participants from “southwestern Ohio (96 interviews), northern Kentucky (34 interviews) and southeastern Indiana (7 interviews).” Interviews in
knowing the level of knowledge (National Underground Railroad Freedom Network [NURFR], 2009, p. 9).

Officers in law enforcement agencies that work in a multi-agency task force are more likely to perceive human trafficking as a problem. Nearly two-thirds of task force member agencies reported that international sex trafficking and over half reported that domestic sex trafficking “was widespread or occasional.” Almost half of task force member agencies reported international labor trafficking to be “widespread or occasional.” Domestic labor trafficking was not perceived as a problem (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 36).

Respondents who worked on trafficking cases reported that 86% of victims they encountered were victims of sex trafficking, and 60% were cases of forced prostitution. The remaining 14% were victims of labor trafficking (Clawson et al., 2006, p. 28). In addition, the Greater Cincinnati Human Trafficking Report found that 85% and 80% of 137 respondents believed victims were subjected to commercial sex and labor trafficking respectively (NURFN, 2009, p. 12).

One study confirmed the endorsement of rape myths by law enforcement officials. Out of 25 respondents, only 7 officials (28%) reported being “aware of incidents of sexual violence against the women in the sex industry” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 61). Three officials reported being aware of sadistic sexual violence against victims. Two

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2 Respondents in this study included law enforcement officers (41%), agency administrators (14%), attorneys (10), victim advocates (9%), social workers (7%), healthcare providers (7%), judges (4%), pastors (3%), governmental leaders (2%), interpreters (1%), and reporters (1%) (National Underground Railroad Freedom Network, 2009, p. 11).
respondents indicated, “they had never heard of sexual violence against women in the sex industry.” One female law enforcement official reported “that women in prostitution cannot be raped” (p. 61).

When local law enforcement agencies allocate resources to investigating certain crimes, they rely on recorded data to demonstrate the existence and magnitude of problems. One of the obstacles of knowing the prevalence of human trafficking in Ohio, and therefore designating resources to address it, is that there is no data recorded for human trafficking crimes. Because law enforcement agencies may record cases of human trafficking as other crimes in their databases, there is no way to precisely measure the scope of the problem. Moreover, patterns of criminal behavior are vital to monitoring and combating crime. Studies have shown that demographic data of human trafficking victims and perpetrators “vary greatly by region,” making accurate data records at local police departments essential to identifying and investigating human trafficking (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 24). Without reliable data, adequate training, and established protocols for identifying victims and investigating trafficking cases, law enforcement officers work on a case-by-case basis or do not pursue investigations at all.

**Prevalence of Law Enforcement Training, Protocols, and Personnel**

From a random sample of local, county, and state law enforcement agencies, Farrell et al, (2008) revealed that 18% of such agencies had implemented training on human trafficking, and 39% of medium to large agencies had implemented training (p. 61). Another study, including 83 agencies, found that 8% of them “had conducted or received training in human trafficking” (Wilson et al., 2006, p. 155). From a purposive
sample of local, county, and state law enforcement agencies with known human trafficking activity, 27% of respondents learned about human trafficking through training, and 58% learned through “regular law enforcement activities” (Clawson et al., 2006, p. 22).

Nationwide, a mere 9% of law enforcement agencies had protocols to investigate human trafficking cases, whereas 13% of medium to large agencies had protocols (Farrell et al., 2008). Wilson et al. (2006) found that a mere 2% of agencies had human trafficking protocols. At the same time, 27% of respondents identified other laws, such as domestic violence, prostitution, and kidnapping, that may cover the crimes of trafficking. From a purposive sample of local, county, and state law enforcement agencies across the U.S. with known human trafficking activity, 71% of respondents stated their agencies had formal protocols (Clawson et al., 2006).

Four percent of agencies had dedicated special units or personnel to investigate cases of human trafficking, and 16% of medium to large agencies had special units or personnel (Clawson et al., 2006). Wilson et al., (2006) determined the same finding. Four percent of 83 respondents reported having specialized personnel to handle human trafficking cases exclusively. A majority of respondents stated that there were no units designated to human trafficking crimes. On the other hand, 37% identified specific departments that handle such cases, including Vice, Organized Crime, Crimes Against Persons, Child Exploitation, and Detective Bureaus (Wilson et al., 2006).

In Wilson and Dalton’s study (2007), ten out of eleven key respondents had received human trafficking training. Two agencies in Toledo reported having specialized
personnel dedicated to investigating human trafficking and were members of a human trafficking task force. As of 2007, Columbus did not have personnel specifically designated to investigating human trafficking cases.

In 2006, the FBI, Department of Justice Child Exploitation and Obscenity Section and National Center for Missing and Exploited Children directed funding to form the Northwest Ohio Innocence Lost Task Force, which is a formal collaboration between the Toledo Police Department, Fulton County Sheriff’s Office, and the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) (FBI, 2009; OTIPSC, 2010). Federal, state, and local law enforcement officers have partnered with the federally funded Central Ohio Rescue and Restore Coalition, headquartered in Columbus, to organize and mobilize law enforcement response to human trafficking (Personal communication). Furthermore, the Ohio Attorney General’s Office has convened the Trafficking in Persons Study Commission composed of key departments and actors in the state of Ohio (Cordray, 2009).

Law Enforcement Investigation Response to Human Trafficking Cases

Prevalence of investigation. From a random sample of local, county, and state law enforcement agencies, Farrell et al. (2008) identified 907 agencies in the U.S. that investigated one or more cases of human trafficking, representing 6.7% of the sample population. Between 2000 and 2006, the number of human trafficking cases reported to law enforcement increased from 175 to 750. Within the same time period, the number of agencies investigating human trafficking cases increased from 54 to 97. In 2000, law enforcement agencies investigated three cases per year on average and investigated an average of eight cases per year by 2006. Medium to large agencies investigate about 6 to
7 cases per year.

In another study, 23% of law enforcement agencies in a random sample had “conducted at least one investigation related to human trafficking in the past three years and 17% reported having made at least one arrest related to this crime” (Wilson et al., 2006, p. 155). However, 63% of agencies that conducted an investigation did not have training, and 64% of agencies with arrests did not have training.

**Investigative strategies for handling human trafficking cases.** Farrell et al. (2008) found “the most common investigative responses used by law enforcement to build cases are collaboration with other law enforcement agencies (78 percent) followed by the use of surveillance (70 percent), undercover operations (61 percent), and raids (60 percent)” (p. 76). In another study, 25% of law enforcement respondents reported becoming involved in cases through collaboration with other law enforcement agencies, and 32% reported becoming involved in cases while investigating other crimes (Clawson et al., 2006).

Law enforcement officers may threaten to charge suspected victims with crimes in order to compel them to provide information about traffickers (AHRM, 2008). In addition to traditional reactive approaches, agencies with experiences investigating human trafficking can take a pro-active approach by collecting evidence that may be connected to human trafficking while investigating other crimes. Moreover, a majority of respondents (57%) reported strengthening cases by utilizing supportive services for victims (Farrell et al., 2008). Connecting victims to services breaks away from viewing individuals as witness or criminals and treats them as victims, which is facilitated by the
human trafficking paradigm (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). This strategy incorporates relationship building into law enforcement practices and helps to establish trust with victims, who may initially be suspicious of law enforcement and who may eventually be willing to cooperate in investigations (AHRM, 2008; Farrell et al., 2008).

Out of 110 agencies that reported investigating human trafficking cases, the distribution of types of cases was almost even: 36% reported sex trafficking cases; 34% reported labor trafficking cases; and 30% reported investigating both sex and labor trafficking cases (Farrell et al., 2008). This finding is somewhat different the Department of State estimation that 70% of cases are sex trafficking and 30% are cases of labor trafficking (U.S. Dept. of State, 2004).

**Impact of law enforcement perceptions of human trafficking on investigations.** When agencies recognize human trafficking as a problem, they are more likely to investigate cases. Farrell et al. (2008) found that medium to large agencies were 2.6 times more likely to investigate cases of labor trafficking of non-U.S. citizens when the agency perceived human trafficking as a problem in its community. Medium to large agencies were “5.7 times more likely to investigate a case of human trafficking than those medium to large agencies that thought sex trafficking of non-U.S. citizens was not prevalent in their community” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 60).

**Impact of training on investigations.** Agencies that implement human trafficking training are more likely to perceive the crime as a problem in their communities (Wilson et al., 2006). In addition, agencies that implement human trafficking training are more likely to identify cases. From a random sample, Farrell et al.
(2008) found that “approximately 20 percent of agencies with human trafficking training identified a case of human trafficking compared to only 4.4 percent of those agencies with no training” (p. 53). This discrepancy was further demonstrated by a sample of medium to large agencies, where 50% of those with training identified trafficking cases, and 13% of those without training identified cases. This study calculated that when controlling for other factors, “training increases the odds of identifying a case [by] 2.3 times” (p. 59).

**Impact of agency protocols on investigations.** Agencies with a protocol to investigate human trafficking cases are more likely to identify cases. In a random sample, Farrell et al. (2008) determined that about 27% of agencies with a protocol conducted investigations, whereas 5.6% of agencies without protocols conducted human trafficking investigations. Medium to large agencies further illustrate this conclusion, as 68.2% of agencies with a protocol identified cases of human trafficking, and 21.6% of agencies without protocols identified such cases. This study calculated that when controlling for other factors, “having a protocol increases the odds of identifying and investigating cases of human trafficking [by] 3.1 times” (p. 59).

**Impact of personnel and/or specialized units on investigations.** Agencies that dedicate specialized units or personnel to investigate human trafficking are more likely to identify and investigate cases. In a random sample, Farrell et al. (2008) discovered that about 44% of agencies with a specialized unit or personnel identified human trafficking cases, as opposed to 5.7% of agencies without specialized units or personnel that identified such cases. Moreover, 73% of medium to large agencies with specialized units
or personnel identified trafficking cases, in contrast to 19% of medium to large agencies without specialized units or personnel. This study calculated that when controlling for other factors, “agencies having a unit or personnel assigned to investigate cases of human trafficking are 2.7 times more likely to actually identify and investigate a case” (p. 59).

**Impact of human trafficking task forces on investigations.** Agencies that utilize or participate in multi-agency human trafficking task forces are more likely to identify and investigate cases. On average, task force agencies identified and investigated 36 cases between 2000 and 2006, compared to non-task force agencies that identified and investigated 15 cases in the same time period (Farrell et al., 2008).

**Arrests, Prosecutions, and Convictions**

Between 2000 and 2006, the number of human trafficking cases increased from 175 to 750, respectively. Within the same time period, agencies focusing exclusively on sex trafficking made “an average of 14 arrests.” Agencies focusing exclusively on labor trafficking made “an average of 6 arrests,” and agencies focusing on both sex and labor trafficking “made an average of 18 arrests” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 70). Between 2000 and 2006, task force agencies made an average of 12 arrests for human trafficking compared to eight arrests made by non-task force agencies. Furthermore, agents with experience collecting evidence, working with victims, and collaborating with other agencies on human trafficking cases conducted investigations more quickly (Bales & Lize, 2005). Investigations did not lead to arrest in 56% of cases. At the same time, in cases that did lead to arrests, 46% resulted in convictions, and only 3% of cases where arrests were made resulted in acquittals. Out of 118 agencies, 32% filed federal charges,
61% of which were prosecuted under the TVPA. Seventy-five percent of task force agencies brought formal charges against perpetrators, whereas 45% of non-task force agencies brought formal changes. Out of 48 agencies to bring state charges, 41% consisted of prostitution, and the remaining state charges consisted of “kidnapping, rape, assault, and state-level human trafficking charges” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 79).

Other reports specified the number and results of cases investigated by different federal agencies and task forces. With the assistance of the Department of Labor’s Civil Rights Division, the U.S. Attorney General’s Office prosecuted over 150 cases resulting in more than 300 convictions and guilty pleas (Senior Policy Operating Group, 2008). ICE opened over 1200 trafficking cases since 2003, which resulted in more than 300 convictions for human trafficking offenses. ICE secured 64 convictions of “U.S. citizens who sexually exploit children overseas” (p. 1). Twenty-three human trafficking task forces participated in the Innocence Lost Initiative, a federal and state collaboration. This effort led to the discovery and release of more than 400 children and 308 federal and state criminal convictions. In addition, the FBI’s Civil Rights Unit investigated 535 human trafficking cases between 2000 and 2006 (Seekle & Siskin, 2008, p. 31). In the 15 cases identified in Wilson and Dalton (2007), penalties ranged from 5 to 50 years, in federal prison, and even life prison sentences (p. 39).

At the same time, penalties for human trafficking offenses are slight, especially when compared to those of drug trafficking. Under federal law, “the statutory maximum for sale into involuntary servitude is only ten years per count, whereas the statutory maximum for dealing in ten grams of LSD or distributing a kilo of heroin is life”
(Richard, 1999, p. 33). One case in Maryland highlights this discrepancy.

In a 1996 trafficking case involving Russian and Ukrainian women, who had answered ads to be au pairs, sales clerks, and waitresses, but were forced to provided sexual services and live in a massage parlor in Bethesda, Maryland, the Russian-American massage parlor owner was fined. He entered a plea bargain and charges were dropped with the restriction that he would not operate a business again in Montgomery County. The women, who had not been paid any salary and were charged $150 dollars for their housing, were deported or left the US voluntarily. (Richard, 1999, p. 33)

Additionally, human trafficking offenses are difficult to prove and often involve more resources to prosecute than are available.

**Barriers to Investigation of Human Trafficking Cases**

**Lack of training, protocols, and resources.** Universally, law enforcement officers of all levels have stated that agencies lack training, protocols, and resources to combat human trafficking in their communities (AHRM, 2008; Bales & Lize, 2005; Clawson et al., 2006; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Identifying trafficking victims is said to be “one of the most challenging tasks for law enforcement” (Civil Rights Division, 2006, p. 5). One study illustrates the importance of law enforcement education about human trafficking. In 11 of 12 cases analyzed in Bales and Lize’s study (2005), law enforcement officers did not identify cases as human trafficking initially until service providers
brought the cases to their attention. In four cases, victims escaped their traffickers on their own, and in four other cases, private citizens assisted in their escapes. Without adequate training, identifying victims is even more difficult. In a random sample, Farrell et al. (2008) uncovered that 53% of respondents lacked training, 45% lacked protocols, and 62% lacked resources to human trafficking investigations and prosecutions.

Human trafficking cases necessitate funding, specialized training, personnel, and time. When law enforcement agencies have limited resources, it is even more difficult to dedicate agents to investigate cases that are considered “the most labor- and time-intensive” cases, according to the Department of Justice (U.S. Dept. of State, 2004, p. 24). For instance, state law enforcement agencies in Minnesota conveyed the need for more federal funds to provide resources required to investigate trafficking cases, especially because they are more time-consuming and resource-intensive (AHRM, 2008). To further illustrate this point, about 43% of agencies reported that sex trafficking cases took longer than 3 months (Farrell et al., 2008). In Minnesota, “one sex trafficking case from May 2007 took more than eighteen months to investigate” (AHRM, 2008, p, 100). One study of law enforcement agencies with known human trafficking activity found that 32% of respondents reported that cases lasted anywhere from 3 months to more than one year, and 24% reported that cases lasted anywhere from one week to three months (Clawson et al., 2006). A case study report found that out of 12 cases the duration of investigation ranged between one month and three years and seven months. The length of time starting from the beginning of investigations to the day of sentencing ranged between four months and five years and eleven months (Bales & Lize, 2005).
Part of the shortage of resources includes the lack of foreign language-speaking law enforcement officers and the lack of translators, who are necessary when working with victims who do not speak English as a first language (Bales & Lize, 2005; Clawson et al., 2006; Richard, 1999). About 63% of respondents cited the need for translators as an obstacle to investigations (Farrell et al., 2008). During in-depth interviews, professionals in Minnesota noted “issues of competence, professionalism and confidentiality” with translators. Some translators felt that their security was threatened and declined to assist trafficking victims. Some translators refused to interpret victims’ testimony because the victims’ experiences were cultural taboo (AHRM, 2008, p. 55).

**Absence of state human trafficking legislation.** The lack of clarity of law enforcement roles in human trafficking cases has been partially attributed to the inadequacy of state legislation. First, while human trafficking may be categorized as prostitution, kidnapping, or assault, for instance, these state laws are not suitable for identifying, investigating, or prosecuting human trafficking cases. Second, the scope of prostitution laws does not necessarily include traffickers and, in fact, criminalize the victim (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Third, without a state law, law enforcement will continue to view human trafficking mainly as a federal responsibility. Advocates of human trafficking legislation at the state level argue “the state will improve response and put more power in the hands of local agencies” (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, p. 41). Not only could shorter investigation durations by local authorities conserve resources, but they could also benefit victims.

**Lack of law enforcement collaboration.** There are discrepancies between
understandings of federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies’ roles in human trafficking cases. Federal agencies rely on local law enforcement evidence, and local agencies recognize their instrumental role in trafficking investigations. Meanwhile local law enforcement agencies do not have the resources to investigate cases of human trafficking. In 2004, the Department of Justice stated in its *Anti-Trafficking Bulletin*, “as first responders and the ‘eyes and ears’ for the coal community, local law enforcement is in the best position to initially recognize, uncover, and respond to circumstances that may appear to be a routine street crime, but may ultimately turn out to be a human trafficking case” (Civil Rights Division, 2004, p. 5).

Testimonies from local law enforcement agencies are sometimes at odds with federal expectations. One respondent stated, “local law enforcement agencies have too many other issues to contend with, so these cases are ignored or referred federally” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 35). Another study determined that local law enforcement agencies with experience with human trafficking cases recognized “they were often in the best position” to identify and investigate human trafficking, but at the same time, lacked the training and resources to collaborate with federal agencies (Clawson et al., 2006, p. 42). Because trafficking cases have the potential for great complexity, the responsibility of conducting investigations may be unclear (AHRM, 2008; Logan, Walker & Hunt, 2009). However, “collaboration is essential to achieve the overall goal of justice for the victims – justice meaning legal recourse against those who have exploited them, and restoring the victim as a self-determining member of society” (Bales & Lize, 2005, p. 125).
In addition, there is a lack of a uniform, centralized database for local, state, and federal law enforcement agencies (AHRM, 2008; Richard, 1999). Without statistics of reported incidents, arrests, prosecutions, and convictions of trafficking offenses, it is difficult to demonstrate human trafficking is a social problem and henceforth, does not elicit law enforcement response. In addition, without statistical evidence, funders may not endorse services for human trafficking (AHRM, 2008).

Without training and protocols, law enforcement cannot assemble a collaborative effort to establish human trafficking cases. A report submitted to the National Institute of Justice stated that multiple agencies need to work together in order to effectively identify victims, investigate cases, and support prosecution of traffickers (Bales & Lize, 2005, p. 77). Collaboration is especially important to cases involving interstate transportation and organized crime coordinated between cities. Because specialized units or personnel may handle these cases, other line officers may encounter victims may not have proper training to identify victims (AHRM, 2008). An agent with the FBI stated, “investigations must be unified and focused, but that’s why [human trafficking] cases don’t get investigation I think. … There are no uniform procedures in place” (Bales & Lize, 2005, p. 126).

One case of sex trafficking illustrates the need for collaboration among law enforcement.

Central Pennsylvania local authorities, who at one time did not focus many resources on highway prostitution, became
concerned about it when two bodies, both prostitutes, were found in the vicinity and a third, a 16-year-old prostitute, was thrown from a truck but survived…. [At the Gables, a truck stop not far from the Miracle Mile and one of the focal points for the investigation, law enforcement dealt with one prostitute at a time rather than investigating the overall prostitution ring…. One Pennsylvania state trooper used a binder with photos to sort out the names and faces associated with the investigation. As early as 2002, he began sharing the photos with Ohio law enforcement, hoping to identify the prostitutes…. Pennsylvania state police reportedly called the federal authorities for help when they could not thwart the problem. This brought the FBI, the Internal Revenue Service, U.S. postal inspectors, and federal prosecutors together for a coordinated response. (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, pp. 33-34)

**Lack of collaboration between law enforcement and service providers.**

Collaboration between law enforcement agencies and service providers is important because service providers are instrumental in helping victims become stable enough to work with law enforcement officers. Service providers also connect law enforcement officers with victims and witnesses (Bales & Lize, 2005). The lack of collaboration between social service and health care providers and law enforcement poses a barrier to
human trafficking investigations (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008). For agencies that are not well-connected to local social service providers, allocating supportive services for victims may be time consuming, and special protective services may be required (Gallagher & Holmes, 2008). Furthermore, law enforcement and social services define and approach problems differently, which may cause miscommunication and misunderstanding between professionals (AHRM, 2008).

Just as law enforcement agencies lack training and resources about human trafficking, service providers lack these important elements as well. If service providers cannot identify trafficking victims, are not prepared to effectively work with them, or do not understand the legal procedures in trafficking cases, then the collaborative relationship with law enforcement cannot function. Professionals who provide supportive services may not be equipped to identify victims, and therefore, may overlook important medical, legal, and psychological services they may need. Cultural competency is also very important when working with trafficking victims. In the case of sex trafficking, some cultures cast shame and dishonor on prostitutes. Knowing non-evasive interviewing techniques is particularly important in identifying victims (AHRM, 2008; Bales & Lize, 2005; International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP], 2006; Logan et al., 2009; Moossy, 2008).

Clawson et al. (2003) discovered that the majority of trafficking victims are referred for supportive social services by other service providers or law enforcement, according to 95% of respondents. This study found that 28% of the 98 supportive service agencies with experience working with trafficking victims had formal human trafficking
protocols. Ninety-nine percent of respondents stated that their knowledge of the issue was based on professional work experience, thus emphasizing the need for trained service providers.

At the same time, human trafficking task forces have established working relationships between social service and healthcare providers and law enforcement. Building trafficking cases in collaboration with victim support services occurred with 82% of task force agencies and 49% of non-task force agencies (Farrell et al., 2008). Bales and Lize (2005) also emphasized the importance of inter-agency collaboration and human trafficking task forces during investigations and prosecutions (p. 126). Goals and objectives can be defined ahead of time, thus potentially preventing miscommunication and facilitating working relationships between agencies.

**Lack of victim cooperation.** Victims may not view themselves as such, or they may not want to participate in investigations out of fear for their safety. They may not trust the legal system, may not know their rights, or fear criminal liability (AHRM, 2008; Clawson et al., 2006; IACP, 2006; Richard, 1999). Victims have reported instances of alleged police misconduct, abuse, and sexual assault against them, and some police officers play roles in the criminal trafficking network (AHRM, 2008; Hodges, 2008). One woman informed the interviewer in one study, “police are frequent customers, though, and they walk in like they own the place. In fact, one of the cops ran his own house somewhere in Brooklyn and was always trying to get me to be a part of his posse” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 69).

Traffickers often force and coerce individuals into trafficking using violence,
threats of deportation, or threats of retaliation against family members, which expectedly deters victims from engaging with law enforcement (AHRM, 2008; Farrell et al., 2008; Logan et al., 2009). Victims’ safety may be in further danger, as investigations last for months and traffickers may seek to retaliate against them (AHRM, 2008). Additionally, trafficking victims may refuse to cooperate with investigations because it may cause them to relive their traumatic experiences (AHRM, 2008; IACP, 2006; Moossy, 2008).

**Immigration status.** Historically, immigrants have distrusted law enforcement officers. Indeed, if officials do not recognize immigrant women as human trafficking victims, they are susceptible to deportation if convicted of prostitution or other crimes, especially individuals who are in the country without legal documentation or whose traffickers have confiscated their documentation (Logan et al., 2009; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Even individuals who are refugees and lawful permanent residents with documentation can be deported (AHRM, 2008). Furthermore, because of such distrust and because of possible threats of harm from their traffickers, victims of international trafficking are less likely to report their victimization. In an effort to build trust in the community, some local law enforcement agencies enforce policies not to inquire about citizenship. However, a key indicator of trafficking is the confiscation of legal identifying documents (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008; IACP, 2006). The role of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) sends a conflicting message to international trafficked victims. ICE is the chief executor of deportation, while at the same time, is a principle investigator of trafficking cases as well (AHRM, 2008).

Immigrants who are recognized as victims of trafficking may apply for T Visas or
U Visas that extend their stay in the United States. However, there are numerous obstacles to obtaining these visas. Victims are required to actively cooperate with law enforcement investigations, which they may be reluctant to do. As mentioned before, their willingness to cooperate in investigations greatly depends upon a strong sense of trust between victims and law enforcement. T- and U-Visas come with variegated eligibility restrictions, and visa applications are expensive, time-consuming, and are often delayed in processing. Victims’ material needs may not be adequately met (i.e., staying in homeless shelters, depending on food pantries and soup kitchens) until they are granted permission to work (AHRM, 2008; Logan et al., 2009).

**Definition of Human Trafficking**

**Ohio Legislation**

On January 6, 2009, the Ohio state legislature passed an anti-trafficking provision into the Ohio Revised Code, making it the 40th state to enact human trafficking legislation. The anti-trafficking provision defines human trafficking as a “scheme or plan” with the intent “to compel a victim or victims to engage in sexual activity for hire, to engage in a performance that is obscene, sexually oriented, or nudity oriented, or to be a model or participant in the production of material that is obscene, sexually oriented or nudity oriented” (Ohio Revised Code 2929.01 (AAA.1)). Human trafficking is punishable under state law when it involves two of the following felony offenses: general sex offenses, abduction, compelling prostitution, promoting prostitution, engaging in a pattern of corrupt activity, illegal use of a minor in a nudity-oriented performance, and endangering children. However, the definition and punishments for labor trafficking are
not included in the legislation.

Individuals convicted under the Ohio Revised Code of human trafficking are subject to prison sentences ranging from two to eight years. Engaging in a pattern of corrupt activity under the human trafficking provision increases the crime from a second to a first-degree felony. However, no cases have been filed using the human trafficking enhancement. While the enactment of this provision is a marker of progress, the state law is not as detailed and expansive as the federal TVPA. As of May 2010, the Ohio General Assembly has introduced two bills, House Bill 493 and Senate Bill 235, which propose to establish a stand-alone human trafficking law at the state level.

House Bill 280, which was later enacted as R.C. 2929.01, established the Trafficking In Persons Study Commission (TIP) through the Ohio Attorney General’s office. The Legal and Legislative Sub-Committee of the TIP Study Commission has set forth legislative recommendations to create a stronger anti-trafficking law and to strengthen existing state statutes involving human trafficking activities, for instance, kidnapping, abduction, compelling prostitution, organized criminal activity, and conspiracy. The Sub-Committee also recommends including “involuntary servitude” under the definition of human trafficking, in order to include labor trafficking offenses (TIP Study Commission, 2010, p. 3). The aims of strengthening state anti-trafficking measures are to increase penalties, expand applicability for the purposes of prosecution, and ultimately to deter human trafficking in Ohio.
Federal Legislation

The Victims of Trafficking and Violence Prevention Act of 2000 defines severe forms of trafficking as:

a. sex trafficking in which a commercial sex act is induced by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform such an act has not attained 18 years of age; or
b. the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery (P.L. 104-368 §103 [8])

The Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act was reauthorized in 2003, 2005, and 2008. It was renamed as the William Wilberforce Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2008 and is commonly referred to as the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA). The overarching condition of human trafficking is the absence of freedom. A person or many persons exercise power and control over victims, in order to maintain their servitude. Trafficking can occur domestically within the borders of a country ands across national borders. Transportation is an element in both domestic and international human trafficking, in that individuals can be transported across state or national borders (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). However, transportation is not always necessary (Davis, 2006; Hodge, 2008).
Although the term trafficking might naturally imply that transportation must be an element of the crime, that assumption is not necessarily true (Farrell et al, 2008). The stipulation emphasized in sex trafficking of adults is force, fraud, or coercion. The elements of force, fraud, and coercion are implicit in cases where minors are trafficked, and such cases do not require proof of force, fraud or coercion, because minors, in fact, cannot legally consent to sex. The labor trafficking provision can be explained as restricting the freedom of a person to compel him or her to work under illegal labor conditions for below minimum-wage payment or for no payment at all. Again, the focus is on the force, fraud, and coercion elements of the definition (U.S. Dept. of State, 2009).

**Redefinition of Criminal Behavior**

Various paradigms are used to view prostitution and the commercial sex industry in general. The commercial sex industry incorporates the enterprise of exchanging anything of value for sex acts, sexual service, or sexual entertainment, including prostitution, pornography, strip clubs, brothels, massage parlors, sex tourism, and more.

There are three identifiable intellectual responses to prostitution in general. The first of these, the prohibitionist standpoint, advocates to make prostitution illegal and calls for those who sell sex to be held accountable for this crime under the law. The abolitionist standpoint advocates for criminalizing the buyers, pimps, and traffickers, rather than the individuals who actually provide the sexual services. The decriminalization standpoint argues that prostitution, pornography, and other sexual services are a legitimate form of work and calls for the elimination of laws that criminalize these behaviors (Miller & Jayasundara, 2001).
These intellectual frameworks are found in various institutional responses. Human trafficking law draws upon an abolitionist standpoint as intellectual and rational foundations for both sex and labor trafficking. At the same time, U.S. federal and state laws currently utilize a prohibitionist standpoint toward prostitution and a decriminalization standpoint to pornography. Moreover, the tenants of a global market-capitalism economy incentivizes cheap labor, in order to produce goods at the lowest possible prices for consumers and increase competition between firms; while at the same time outlawing slavery, involuntary servitude, and other forms of forced labor.

Involuntary servitude is defined by P.L. 110-457 §103 (5) as:

(A) any scheme, plan, or pattern intended to cause a person to believe that, if the person did not enter into or continue in such condition, that person or another person would suffer serious harm or physical restraint; or

(B) the abuse or threatened abuse of the legal process.

Forced labor is defined in P.L. 110-457 § 222 (a) as labor or services, which are obtained through the following means:

(1) by means of force, threats of force, physical restraint, or threats of physical restraint to that person or another person;

(2) by means of serious harm or threats of serious harm to that person or another person;

(3) by means of the abuse or threatened abuse of law or legal process; or
(4) by means of any scheme, plan, or pattern intended to cause the person to believe that, if that person did not perform such labor or services, that person or another person would suffer serious harm or physical restraint.

In general, there is popular resistance to government regulations and monitoring of business practices, and therefore, creates a contradiction of values between protecting individuals from exploitation and the maintenance of a free market economy. The various methods of controlling behavior, as with human trafficking, prostitution, pornography and laws and policies, are not necessarily compatible with each other, leading to conflicting messages within society at large.

The abolitionist standpoint seeks to frame human trafficking as a human rights issue. This stance has incited activists and decision makers to protect individuals from commercial sexual exploitation and labor rights violations. With the passing of the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000, individuals exploited in the commercial sex industry were recast as victims, rather than criminals, and the individuals who facilitate exploitation to be punished under the law. However, on the state and local levels, enforcing this law has been limited and sometimes unrecognized. Local law enforcement officers operate on routines that elicit direct responses during criminal encounters. The definition of human trafficking challenges law enforcement officers to reframe behavior “that long existed as its own crime type,” namely prostitution, kidnapping, rape, assault, which require them to change their routine responses to such incidents (AHRM, 2008, p.89; Farrell et al., 2008, p. 22). In addition, local officers often enforce city, county, and state laws, very few of which have enacted explicit human
trafficking laws. Defining elements of other crimes as human trafficking challenges law enforcement to view criminal activity differently and to assign it a higher priority than previously given to individuals who have historically been at odds with law enforcement. This new framework contradicts the stance of authorities, who “have been reluctant to intervene in known prostitute rings, sweatshops and other forms of exploitation because of the belief that these victims were complicit in their own victimization” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 22). The term human trafficking also omits the conditions of slavery under which victims survive their experiences (Richard, 1999, p. 31).

To illustrate this point, one study affirmed, “the juvenile justice system in Columbus treats juveniles arrested for prostitution as offenders instead of victims,” and noted that such cases are not investigated or reported to federal law enforcement (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, p. 32). In addition, girls arrested for juvenile prostitution are sometimes charged with lesser crimes such as loitering, disorderly conduct, runaway status, curfew violations, probation violation, and status offenses (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, p. 38; Shared Hope International, 2008, p. 50).

The likelihood of being identified, arrested, and prosecuted for human trafficking is extremely low for two main reasons. First, trafficking is not considered a high priority by law enforcement due to perceptions of the crime and lack of awareness and training. Second, the definition of human trafficking is relatively new compared to other crimes and requires officers to handle cases differently. For instance, in cases of sex trafficking, prostitutes are often penalized for their own sexual exploitation (Miko et al., 2003, p. 3).
**Force, fraud, and Coercion**

The Trafficking Victim Protection Act stipulates that the use of force, fraud, or coercion is used against people in cases of human trafficking. The use of force is characterized by physical harm to another person and may include kidnapping, beating, starvation, rape, torture, imprisonment, forced pregnancy and abortion, and the sale of a human being (Hughes, 2003). Traffickers use fraudulent means to obtain their victims. Examples of fraud include signed contracts to work in another country where work or working conditions are misrepresented and the promise to compensate individuals for their work and refusing adequate payment (Batstone, 2008; U.S. Department of State, 2009; Raymond & Hughes, 2001). The use of coercion consists of multiple scenarios, some of which include threats of serious harm to the victims and their family members, controlled movement, travel and identification documents, money, and contact with others, debt bondage, verbal and psychological abuse, threats of deportation, to name a few (Batstone, 2008; Davis, 2006; Hodge, 2008). Debt bondage as defined by P.L. 110-457 §103 (4) as:

> The status or condition of a debtor arising from a pledge by the debtor of his or her personal services or of those of a person under his or her control as a security for debt, if the value of those services as reasonably assessed is not applied toward the liquidation of the debt or the length and nature of those services are not respectively limited and defined. Acts of psychological abuse entail the threatening of physical harm toward an individual and/or those the individual
cares about, used as a form of coercion to keep the trafficked victim in a state of fear and helplessness and under the control of the trafficker.

In instances of international labor and sex trafficking into the United States, individuals may be promised an American education, a good job, high wages, and a better life (U.S. Congress, 2006; Logan et al., 2009; Clawson, Small, Go & Myles, 2003). Traffickers accumulate their pool of potential laborers by word of mouth in smaller villages. Traffickers also organize front organizations (i.e. employment, travel, and modeling agencies) and target vulnerable populations through professional-looking advertisements (Richard, 1999, p. 5). Some families may sell their children to traffickers either because they cannot afford to care for them or because they believe in the opportunities offered to their children (Seekle & Siskin, 2008, p. 4). In other cases, traffickers kidnap both adults and children and force them into slavery (Davis, 2006; Logan et al., 2009).

Victims are held in debt bondage to traffickers for bringing them to their destinations and are told they must pay exorbitant amounts of money for travel and lodging costs. Victims are falsely bound to pay such costs incurred by traffickers because they have signed illegitimate contracts, unbeknownst to them. Oftentimes, traffickers take away victims’ passports as a means of controlling their movement. Traffickers also use the threat of deportation, the threat of violence, and sadistic punishment against victims (Farrell et al., 2008; Raymond & Hughes, 2001; Richard, 1999).
From February 1997 to August 1998 in Woodbine, Maryland, a pastor was bringing in Estonian children, ages 14 to 17, promising them they would attend Calvary Chapel Christian Academy but then forcing them to clean roach-infested apartments and install office furniture. The children were working 15 hours a day and being paid about $10 to $50 a week. Some children were threatened that they would be sent home if they refused, and punishments included skipping meals and standing in one spot for prolonged periods. (Richard, 1999, p. 22)

Whether for the purpose of sex or labor, traffickers use physical abuse as a means of subordinating victims, including beating, rape, starvation, forced drug use, confinement, and seclusion (Miller & Jayasundara, 2001; U.S. Department of State, 2009). International trafficking victims are isolated from the public, most likely do not speak English, and are not familiar with legal working conditions in the U.S. (Farrell et al., 2008; Logan et al., 2009; Raymond & Hughes, 2001; Richard, 1999). Domestic trafficking victims are also kept isolated from the public and their friends, family, and even children. In some cases, women are locked in rooms, and in other cases, guards monitor the premises where they live. Traffickers and pimps further restrict victims’ freedom by controlling their movement from place to place, as well as their daily activities (Raymond & Hughes, 2001).

These circumstances allow trafficking cases to go undetected by law enforcement. Furthermore, as evidenced in labor trafficking cases in Columbus, Ohio, “most of the traffickers were prominent doctors or business people, with money, influence, and respect
in their communities,” (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, p. 22). Discovering and prosecuting traffickers who wield considerable strong political and economic power is difficult because of their ties to the community and associations with institutions of power.

U.S. citizens who become victims of human trafficking are often lured into the commercial sex industry, sometimes by strangers but usually by someone they know. Some women are married to their traffickers or pimps who physically, sexually, and psychologically abuse them in order to condition them into submission (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). Pimps and their appointed recruiters often provide shelter, food, and other resources to young women and after a certain amount of time, they use guilt against the young women to return the favors in the form of sex acts (Davis, 2006). Pimps and recruiters look for females and even males in common public areas, such as bus stations, shopping malls, and outside courts and jails, where they can easily identify potential recruits for their supply. Traffickers and pimps also kidnap girls, remove them from their social ties, and transport them to different cities.

The glamorization of the prostitution lifestyle is also used as a recruitment method (Davis, 2006; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Some women and girls enter into prostitution initially, and others are gradually introduced to prostitution. Raymond and Hughes (2001) explained,

Stripping is often a first step into prostitution. Strip clubs initially hire young women to serve drinks and then pressure them into dancing and eventually into prostitution to make more money for themselves and the club. The women said
that the pressure is constant, and both subtle and direct. One U.S. service provider working with women in the sex industry reported women in the strip clubs soon learn that it’s the prostitution, not the stripping, that brings in the money. (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 56)

Girls and women are convinced they will live lavish, posh lifestyles with expensive clothes, cars, and more by selling their bodies, only to learn that the glamorized lifestyle is an illusion. Pimps keep almost all of the money. For instance, women from Mexico, the Dominican Republic, and Honduras forced to work in New York City brothels were allowed to keep $3-$4 out of $25-$30 for sexual services. The money the women did keep went toward purchasing food, laundry, lubricants, and condoms (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). Prostitutes are often given profit quotas and if they are not met, the women are “severely punished by the pimp, usually in front of other women” to make an example of them (Davis, 2006).

Trafficked victims are raped, beaten and sexually battered (Davis, 2006; Estes & Weiner, 2001; Logan et al., 2009; Miller & Jayasundara, 2001; U.S. Department of State, 2009). Traffickers not only use violence against victims in front of others as a punishment but also use violence to humiliate, torture, and satisfy their own sadism. Several women reported how violence was used against them. One woman described how the brothel guards took pills to sustain their erections and gang raped her for five consecutive hours. Another woman, whose husband was also her pimp, told an interviewer how she received severe punishment when she refused to have anal sex with
her husband’s friends: “I refused. Then my husband tortured me a week. He decided to train me himself. It was horrible. A lot of things happened.” In one woman’s experience in human trafficking she was sold to many pimps over time and described violence against her: “I had one pimp in the States who liked to whip me with thin belts and urinate on my body … Sometimes he would even invite his friends” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 61).

Pimps ensure that women accept their servitude by breaking down their personal will and self esteem, while at the same time creating absolute dependence on the pimp. Elements of “pimp control,” including physical, sexual, and emotional violence, threats, coercion, purposeful manipulation, economic dependence, and isolation, are used to recruit, brainwash, and subordinate women and children. Because of these conditions victims’ self-esteem and means of survival become dependent upon obeying traffickers and pimps (Davis, 2006; Jeffreys, 2010; Miller & Jayasundara, 2001; Shared Hope International, 2008).

Women and girls are shown pornography to condition them into performing the sex acts they observe. One domestic trafficking victim from Minnesota reported, she “remembered that as early as age 3, she was used in pornography. She was made to perform at ‘pornofests’ from age 3-12 that were held in rural Minnesota barns, basements and private residences with up to 50 men in attendance” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, pp. 55-56). Pimps and traffickers also film sexual encounters with johns and threaten to distribute copies of it to their families and the general public in order to blackmail them into staying in prostitution. The training in performing efficient and effective sexual acts
is called being “turned out,” with the end goal of becoming a “thoroughbred” or professional prostitute (Davis, 2006, p. 17). This process may include:

acts of whippings with objects, beatings with blunt objects, strangling with phone cords, rape, pouring alcohol in wounds, throwing girls out of moving vehicles, pouring alcohol on the girl and lighting her on fire and various other sickening torture techniques (Davis, 2006, p. 17)

These punishments are justified by the “Pimp Code,” a set of rules for pimps and prostitutes’ expectations of behavior. For instance, prostitutes are not allowed to make eye contact with pimps or johns and are only allowed to talk when given permission to speak. If caught doing so by the pimp, a prostitute will receive severe physical punishment. One woman reported, “I’ve been beat with hangers, tied to a bedpost. Beaten for being with a trick too long. I was robbed and raped by a trick and then beaten by the pimp for letting that happen” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 59). The Pimp Code is closely followed and deviance is met with strong force.

**Human Trafficking Operations**

**Trafficking Routes and Networks**

Worldwide, trafficked victims are taken from, transported to, or transferred through more than 150 countries, according to the 2009 Trafficking in Persons Report (U.S. Dept. of State, 2009). In the United States, children who are trafficked from other countries are sold to families who adopt them or are sold into prostitution. Of all of the people trafficked into the United States, most victims have come from Mexico, according
to one government report (U.S. Congress, 2005). Besides Mexico, international trafficking victims mainly come from Thailand, Vietnam, China, Russia, Ukraine, and the Czech Republic. Other source countries include the Philippines, Korea, Malaysia, Latvia, Hungary, Poland, Brazil, Honduras, as well as Guatemala, Zambia, and Cameroon (Batstone, 2007; Richard, 1999).

Furthermore, officials have documented cases of forced labor in more than 90 U.S. cities. Most cases forced labor cases were reported in California, Florida, New York, and Texas, which are noted to be major transit points (U.S. Congress, 2005). Los Angeles, New York City, and Miami reportedly have the highest amount of visa fraud cases. In addition, Atlanta was identified as a major entry point for about 90 Thai women between 1994 and 1995 when the city was preparing for the 1995 Olympic Games. Other cities of import include Cleveland, Houston, Orlando, and Washington D.C. Korean and ethnically Korean Chinese women are transported through Guam and Saipan, both U.S. territories incorporated in the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI), because they are not required to have visas. They are often told they will be traveling to the mainland. However, “these women are forced to provide sexual services for men in nightclubs and/or work in slave-like conditions in sweatshops” (Richard, 1999, p. 11). Chinese and Japanese criminal organizations have established money lending and sex tourism operations in the CNMI.

Trafficking routes in the United States have also been reported between Ohio to Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Arkansas, Virginia, Georgia, Maryland, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, California, Florida, Louisiana, and the District of Columbia (Wilson &
Sex trafficking networks have been identified between Cleveland and Detroit, Toledo and Detroit, and Toledo and Harrisburg (Davis, 2006).

Traffickers move victims between cities for several reasons. One article stated “traffickers want to ensure ‘fresh faces’ for the clients as well as keep the trafficking victims disoriented so they will not figure out how to contact law enforcement” (Richard, 1999, p. 11). Frequent transportation also serves as a means to keep trafficking victims from forming relationships with each other and from forming relationships with johns (Raymond & Hughes, 2001).

Labor trafficking transportation routes in Ohio are less known among law enforcement and service providers, although there is evidence that labor traffickers are typically high-profile, well-respected individuals in their communities, including doctors and business people (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). These individuals may have acted alone or may be connected with criminal networks.

A nationwide study found that domestic sex traffic victims are “transported from the East coast to the West coast, from the South to the Northeast, and from urban to rural and rural to urban districts” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 52). Traffickers also target transient male populations at motels, truck stops, and highway welcome centers (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Victims are also transported to other cities and states for conventions, sporting events, and migrant labor camps. The market for commercial sex thrives in these locations because of the high volume of traffic and a demand for commercial sex. Transient male populations, including military personnel, truck drivers, seasonal workers,
conventioneers, and sex tourists, foster the demand for minor traffic victims and the commercial sex industry in general (Estes & Weiner, 2001).

**Organized Crime**

Human trafficking involves many actors, especially transnational trafficking. These roles include “enforcers, transporters, recruiters, document forgers, brokers, brothel owners, and employment agencies” (Richard, 1999, p. 14). In one study, women who were trafficked into the United States were asked to name the countries of origin of the people who recruited and trafficked them, which included the United States, El Salvador, Mexico, Russia, Ukraine, Finland, Poland, Serbia, Italy, Germany, Jamaica, Japan, Malaysia, Vietnam, and Yemen. The majority of international and domestic victims who participated in this study reported their traffickers where connected to pimp networks in the U.S. (Raymond & Hughes, 2001).

Organized criminal networks, such as gangs and smuggling rings, engage in human trafficking. In the United States, “Chinese and Vietnamese Triads, the Japanese Yakuza, South American drug cartels, the Italian mafia, and Russian gangs increasingly interact with local networks to provide transportation, safe houses, local contacts, and documentation” (U.S. Congress, 2005, p. 122-134). Asian criminal enterprises, including Chinese (45%), Vietnamese (29%), Korean (7.3%), and Japanese, Filipino, Thai, Laotian, Cambodian, and Polynesian (19.7%), traffic Asian women into the U.S. into the commercial sex industry (Richard, 1999). These operations have been recorded in Los Angeles, San Francisco, Sacramento, Las Vegas, Nevada, Dallas, New York City, Philadelphia, and Chicago.
Strikingly, “all levels of Russian organized crime, from individuals to smaller groups to larger syndicates, appear to be involved in trafficking women to the United States” (Richard, 1999, p. 15). The extent to which Russian organized crime is involved in human trafficking activities is debated among law enforcement. However, women from Russia, Ukraine, the Baltic States, and other countries in Central Europe have been trafficked into the commercial sex industry. Instances have been reported in New York and several major cities in Florida. According to the FBI, Russian organized crime have taken hold of up to a dozen erotic dance agencies that employ anywhere between 60 to 200 women, in addition to hundreds of escort services. It is believed that the Russians collaborate with the Italian mafia in New York and New Jersey, to supply and run these establishments. In addition, the FBI has documented cases of Russian women “working long hours for little pay” in hotels in Florida (Richard, 1999, p. 16).

In Ohio, specifically Cleveland, has become a transportation center and destination point for Russian organized crime. Lake Erie provides a means for traffickers to move people from Canada to Ohio. Over 150,000 Russians resided in Toronto as of 1999, and Toronto’s airport has been marked as a trafficking port for human trafficking of Central and Eastern Europeans (Davis, 2006).

Latin American organized crime networks are also involved in human trafficking. Traffickers often pay bribes to law enforcement officials so that they are permitted to continue along their routes. In order to divert law enforcement detection, Latin American traffickers will change travel routes, only select victims of the same ethnicity as their own, and only allow Latino men to patronize their brothels (Richard, 1999).
In one U.S. study, 89% of law enforcement officers who had investigated a case of human trafficking and/or arrested a perpetrator believed human trafficking to be a transnational organized crime; 77% believed it to be an organized crime in the U.S.; and 72% believed it to be organized locally (Wilson et al., 2006). Interviews with key law enforcement respondents in Wilson and Dalton (2007) validated other studies that report sex traffickers are often engaged in the drug trade and/or gangs, and have histories of committing other crimes such as, rape, assault, extortion, homicide, abduction, money laundering, tax evasion, document fraud, and corruption of officials.

In addition to members of organized criminal networks, individuals have been trafficked by family members, intimate partners, friends, or strangers (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). A majority of officers who investigated cases or made human trafficking arrests (67%) believed this crime “human trafficking could be committed by individuals without organized crime connections” (Wilson et al., 2006, p. 158). Regardless of their associations with organized crime, the common thread among those involved in human trafficking crimes is that they have histories of other criminal activity, such as welfare fraud, bank fraud, check forgery, immigration fraud, racketeering, tax evasion, robbery, domestic violence, money laundering, gambling, drugs, firearm offenses, insurance scams, pornography, and auto theft (Raymond & Hughes, 2001).

Traffickers and pimps not only are involved with criminal activity, but are also involved in legitimate business activities, which serve to mask other illicit activities. Such businesses include restaurants, bakeries, construction companies, travel agencies, hotels,
limousine services, nightclubs, beauty salons, employment agencies, telecommunications, computer hardware, and farming (Raymond & Hughes, 2001).

**Market Conditions**

Individuals who are trafficked are no longer treated as human beings, but as a revenue-generating property. In the case of laborers, employers, as well as families, desire cheap sweatshop labor and domestic workers, in order to minimize business and household expenses (Miko, 2004). Moreover, the younger the girls and women are, the more money they will generate for traffickers and pimps (Hodges, 2008). With this in mind, it is important to understand why there is such a large demand for sexual labor. Although the sale of human beings is not a new phenomenon, “the human trafficking crisis has recently been exacerbated by factors that include a global economy, increased travel, high demand for low cost labor, inadequacy of law enforcement and legislation, treatment of trafficking cases as illegal immigration and the potential criminalization of trafficking victims” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 13).

The human trafficking industry generates large profits due to high demand for cheap labor and sex services with little deterrence from law enforcement and governments (Hodges, 2008; Logan et al., 2009; Miko, 2004; Richards, 1999). The advancement in communication technology enables traffickers to coordinate their efforts more efficiently and to draw less suspicion (Farrell et al., 2008). One human rights activist noted, “one of the important aspects of modern technological practice is that it allows the control of people in ways that make the control invisible” (Franklin, 1993, p. 734).
The global marketplace has facilitated conditions that increase traveling across borders with less trade barriers. At the same time, stricter immigration policies make international trafficking more risky, which raises the stakes, and thus profits, for traffickers. In addition, global competition increases competition for producers, which in turn incentivizes the demand for cheap labor, especially in the agricultural industry sectors of farming, dairy, and landscaping (Seekle & Siskin, 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Human trafficking is also profitable because of the high demand on a global scale for services in the commercial sex industry and cheap labor (Seekle & Siskin, 2008).

Human trafficking victims represent for traffickers self-sustaining capital. Traffickers generate profits from “fees charged to the trafficked victim as well as from the profits from the victims’ labor” (Logan et al., 2009, p. 5). In addition, victims’ labor can be exploited repeatedly until they are no longer of value to the trafficker. Traffickers often do not expend their profits to maintain healthy living conditions for victims and force victims to live in crowded conditions (Logan et al., 2009; Richard, 1999).

On a macro scale, the Federal Bureau of Investigation estimated annual trafficking profits to be $9.5 billion, and the International Labour Office calculated approximately $32 billion per year (International Labour Office, 2005). Overall profits for sex trafficking are estimated to range between $7 and $10 billion per year (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). On a micro scale, “traffickers made anywhere from one to eight million in a period ranging from one to six years” (Richard, 1999, p. 19). In Ohio, one pimp who received $600,000 from four prostitutes, while the prostitutes only made $3,000 in one
year (Davis, 2006). Wilson and Dalton (2007) discovered, in one case where victims were servicing at a truck stop, profits totaled more than $1,000 per night per person.

Consumers of the commercial sex industry drive the demand for such services. Although there were a variety of explanations among the respondents, one study revealed reasons for engaging in prostitution and include the following themes: paying for specific sexual favors, having sexual contact with a large number of women, anonymity, and looking for particular physical characteristics (McKeganey, 1994). The bottom line was that the men were seeking sexual satisfaction that required “minimal effort” without the complications of sex with women who were not prostitutes, or in effect, did not require the effort of maintaining relationships (Holzman & Pines, 1989, p. 522). One researcher found that the desire for younger females and “more choices in female bodies” contributed to the demand for human trafficking (Hodges, 2008, p.145). Monto (2004) argued that false assumptions are commonly used to justify prostitution, such as the male biological sexual drive that needs to be satisfied and the assumption that men are entitled to have sexual access to women, thus perpetuating the patriarchal attitude that women’s needs are secondary.

Prostitutes experience high rates of violence and represent a disproportionate amount of murder victims (Monto, 2004). Although the findings in one study (Busch, et al., 2002) did not directly correlate john’s violent attitudes with violent behaviors, the authors did find that the men’s attitudes were associated with violent behaviors toward prostitutes, as argued in feminist theories. Only one percent of study participants admitted using or threatening to use violence as a means to sexual access. The authors
acknowledge that participants may have not admitted or perceived their behavior was violent. Since these are men who were in joh school diversion programs, they may not represent the complete customer population (Busch, et al., 2002).

However, even if a small proportion of prostitution customers are violent, prostitutes turn numerous dates and are still likely to encounter violence, and victim testimony verifies the assumptions made in Busch, et al. (2002). Prostituted women reported high rates of violence against themselves or against other prostituted women they know. Reports of physical violence perpetrated by johns included beatings, stabbings, being thrown from a car, and being “cut in the eye resulting in blindness.”

Women in this study stated that johns sexually assaulted them and that they were made to cooperate in sadistic sex acts. In addition, women reported violent acts such as “being harassed by ‘obsessive men,’ videotaped, robbed, kidnapped, stalked, and destruction of women’s property” (Raymond & Hughes, 2001, p. 73). In addition to these acts of violence, prostituted women are also subject to degrading and humiliating sex acts, which johns will pay more money to perform.

In Ohio specifically, geographical factors also contribute to market conditions for human trafficking. The highly interconnected freeway system facilitates rapid and accessible transportation routes within the state and between states. As mentioned before, the Lake Erie border is another means to transport victims between Canada, as well as other states into Ohio (Davis, 2006).

Additionally, military bases play a major role in promoting the commercial sex industry. “Sexual rest and relaxation” is woven into military culture, thus creating a
demand for strip clubs, brothels, massage parlors and prostitution (Davis, 2006, p. 8).

Wright Patterson Air Force Base, located near Dayton, Ohio, is noteworthy because it employs more than “22,000 people and has over 70 military units,” making it the “fifth largest employer in Ohio and the largest employer at a single location.” Moreover, the base “is the second largest medical center in the Air Force” (Wright Patterson Air Force Base, 2008, par. 7). In other words, there is a large, mostly male population at Wright Patterson Air Force Base, which has fostered the creation of commercial sex industry enterprises in this region of Ohio.

**At-risk Populations**

In the 2009 Trafficking in Persons Report, Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton asserted the seriousness and depravity of women’s vulnerability to human trafficking when she stated, “women still comprise the majority of the world’s poor, unfed, and unschooled. They are still subjected to rape as a tactic of war and exploited by traffickers globally in a billion dollar criminal business” (p. 41). Because of the patriarchal structure in most countries throughout the world, women may lack political rights, economic opportunities, and social disadvantages, which promotes dependence upon men for livelihood. This reality combined with the demand for cheap labor creates the incentive for employers to exploit women, who are “traditionally seen as submissive, cheap, and pliable,” to perform labor “characterized by low wages, hazardous conditions, and an absence of collective bargaining mechanisms” (U.S. Department of State, 2009, p. 36).

Not only are women particularly in danger of labor and sex trafficking, but Estes
and Weiner (2001) estimated that between 100,000 and 300,000 children are also at risk for human trafficking into the commercial sex industry in the United States (p. 4).

However, victims of trafficking present a variety of risk factors that complicate documentation. For instance, “many of the girls recruited into prostitution often come from dysfunctional families, have been sexually abused, live in poverty, and are runaways, throwaways, or homeless” (Davis, 2006, p. 8). Moreover, traffickers search for vulnerable individuals, such as women living in poverty, women and girls with disabilities, young children, as well as those who are illiterate or do not speak English (Hodge, 2008).

In the state of Ohio, nearly 3,000 children and adolescents were reported as runaways in 2006 (Huckleberry House, 2007). About 825 young women in Ohio could be estimated to have been involved in prostitution. (See Appendix B – 1.) About 600 homeless youth in Ohio may have histories of physical or sexual abuse. (See Appendix B – 2.) Based on a Coalition on Homelessness and Housing in Ohio (COHHIO) estimate, between 510 and 1,050 homeless youth in Ohio may have experienced sexual abuse. (See Appendix B – 3.) Estimates show that one in every four girls and one in six boys are sexually abused before the age of 18 (Botash, 1997). Based on this rate, possibly 336,288 out of 1,345,152 girls in Ohio have experienced sexual abuse. (See Appendix B – 4.)

Although not the primary factor, poverty is a factor in both domestic and international trafficking. In Ohio, approximately 620,000 minorities, 950,000 women, and 640,000 children lived in poverty in during 2004 (Davis, 2006). Another study revealed much lower numbers with a total of 11,151 people in poverty in Ohio in 2007.
This figure represents 13.1% of the state’s population and is consistent with the national average of 13% of people living in poverty in the United States (Bishaw & Semega, 2008).

One CIA human trafficking report stated that immigrant communities pave the way for human trafficking because once they are blended into the broader community, it is easier to disguise instances of trafficking (Davis, 2006). Ohio has seen a rapid expansion of its immigrant populations. For instance, there was an increase of 54.4% in the Hispanic population and 48.5% in the Asian population between 1990 and 2000 (U.S. Census, 2000a). Cuyahoga and Franklin counties incorporate both Cleveland and Columbus, the two cities with the highest Asian populations in the state (U.S. Census, 2000b.). In addition to population growth and community integration, “the presence of over 110 Ohio universities and numerous international corporations supply a constant flow of foreign nationals traveling in and out of the state,” which then facilitates the conditions for less detection of labor and sex trafficking by law enforcement (Davis, 2006, p. 7).

**Social Systems Theory**

The literature about law enforcement and human trafficking lacks analysis of the organizational structure of law enforcement. To understand how elements described in the literature, (i.e., human trafficking victims, law enforcement training, protocols, etc.), social systems theory is applied to law enforcement in Ohio. Social systems theory informs how law enforcement agencies function as an organization and how they interact in the community.
According to systems theory, *social systems* interact with the broader *environment* in the form of inputs and outputs of activities and resources (Dale, Smith, Norlin & Chess, 2009). Individuals, groups, organizations, or any other social units that have “functionally interdependent relationships with each other” make up a *social system* (Dale, et al., 2009, p. 18). The social system’s identity is distinguished from the environment through *boundaries*, which are used to control interactions with the environment and to determine appropriate roles of the subject system in the environment. Within these boundaries exists the *suprasystem*, which is comprised of the social system and other systems that have “an identifiable direct and ongoing pattern of relationships with the subject system” (p. 53). Systems share boundaries called *interfaces*. *Interfaces* represent formal and informal agreements directing interactions between the subject system and other systems. The *subject system* includes an individual, group, community, or entity that is the focus of analysis.

The purpose of a social system is guided by goals and objectives, which are established as *proposed outputs*. The *proposed output* intends to define how human conditions will be improved. The direct activities that are intended to fulfill the proposed outputs are derived from resources called *inputs*. *Signal inputs* are the basic materials and resources that contribute to accomplishing goals and objectives. *Maintenance inputs* are the resources derived from the system that are necessary to accomplish goals and objectives (Dale et al., 2008).

Before proposed outputs can be observed, inputs must first undergo transformation to outputs through *conversion operations*, namely *structure* and *function*.
Structure provides the framework for behavior, social norms, and roles within the social system, as well as for interactions between the social system and the suprasystem. Functions are the activities and tasks needed to be completed in order to realize goals and objectives. Once signal and maintenance inputs are processed through conversion operations, they become outputs. Task outputs are the product of signal inputs, and maintenance outputs are the product of maintenance inputs. Any other outcomes are considered waste because they do not fit in either of these two output categories and because they did not lead to proposed outcomes (Dale et al., 2009).

After outputs are produced, they are compared to the original goals and objectives. Feedback is used to measure the extent to which the output matches the proposed output in the interest of preserving a steady state of the system. Furthermore, feedback can be positive or negative. Positive feedback indicates system conditions, inputs, and conversion operations are contributing to proposed outputs, which in turn maintain a steady state. Negative feedback, outputs that do not match proposed outputs, is used to make alterations that lead to a steady state (Dale et al., 2009).

Conditions are necessary to develop proposed outputs because conditions describe the state of the existing system in terms of opportunities, needs, or problems. Systems are self-maintaining when conditions and input continue to support the functioning of the proposed output or purpose (Dale et al., 2009).

Application to Law Enforcement Response to Human Trafficking

The social system in this research study is law enforcement in Ohio. The suprasystem contains systems such as criminal justice system organizations and actors,
and social service agencies that interact with traffickers and/or trafficked victims. The interface between law enforcement and the suprasystem consists of interactions with lawmakers, social service providers, prosecutors, judges, juvenile justice system, and the criminal justice system. The boundary, which is essential to defining the social system’s identity and roles in the environment, of law enforcement includes the sworn duty to protect and serve (Swanson, Territo, & Taylor, 1993).

Within the suprasystem are conditions that influence the law enforcement response to human trafficking in Ohio. These conditions include needs such as funding, personnel, knowledge, and collaboration; opportunities such as regional coalitions, state commissions, and federal initiatives; and problems such as lack of supportive resources. Inputs into the response to human trafficking are the traffickers and victims themselves being discovered through reports and investigations. Inputs that maintain operations toward these goals are intelligence information, funding, dedicated personnel, support from management, adequate funding, and support from the community to pursue this crime.

In order to measure proposed outputs, the structure and function of law enforcement generate outputs. The structure of law enforcement agencies includes the agency mission, formal division of labor hierarchy, social norms and organizational culture of each agency, working conditions and information flows. Along those lines, the structure of management creates measures of accountability to follow formal protocols, maintain a balanced budget, and provide training opportunities. In the community, the function of law enforcement is foremost to mediate conflicts, conduct investigations, and
arrest individuals who break the law. Within law enforcement agencies, personnel interact both formally and informally between subordinates, peers, and supervisors, along with other law enforcement agencies, and social service agencies.

After conversion operations occur, task outputs are produced: Victims cooperate or do not cooperate with investigations; victims are or are not connected with social services; arrests are made or not achieved. Maintenance outputs yield trained personnel and collaborative relationships. Waste in the system can include individual and organizational resistance to change in how to enforce human trafficking as a crime. Also, status and recognition are potential outputs, but are not necessarily related to the proposed outputs, and therefore would be considered waste in the system.

The feedback in the system of law enforcement response to human trafficking in Ohio is measured by comparing congruencies and disparities between actual outputs and proposed outputs. Proposed outputs include an increase in the number of rescued victims, identified cases, and completed arrests, prosecutions, and convictions as a result of proper investigation. Other proposed outputs include increased numbers of officers trained to respond to human trafficking cases and increased collaborative relationships between law enforcement agencies and social service agencies.

The feedback of this system maintains human trafficking activity because there are insufficient deterrents to traffickers, pimps, and consumers, which in turn sustain a steady state in the system. In order for behaviors to change, the mechanisms providing feedback and conditions that lead to inputs must change. In other words, changes must occur in the suprasystem where interactions take place, in order to deter the behavior of
traffickers. The law enforcement officers play a critical role in preventing traffickers for continued victimization of at risk populations, and creating a safe environment for the victims.

The synthesized literature and research review along with the theoretical framework discussed above provide the bases for defining the concepts for the proposed research. Little research focuses on the direct experiences of law enforcement officers. While much of the research has focused on policies and legislations for law enforcement, identifying risk factors for human trafficking, prevalence of the problem, and factors associated with conducting investigations, the conclusions vary considerably. Studies consistently document the importance of the role of the law enforcement in prevention and investigation of human trafficking. This study uses existing research knowledge and theory to guide the proposed research questions and for exploring specific questions in the survey.
Chapter Three

Methodology

Introduction

Both secondary and primary data sources were used to answer the research questions raised in this study. This chapter includes information on the five research questions, followed by study methodology including sampling, data collection procedure, instrumentation, and data analysis method. First, information on the methodology for secondary data is provided followed by the methodology for the primary data. The first phase analyzed existing data from surveys collected by the Ohio Attorney General’s Office (AGO) and addressed the first two research questions. In order to expand the scope of the research beyond knowledge and training, telephone interviews were conducted to gather primary information, which addressed the final three research questions pertaining to characteristics of cases, collaborative relationships, and barriers to investigation.

Research Questions

The research questions raised in this study are answered through two phases of research.

1) The secondary data from the Ohio Attorney General’s Office (AGO) was used to answer two research questions: i) what is the level of knowledge about human
trafficking among law enforcement? and ii) what is the extent of training received by law enforcement officers in human trafficking?

2) The primary data was collected from law enforcement officers in five (5) regions in Ohio, to answer the following three major questions: iii) what are the characteristics of human trafficking victims and perpetrators encountered by officers? iv) what collaborations exist among various officers who investigate human trafficking cases and among law enforcement and community agencies that serve victims? and v) what are the barriers and challenges to investigating cases?

Data was collected by the researcher from the interviews with local law enforcement officers to help build upon secondary data on awareness of human trafficking issues among law enforcement.

Methods for Secondary Data – Attorney General’s Office Survey (AGO)

Sample for AGO Study

The Ohio Attorney General’s Office (AGO) distributed surveys by mail to each Ohio law enforcement agency (n=950). Cover letters were addressed to the managers/supervisors of each agency/department. Respondents were asked to mail or fax the survey to the Ohio Attorney General’s Office. The student received the surveys from the administrator at the Ohio Attorney General’s Office. A total of 101 completed surveys were returned. The data from these 101 cases formed the basis of the secondary data analysis for this study.
Data Collection Procedure for AGO Study

The AGO study collected data during June 2009 by mailing a questionnaire that contained several components addressing human trafficking issues, as they relate to law enforcement. The questionnaire was mailed to all law enforcement agencies in the state of Ohio. An administrator at the AGO received the completed surveys, analyzed the data, and concluded that there is a need for training among law enforcement officers (Personal communication V. Germann, August, 4, 2009). The secondary data was obtained from the AG office, which was used to conduct further analysis for answering the questions on awareness and training for this study.

Instrumentation for AGO Study

The AGO survey instrument was designed to measure law enforcement officers’ awareness and knowledge of human trafficking pertaining to laws, training, and procedures used to identify and investigate cases, law enforcement role, and availability of victim services. A single scale with 19 items was included in the questionnaire to measure individual officers’ level of awareness and knowledge of human trafficking and training needs. The responses to the items were measured on a 5-point Likert-scale (1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neutral, 4= disagree, and 5= strongly disagree.). Only limited demographic data was included in the AGO survey. (See Survey Instrument in Appendix C.)

A factor analysis was undertaken to assess the dimensions of the 19-item scale. The findings from the factor analysis suggest items are clustered into three major dimensions. Each of the dimensions was labeled based on the content of the items. The
first dimension included items about human trafficking laws (e.g., familiarity with Federal and state laws) and was labeled ‘knowledge of laws and protocols related to human trafficking’. The second dimension included items about specific knowledge and identification of human trafficking issues (e.g., specific knowledge used to recognize signs of a victim of labor or human trafficking; how to investigate and identify human trafficking cases) and was labeled ‘knowledge about the issue of human trafficking’. The third dimension included items related to awareness of social services (e.g., availability and awareness of social services) and was labeled ‘knowledge of social services’. The reliability for each of the three dimensions was high given this was a new scale. Internal consistency reliability is measured by the Cronbach alpha. Values between .80 and .89 are considered to show good internal consistency reliability, and scores just under .80 are considered acceptable (Rubin & Babbie, 2008). For the three sub-scales, the Cronbach alpha ranged from .76 to .89. The items of each factor and the reliability for the subscales are shown Table 1. There were three individual questions pertaining to existing laws, federal jurisdiction, perception of Human Trafficking as a community problem, and agency training needs which did not load on any of the other factors, as determined by a Rotated Component Matrix. See Table 1.
### Table 1

*Factors, Factor Loadings and Reliability for Sub-scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scales</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Laws and Protocols Related to Human Trafficking</td>
<td>I am familiar with Federal laws related to Human Trafficking</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am familiar with Ohio laws related to Human Trafficking</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I understand the criminal justice system procedures pertaining to Human Trafficking</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know how to investigate according to Ohio Legislation</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know how to recognize the signs of a Human Trafficking Business or entity</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the Issue of Human Trafficking</td>
<td>I know how to recognize the signs of a victim of labor trafficking</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have an understanding of the effects of Human Trafficking</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am aware of how Human Trafficking is defined</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know how to recognize the signs of a victim of sex trafficking</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My agency can investigate Human Trafficking cases</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am aware of incidences of Human Trafficking in Ohio</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Social Services</td>
<td>Social services are available to victims of Human Trafficking</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am aware of the Social Services protocol to follow when encountering a victim of Human Trafficking</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I understand how to connect trafficked victims with services in the community</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data Analysis Procedure of AGO Study

The data retrieved from the AGO survey consisted of two demographic variables, i.e., county and job title of the respondents and a scale that consisted of 19-items. A factor analysis with varimax rotation was undertaken to explore the dimensions of scale on awareness and training related to human trafficking. Each of the dimensions was labeled. (See previous table for the discussion of the dimensions.) In addition to undertaking univariate analysis to help describe the respondent, a series of bivariate statistics, including chi-square and t-tests were performed to assess the relationship between role of the respondent and the various dimensions of the 19 item scale. Prior to the bivariate analysis, composite scores were developed from the responses to each of the subscales. For example, the subscale ‘knowledge of laws and protocols’ consisted of 6-items, and the responses were collapsed together. The scores ranged from 6 (low score means less awareness) to 30 (high score means greater awareness).

Methods for Primary Data – Telephone Survey

Sampling Procedure and Sample for the Telephone Survey

Law enforcement officers who had experience in handling human trafficking cases were selected to participate in this study, which included, for the most part, detectives/line officers and middle administrators. Experience with human trafficking cases required contact with at least one victim or one perpetrator. To ensure representation of all the regions in Ohio, the map of Ohio was divided into five regions, each of which included at least one major metropolitan area, namely Toledo, Cleveland,
Columbus, Cincinnati, and Dayton. A random sample of five counties in each of five regions was chosen, yielding a total of twenty-five counties. An inclusive list of law enforcement agencies located in each of the twenty-five counties was constructed. The agencies included city police departments, sheriff’s offices, and Ohio State Highway Patrol posts. The agencies located in the 25 counties selected were listed in alphabetical order by region and a sample of 50 law enforcement agencies was chosen at random.

After contacting the top administrators of the 50 selected agencies, a snow-ball method of sampling was used to identify the respondents to be interviewed. In order to qualify for a telephone interview, law enforcement officers who were referred needed to have experience with at least one case of human trafficking. A total of 105 law enforcement officers were contacted, and 42 referrals were obtained. There were eight individuals who were referred more than once. Most officers provided referrals (40%). However, close to thirty percent did not respond to the voice mails left for them (29.5%). Some officers returned the call, but did not provide a referral (16.2%). The goal was to interview a total of 25 respondents. Despite multiple attempts to reach the referred sources through snow-ball sampling, only 15 interviews were obtained. See Table 2 for response rates.
Table 2

*Response Rates of Law Enforcement Officers Contacted*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Result of Call</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Returned with referral</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed interview</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call not returned</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call returned with no referral</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total number of telephone contacts = 105

**Data Collection Procedure for Telephone Survey**

An initial letter was mailed to the sample of law enforcement agencies requesting identification of potential respondents within their respective regions. The chiefs, sheriffs, and commanders of the agencies in the sample were then contacted by telephone, and asked for a referral to a law enforcement officer with experience with human trafficking cases, such as child prostitution, forced prostitution, or forced labor. Top administrators were contacted at least twice by telephone to request referrals.

The identified officer was contacted via telephone to solicit participation in a semi-structured telephone interview. A mutually agreed upon time was set to conduct the interview. All individuals contacted were asked to refer another officer within their unit or region with experience working human trafficking cases. Calls were mostly made in the morning between 8:00 am and 11:00 am.

A minimum of two and at most four attempts were made to contact each referral. If the referral contacts affirmed they had experience in human trafficking and were willing to be interviewed, then a mutually agreed upon time was set to conduct the
interview. An email was sent to all participants containing information about research participants’ rights in the study and an electronic copy of the survey. If referral contacts did not have experience with human trafficking, they were asked to provide referrals to other officers who may have such experience. The initial challenge to contacting law enforcement officers was the ability to reach the officers who were referred by their department chiefs.

**Challenges in data collection.** One challenge to contacting law enforcement officers was their availability. Officers were contacted two or more times and a considerable amount did not respond (n=31; 29.5%). Part of this challenge can be attributed to using telephone interviews. Given that most of the law enforcement officers have multiple responsibilities, and are often not available at the office made it difficult to reach individuals, especially those who were dedicated to investigating human trafficking cases.

Another challenge to contacting officers with experience working human trafficking cases is the apparent lack of self-identified officers. For two reasons, it was assumed that at least 25 local and state level law enforcement officers with experience working human trafficking cases would be accessible to be interviewed. First, the prevalence of human trafficking in Toledo suggested that numerous law enforcement officers were involved in investigations. Second, the formation of regional coalitions and informal networks in Ohio suggested that communities were responding to the existence of human trafficking in their neighborhoods, therefore suggesting that law enforcement officers in this area were also responding to the problem.
What was discovered, however, is that there are very few officers assigned to handle human trafficking cases, and the same small number of officers with previous experience has handled what cases are known. This is true of local and state-level law enforcement response to human trafficking in the Toledo area.

This finding is based on two foundations. First, respondents provided referrals to the individuals who had been previously identified by other respondents. Second, as of 2010, there have been 33 cases of labor and sex trafficking cases combined for the cities of Toledo, Columbus, Cleveland, and Cincinnati (OTIPSC, 2010; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). These numbers were released after the current study was proposed, and therefore, the research proposal did not take this number into consideration when developing the sampling plan for this research.

Another limitation of this research is the sampling procedure for obtaining referrals. The study was designed to initially contact top administrators (i.e., chiefs of police, sheriffs, and patrol post commanders). The researcher assumed that the upper management would be aware if an officer or officers had worked on a human trafficking case. It was observed that the administrator were less likely to be knowledgeable about the experiences of officers reporting to them and therefore less likely to be able to provide a referral. Also the logistics of where the officers in human trafficking are housed within the law enforcement division is a barrier to accessing them. The supervisor may not be accessible to the detective or line officer and sometimes they are located in separate facilities, especially in large agencies with several divisions (Swanson et al., 1993). Supervisors may assume that if they have not heard about a human trafficking
victims or investigations, it does not exist or otherwise had not been encountered by their agencies. Additionally, using the term human trafficking when contacting administrators assumes that they have knowledge about this issue when it is a relatively new definition under U.S. law. Participation also seemed difficult because the term human trafficking is relatively new to law enforcement officers. Ohio does not have a statute specifically defining human trafficking as a crime in-and-of itself, and therefore, detectives and line officers at the local and state levels are not necessarily familiar with the federal definition. Also, though officers have encountered human trafficking in the field, they may not have recognized it as such.

Not only did the sampling method proved to be challenging, but collecting data through telephone interviews also generated unique limitations. Recruiting law enforcement officers to participate in a telephone interview was difficult because most of the initial telephone communications resulted in high non-response rates, lack of referrals by officers, and lack of experience in this area of investigation. Furthermore, this study focused on including only respondents with experience in human trafficking cases, and targeted line officers and detectives. Contact via telephone with line officers and detectives posed a barrier because their duties are normally to investigate and patrol in the field, hence making them less accessible. Non-response rates may also be explained by a lack of desire to participate in research for fear of breaching confidentiality and lack of time to participate in an interview.

Another limitation of this study is the exclusion of federal law enforcement, as this study is to assess the law enforcement response to human trafficking on a state and
local levels in Ohio. As evident in characteristics of the respondents, most of which are affiliated with a federal task force, the Federal Bureau of Investigation and Immigration and Customs Enforcement are engaged in human trafficking investigations, especially those involving interstate transportation. Excluding law enforcement officers from these agencies further limited the number of respondents.

**Instrumentation for Telephone Survey**

The telephone interview questionnaire was composed of 48 questions. It included both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The questionnaire included basic demographics of the respondent, job title, primary role within their office/division, and types of cases investigated. Additionally, questions on responses to practices, existence of protocols, characteristics of human trafficking victims and perpetrators, and law enforcement collaboration were included in the questionnaire. These questions were based on two national studies (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008), and the responses were all close-ended. Both closed- and open-ended questions were included to assess barriers and challenges to identifying and responding to cases of human trafficking in Ohio. (See telephone survey questionnaire in the Appendix D.)

**Measurements of key variables.** The major variables in this study are operationalized as follows:

*Law enforcement officers* were understood as those whose duties are primarily to investigate, apprehend, or detain individuals suspected or convicted of offenses against the criminal laws of the United States, including employees who perform these duties in a supervisory or administrative position (5 U.S.C. §8331[17]).
Human Trafficking was measured using the federal definition of the term in two parts:

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

b. the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery. (P.L. 104-368 §103 [8])

Level of knowledge was measured by respondents’ perceptions of knowledge about statements regarding human trafficking rated on a five-point Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Extent of training was measured by a single item in which officers were asked to respond to a five-point Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree with a statement that they had received training on human trafficking.

Years of experience was measured by the actual number of years the respondent has worked in law enforcement and/or criminal justice. The actual number of years was documented, as reported by the respondent.

Current position was measured by asking respondents to indicate their job title in the agency in which they are employed. The response to this question was open-ended.

Primary role indicates the function of the position within the organization (i.e., investigation, supervision, etc). This response to this question was open-ended.
Source of awareness of cases was measured by asking the means by which law enforcement officers are informed of human trafficking activities operating in their communities, including normal police operations and sources of referrals.

Sources of training was measured by asking which types of organizations supplied law enforcement officers with information and response practices that may be used when involved in investigating human trafficking cases. The responses were coded ‘yes’ or ‘no’ to a list of training sources and information.

Characteristics of cases investigated were measured by asking information about human trafficking victims and perpetrators, such as gender, age, country of origin, and location of encounter, as well as how many total cases the agency has been involved in each of the categories and how many total cases the respondent has investigated. The responses to all the variables were categorical with exception to ‘total cases the agency has been involved’ and ‘total cases the respondent has investigated’. The actual number of cases reported was documented.

Types of cases investigated indicate what crimes the law enforcement officer investigates, as required by his or her job description.

Collaboration describes the cooperation between organizations, including federal, state, and local levels of law enforcement and between law enforcement and community agencies. Existence of collaboration was measured by asking respondents to indicate ‘yes’ or ‘no’ as to whether they collaborated with a list of organizations.

Barriers and Challenges were defined as the obstacles faced by law enforcement officers when involved in the process of identifying and responding to cases. Respondents were
asked open-ended questions to provide their experiences with human trafficking cases.

**Reliability.** The reliability of an instrument measures whether or not it will produce the same results if used over and over again on similar samples (Rubin & Babbie, 2008). For the primary data, surveys were distributed to law enforcement agencies, which are the sources of best informants of information regarding law enforcement awareness, training, and responses to human trafficking. To increase reliability and validity, the interview questionnaire included questions used in previous research studying the law enforcement response to human trafficking (Clawson et al., 2006 & Farrell et al., 2008).

For secondary data, the major analysis undertaken was to test the reliability of the three subscales generated through factor analysis. The three subscales were knowledge of laws and protocols related to human trafficking, knowledge of the issue of human trafficking, and knowledge of social services available to victims of human trafficking. The internal consistency reliability of the all three sub-scales was good because the Cronbach alpha scores ranged from .76 to .89. See Table 1.

**Validity.** The validity of an instrument evaluates whether or not it actually measures the concepts it intends to measure. Face validity shows if an instrument appears to measure the intended concepts, and content validity is made legitimate by the judgment of experts who agree that an instrument does indeed measure a concept (Rubin & Babbie, 2008). The measures of the level of awareness, training, and preparedness to respond to human trafficking cases had high face validity. The content for the scale and questions were used from existing studies that were developed by experts in the field.
Also, the statements that compose the questions and items correspond to the general experiences of law enforcement officers’ knowledge, awareness and practices. Factors anticipated to contribute to law enforcement response to human trafficking include: individual officer’s level of training on and awareness of human trafficking; adequacy of laws and social services dedicated to human trafficking; and agency response to human trafficking.

Data Analysis Procedure for Telephone Survey

Frequency distributions were generated for responses to each variable on the telephone survey. The numbers and percentages were listed for itemized responses under each variable. Because the number of interviews did not exceed a total of 20 respondents, further statistical analyses were not conducted. In undertaking analysis, descriptive observations were made based on the distribution of responses, rather than generalizing the findings to the overall law enforcement population in Ohio.
Chapter Four

Findings

This chapter presents the findings from the two phases of the research. The first phase of research using secondary data was drawn from the Attorney General’s Office (AGO) survey and answered the first two research questions: i) what is the level of knowledge about human trafficking among law enforcement? and ii) what is the extent of training received by law enforcement officers in human trafficking? Prior to undertaking the bivariate analyses, a factor analysis was carried out to examine the dimensions of the 19-item scale. The resulting three sub-scales that were generated based on the factor loadings, i.e., knowledge of human trafficking laws and protocols, knowledge of the issue of human trafficking, and awareness of social services to assist victims of human trafficking were used in analysis of the two research questions (See methods chapter). The study result presents a description of the scales and response distribution. For assessment of differences in knowledge and training of law enforcement offices, the results include a series of t-tests. Results from the five items that did not load on any factor were analyzed independently. The findings from the chi-squares to assess the differences in response between administrators and detectives/line officers are presented.
The five items included perception of the problem in the community, adequacy of existing laws, training, and federal jurisdiction.

The second phase findings were drawn from primary data collected through telephone interviews and answered the final three research questions: iii) what are the characteristics of human trafficking victims and perpetrators encountered by officers? iv) what collaborations exist among various officers who investigate human trafficking cases and agencies that serve victims? and v) what are the barriers and challenges in investigating cases? For the second phase of research, findings first present descriptive data on respondents followed by the results from the bivariate analyses. Supplementary findings on training source received by law enforcement officers and existence and usefulness of agency protocols are described.

**Findings from Phase One Research Questions - Attorney General’s Office (AGO) Survey**

**Law Enforcement Officers’ Awareness of Human Trafficking**

In order to address the first two research questions, secondary data from an initial factor analysis of the Attorney General’s Office (AGO) survey indicated three dimensions: knowledge of laws and protocols related to human trafficking, knowledge of the issue of human trafficking, and social services available to human trafficking victims. Each dimension was then analyzed to create composite scores prior to assessing the relationship between the three dimensions. (See Methods section for discussion of factors, factor loading, and reliability.) As shown in Table 3 below, ‘knowledge of laws and protocols’ sub-scale was composed of four items. The mean composite score of the respondents was 9.52 (SD= 3.48), and the scores ranged from a low of 4 to a high of 20.
Table 3

Description of Three Sub-Scales Generated for the AGO Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Scales</th>
<th># of Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Low to High Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Laws and Protocols</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4-20</td>
<td>4-8 (Low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9-15 (Middle)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16-20 (High)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7-14 (Low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Issues in Human Trafficking</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19.50</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>7-35</td>
<td>8-27 (Medium)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28-35 (High)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-6 (Low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Social Services</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>7-11 (Medium)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12-15 (High)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was considerable variability in responses. Overall, most respondents were not familiar with laws and protocols on human trafficking. Nearly three-fourths of them disagreed having knowledge and understanding of human trafficking laws and protocols. About 18% agreed that they had adequate knowledge of laws and protocols. Largely, these scores indicate a lack of knowledge in the area of laws and protocols related to human trafficking because scores lower scores, which denotes disagreement with the statements (See Table 4A in Appendix E.)

While almost half of respondents agreed they have knowledge about the issue of human trafficking (54.5%), a little less than half indicated a lack of knowledge about human trafficking (45.5%). In general, the mean value on the composite scale was 19.5 (SD= 5.8), and the scores ranged from 7 to 35. These responses indicate that law enforcement officers tend to have slightly more knowledge about the issue of human trafficking itself than knowledge about the laws and protocols in place to handle human trafficking. (See Table 4B in Appendix E.)
About 55% of respondents disagreed that they had knowledge, understanding, and availability of social services for victims. Close to one-quarter of respondents reported they do have adequate knowledge about social services for victims (25.3%). The remaining respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that they had awareness of social services for victims (20%). These scores indicate slightly less knowledge about social services for victims than knowledge about the issue of human trafficking. (See Table 4C in Appendix E.)

Three Independent Samples t-test were undertaken to examine the association between each the sub-scales composite scores and responses by the administrators and detectives/line officers. The results of the analysis reveals that there was no significant differences in the responses between administrators and the detectives/line officer in their levels of knowledge about laws and protocols, general knowledge of the issue of human trafficking, and knowledge of social services. The average scores for knowledge about laws and protocols between administrators (mean = 9.62, SD = 3.69) and the detectives/line officers was similar (mean = 9.50, SD = 2.90). Likewise, there were not many differences in the responses of the administrators and detectives/line officers for knowledge of the issue of human trafficking (mean = 19.57 SD = 6.27; mean = 20.56, SD = 5.09 respectively) and knowledge of social services (mean = 8.36, SD = 2.53; mean= 8.25; SD = 2.32 respectively). See Table 5 through 7 below.
Table 5

*Differences between Administrators and Detectives/Line Officers’ Responses to Knowledge of Laws and Protocols (N=79)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Laws and Protocols Related to Human Trafficking by...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>.913 (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detectives/Line Officers</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.50</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6

*Differences between Administrators and Detectives/Line Officers’ Responses to Knowledge the Issue of Human Trafficking (N=79)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the Issue of Human Trafficking by…</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>19.57</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>-.58</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>.561 (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detectives/Line Officers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20.56</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7

*Differences between Administrators and Detectives/Line Officers’ Responses to Knowledge Social Services for Victims (N=86)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of Social Services Available to Victims of Human Trafficking by…</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>0.88 (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detectives/Line Officers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.25</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 shows administrators and line officers responses to the individual items. The majority of respondents (71.3%) disagreed with the statement, “Human Trafficking is a problem in my community.” Interestingly, no detectives/line officers and only five administrators (6.8%) reported that human trafficking was a problem in their communities. The remaining 23% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with this item.

When asked whether the federal agencies should have sole jurisdiction over human trafficking cases, the responses were split. A large percentage of respondents disagreed that the federal agencies should have sole jurisdiction of human trafficking cases (42.7%). Over one-third of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed as to whether federal agencies should have sole jurisdiction (38.4%). Nearly one-fifth of respondents agreed that the federal agencies should have sole jurisdiction of human trafficking cases (19.1%). The findings, however, suggest that the administrators and detectives/line officers do not differ in their perception of having federal jurisdiction. Most seem to be opposed to having federal jurisdiction. See Table 8.

Nearly two-thirds of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, “existing laws are adequate to protect victims of Human Trafficking” (60.5%). Almost one third disagreed with the statement (31.4%). Less than 10% of respondents conveyed that they agreed “existing law are adequate to protect victims of Human Trafficking” (8.1%). There was no significant difference between the responses of administrators and detectives/line officers in their perceptions of adequacy of laws protecting victims of
human trafficking. About the same percentage of both groups agreed or disagreed to the adequacy of current laws. See Table 8.

**Extent of Law Enforcement Training on Human Trafficking**

Although the differences between administrators and detective/line officers were not statistically significant, there were differences in the distribution of their responses when asked about training. Almost three-quarters of detectives/line officers (73.3%) and just over one half of administrators (55.6%) had not received training to recognize and address human trafficking. One-third of administrators (33.3%) and one-fifth of detectives/line officers (20%) reported receiving such training. The remaining eight administrators and one detective/line officer neither agreed nor disagreed (11.1%; 6.7% respectively). See Table 8.

Nearly two-thirds of detectives/line officers (62.5%) conveyed that their agencies needed training on human trafficking, whereas a little over one-third of administrators (34.7%) conveyed the need for training in their agencies. One third of administrators (33.3%) answered “neutral”, and nearly one third of administrators (31.9%) disagreed that their agencies need training on human trafficking. The same number of detectives/line officers (18.8%) answered “neutral” and disagreed that their agencies need training on human trafficking. See Table 8.
Table 8

*Differences in Responses of Law Enforcement Administrators and Detectives/Line Officers to Independent Items on AGO Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Items on AGO Scale</th>
<th>Admin.</th>
<th>Det./Line Off.</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Trafficking is a problem in my community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The federal agencies should have sole jurisdiction of Human Trafficking in the U.S.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing laws are adequate to protect victims of Human Trafficking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>61.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have received training in recognizing and addressing Human Trafficking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My agency needs training on Human Trafficking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings from Phase Two Research Questions - Telephone Surveys

Background of Respondents

Table 9 shows that the majority of respondents was male (93.3%), and one respondent was female (6.7%). Most respondents had 20 or more years of experience working in law enforcement (60%), and the remaining 40% of respondents had 9 to 19 years of law enforcement experience. Out of all law enforcement officers in this study, 60% of them served as detectives/line officers, and 40% served as administrators, such as unit supervisors, unit commanders, and chiefs.

Table 9

*Background Information about Law Enforcement Officers (N = 15)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Background Information</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years of Experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-35 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current Position</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detective/Investigator/ Patrol Officer</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10 shows law enforcement officers’ responses to the question about types of cases likely to handle on their job. The law enforcement officers most frequently handle vice cases (60%), such as any combination of prostitution, narcotics, and gambling activities. Other types of cases reported include missing persons, kidnapping, abduction (46.7%), domestic violence (40%), child abuse and neglect (40%), special victims (33.3%). Consistently, at least 20% of respondents indicated dealing with narcotics and alcohol, gambling, and burglary. The same percent of cases were handled on Internet predators and pornography, human trafficking and prostitution, fraud, forgery, and identity theft, and murder and rape (13.3%). Only one respondent indicated handling terrorism cases (6.7%). See Table 10. In general, most often the officers tend to uncover cases of human trafficking when investigating their primary cases.
Table 10

*Types of Cases Primarily Investigated by Law Enforcement Officers who have Experience with Human Trafficking Cases*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case Description</th>
<th>Yes n (%)</th>
<th>No n (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice</td>
<td>9 (60.0)</td>
<td>6 (40.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Persons, Kidnapping, Abduction</td>
<td>7 (46.7)</td>
<td>8 (53.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Violence</td>
<td>6 (40.0)</td>
<td>9 (60.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Abuse and Neglect</td>
<td>6 (40.0)</td>
<td>9 (60.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Victims</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
<td>10 (66.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narcotics and Alcohol</td>
<td>3 (20.0)</td>
<td>12 (80.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling and Dog Fighting</td>
<td>3 (20.0)</td>
<td>12 (80.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>3 (20.0)</td>
<td>12 (80.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Predators and Pornography</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Trafficking and Prostitution</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraud, Forgery, Identity theft</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murder and Rape</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Multiple responses*

Source of Training

Table 11 shows responses to the question about primary source of training received by law enforcement officers in human trafficking identification and investigation. The most commonly reported primary sources of training were through a federal law enforcement agency (66.7%) and state law enforcement agency (53.3%). One third of respondents depend on local agencies (33.3%) and the same percent of respondents reported receiving training from social service agencies. One fifth of
respondents reported that their own agencies provide training (20%). A small percent of the respondents indicated having received training from for-profit private-run organizations (13.3%), personal research (13.3%), and a prosecutorial agency (6.7%).

Table 11

*Description of Primary Sources of Training for Investigating Human Trafficking Cases*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Training</th>
<th>Yes n (%)</th>
<th>No n (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Federal Law Enforcement Agency</td>
<td>10 (66.6)</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Law Enforcement Agency</td>
<td>8 (53.3)</td>
<td>7 (46.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Law Enforcement Agency</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
<td>10 (66.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Agency You Work For</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
<td>10 (66.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Service Agency</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
<td>10 (66.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Run Training</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Research</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosecutorial Agency</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Multiple responses*

**Context in which Human Trafficking Cases are Identified by Law Enforcement**

Tables 12 and 13 show responses to questions on the context in which law enforcement officers come into contact with human trafficking cases. Notably, arrests for other crimes was cited as the main context in which law enforcement officers tend to identify cases of human trafficking. The majority of the respondents (78.6%) indicated they are likely to identify cases while investigating other criminal cases. More than half of law enforcement officers (57.1%) indicated they became aware of human trafficking
cases during undercover operations. The most frequent responses to where the officers come in contact with human trafficking cases suggest that law enforcement officers tend to adopt a reactive approach rather than proactively investigating human trafficking cases. Only a small percent of the law enforcement officers were engaged in proactive investigation (14.3%), where they actively searched for human trafficking (HT) cases.

Table 12

*Context in which Human Trafficking Cases are Identified by Law Enforcement (N = 14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases are identified when…</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arrest for other crimes</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undercover operations</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in HT investigation</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MISSING=1

Law enforcement officers also become aware of human trafficking cases through referrals. Respondents reported the largest source of referrals from other law enforcement agencies (57.1%). Other sources of referrals to human trafficking cases come from informants (14.3%), Internet posts (7.1%), and children’s services (7.1%). See Table 13.
Table 13

*Sources of Referral of Human Trafficking Cases to Law Enforcement Officers (N = 14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Referral of HT Cases</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Another law enforcement agency</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informant</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet post</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's services</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Missing=1*

The majority of respondents encountered human trafficking victims on the streets (71.4%), followed by encounters in massage parlors, strip clubs, bars/dance clubs, and hotels (42.9%), and encounters in brothels, private homes, and labor camps (35.7%). The locations where law enforcement officers’ encountered victims were at restaurants (21.4%), traffic stops and highways (14.3%), bus stations and truck stops (14.3%), the Internet (7.1%), and juvenile detention (7.1%). See Table 14.
Table 14

Location of Encounters with Victims of Hunan Trafficking (N = 14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Yes n</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Street</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massage parlor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strip club</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bars/Dance club</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothel</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private home</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor camp</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic stop/Highway</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bus station/Truck stop</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvenile detention</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiple responses.

Characteristics of Human Trafficking Cases

In order to address the third research question, law enforcement officers were asked a series of questions about the number of cases they have had experience with in the past five years, as well as characteristics of victims and perpetrators involved in the reported cases. Characteristics were gathered about victim and perpetrators’ gender, age, and country of origin. Tables 15A to 15G show the results.

Table 15 shows the distribution of human trafficking cases respondents investigated in a five-year period with a total of 296 cases. Each case generally has multiple victims, for example a brothel raid may identify a number of victims. Table 16
shows that between 2005 and 2009, law enforcement officers encountered 1,072 female and 253 male victims, a total of 1,325 victims. One thousand individuals included in this number were reported as victims of child pornography on the Internet. The remaining 325 individuals included both sex and labor trafficking victims. Between 2005 and 2009, law enforcement officers self-reported encountering a total of 1,105 juvenile human trafficking victims, 1,000 of which were victims involved in child pornography Internet cases. See Table 17. Law enforcement officers reported encountering 220 adult victims. Almost all respondents reported U.S.-born victims (85.7%), and over half of respondents reported encountering victims born outside of the United States (57.1%). See Table 18. Countries of origin included Brazil, China, Mexico, Nicaragua, Russia, South Korea, Ukraine, and Vietnam. See Table 19.

Table 15

*Distribution of Total Reported Human Trafficking Cases between 2005 and 2009 (N=14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of HT Cases</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Missing=1*
### Table 16

**Distribution of Gender of Human Trafficking Victims Encountered between 2005 and 2009 (N=14)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Victims by Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong># of Females</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong># of Males</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150-200</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Missing =1; No victims were reported as transgendered.*

### Table 17

**Distribution of Age Status of Human Trafficking Victims Encountered between 2005 and 2009 (N =14)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Status of HT Victims</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong># of Minors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong># of Adults</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Missing =1*
Table 18

*Description of U.S. and Non-U.S. Victims Encountered between 2005 and 2009 (N=14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Origin</th>
<th>Yes (n (%)</th>
<th>No (n (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-U.S.</td>
<td>8 (57.1)</td>
<td>6 (42.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>12 (85.7)</td>
<td>2 (14.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Missing = 1*

Results show that law enforcement officers report a relatively less number of perpetrators arrested. Over three quarters of respondents indicated arresting at least one perpetrator of human trafficking (78.6%). Table 19 shows that between 2005 and 2009, law enforcement officers arrested 217 male and eight female perpetrators of human trafficking, a total of 225 perpetrators.

Table 19

*Distribution of Gender of Perpetrators of Human Trafficking Arrested between 2005 and 2009 (N = 14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Perpetrators of HT</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of Females</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>143</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Missing = 1*
Law enforcement officers arrested two juvenile and 223 adult perpetrators of human trafficking between 2005 and 2009, as shown in Table 20. All officers who made an arrest reported arresting a U.S.-born citizen. Of the nine officers who made arrests, four reported arresting someone born outside of the United States. See Table 21. Countries of origin included Guatemala, Mexico, Russia, Ukraine, and Vietnam.

Table 20

*Age Status of Perpetrators of Human Trafficking Arrested between 2005 and 2009 (N=14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Status of Perpetrators of HT</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of Minors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of Adults</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Missing = 1*

Table 21

*Description of U.S. and Non-U.S Perpetrators Encountered between 2005 and 2009 (N=14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Origin of Perpetrators</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n (%)</td>
<td>n (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-U.S.</td>
<td>4 (28.6)</td>
<td>10 (71.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>9 (64.3)</td>
<td>5 (35.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Missing = 1; Four respondents reported zero arrests.*
Existence and Usefulness of Protocols

Law enforcement officers were asked if their agencies had protocols in place to identify cases of human trafficking, and if so, they were asked to rate its usefulness of the training on a five-point scale (1=Very Useful, 3= Neutral, 5= Not at all useful). As show in Table 22, nearly three quarters of respondents (73.3%) did not have a formal protocol. Of the four respondents who do have a formal protocol (26.7%), they all rated the protocol as very useful or useful.

Table 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have Formal Protocol…</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Collaboration with Law Enforcement Agencies and Community Organizations

To address the fourth research question, law enforcement officers were asked about their connections with other law enforcement agencies as well as with community agencies that provide health and social services. The first question inquired if the officer was affiliated with any human trafficking task forces or coalitions, and if so, they were asked to provide a description of the task force and/or the coalition. The second question asked law enforcement officers what types of community agencies they work with when responding to a case of human trafficking.

Table 23 shows that the majority of respondents (60%) indicated belonging to some type of anti-human trafficking collaborative organization. Almost half of all
respondents (46.7%) belonged to a federal-level task force. One-third of respondents belonged to a regional anti-trafficking coalition (33.3%). One-fifth (20%) belonged to a state-level commission, and just over one-tenth (13.3%) belonged to an informal working group.

Most respondents reported working with health care and children’s services when responding to a case of human trafficking. Nearly three-quarters of respondents (73.3%) collaborated with hospitals and health centers. Two-thirds of respondents (66.7%) worked with children’s services when responding to human trafficking cases. One-third (33.3%) of law enforcement officers indicated working with mental health clinics. Just over one-quarter of respondents (26.7%) connected victims to food pantries. One-fifth of respondents (20%) connected victims with housing agencies and human trafficking victim service organizations in the community. Respondents collaborated with agencies for clothing donations (13.3%), as well as employment services and rape crisis intervention (6.7%). Other collaborations were reported with Health and Human Services, Job and Family Services, Catholic Charities, and the prosecutor’s office (6.7%).
Table 23

*Types of Community Agencies with which Law Enforcement Officers Collaborate to Support Human Trafficking Victims*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Community Agency</th>
<th>Yes n (%)</th>
<th>No n (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals/Health centers</td>
<td>11 (73.3)</td>
<td>4 (26.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child welfare services</td>
<td>10 (66.6)</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental health clinics</td>
<td>5 (33.3)</td>
<td>10 (66.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food pantries</td>
<td>4 (26.7)</td>
<td>11 (73.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing agencies</td>
<td>3 (20.0)</td>
<td>12 (80.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human trafficking victim service organization</td>
<td>3 (20.0)</td>
<td>12 (80.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing donations</td>
<td>2 (13.3)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment services</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape crisis intervention</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Human Services</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job and Family Services</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic Charities</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim/Witness through prosecutor’s office</td>
<td>1 (6.7)</td>
<td>14 (93.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Barriers and Challenges to Identifying and Responding to Human Trafficking Cases**

To assess the fifth research question, law enforcement officers were asked to indicate barriers and challenges to both identifying cases of human trafficking and responding to cases. A list of commonly cited barriers in the literature was provided, along with the option for open-ended responses. There were not many differences between the administrators and detectives/line officers’ responses to the closed ended question, therefore the information was collapsed to include all law enforcement officers, rather than distinguishing between the two categories. A few respondents contributed
additional barriers to the list provided, which state that are discussed following the
description of the closed-ended responses.

Table 24 shows that respondents identified a lack of training as the top barrier to
identifying human trafficking cases (93.3%), followed by lack of awareness (86.7%),
lack of protocols (66.7%), and lack of clarity about the federal, state, and local law
enforcement roles to monitor this crime (53.3%). These responses are congruent with the
findings from the AGO secondary data, were most of the law enforcement officers
indicated lacking awareness and training in identifying human trafficking cases. Table
24 also shows that when responding to human trafficking cases, law enforcement officers
reported lack of training as the top barrier (86.7%), followed by lack of awareness
(66.7%), lack of protocols (53.3%), and lack of clarity about the federal, state, and local
law enforcement roles to monitor this crime (46.7%).

Table 24

*Most Frequently Identified Barriers and Challenges in Identifying and Responding to
Human Trafficking Cases*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers/Challenges</th>
<th>Identifying Cases</th>
<th>Responding to Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of training</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of awareness</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of protocols</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of clarity about the federal, state, and local law enforcement roles to monitor this crime</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of staffing</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of funding</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About 13 out of 15 respondents provided additional information. In addition to increasing knowledge and awareness among individuals and organizations, most of responses were general including needing resources to effectively combat human trafficking, including training, staffing, funding, and interpretation services. Officers identified that there are insufficient resources dedicated toward combating human trafficking, which leads to reluctance to investigate these types of cases, and lack of support from management as issues. It is important to note the lack of resources to address the crime of human trafficking in Ohio has been recognized in another study (Wilson & Dalton, 2006). One detective substantiated this by stating, “There are very few agencies that are actively investigating Human Trafficking cases at this time in Central Ohio. These cases take an enormous amount of time and resources making it difficult for smaller agencies to investigate these cases.” Two respondents cited language barriers between victims and law enforcement officers. Interpreters are not always accessible and immediately responsive to the request to assist law enforcement.

Another officer expounded upon the level of staffing that is needed to conduct undercover operations and noted that the punishment of a misdemeanor under current law does not justify the use of intensive resources during this restricted budgeting period. The officer noted that operations are “costly” because several officers are assigned to raids and stings including the undercover officer, electronics team, and safety team of about 6 people. It seems like the resources are allocated toward prosecuting victims rather than perpetrators because Ohio law does not have a specific human trafficking law criminalizing traffickers and consumers. Therefore, in the absence of law, the officer
noted that there are “a lot of resources for prostitution” cases, which are “considered a misdemeanor.” Further, the officer shared that after one investigation produced enough evidence to go to trial, the judge dismissed it because it was a prostitution case under Ohio law and was not acknowledged by the court as human trafficking. As a result, the officer stated that despite the fact that officers have specialized knowledge, his agency no longer pursues investigations of human trafficking because of the high cost, cuts in staffing, and the barriers in the criminal justice system.

Several law enforcement officers reiterated the point that there is a need for more interagency collaboration. Additional challenges mentioned included personal bias and competition between agencies for jurisdiction. From open-ended responses, three respondents noted lack of information sharing and lack of first hand experience investigating and interacting with victims to successfully identify and respond to human trafficking cases. One officer explained, “open communications with intelligence organizations in the state, as well as the federal government” would help address human trafficking crimes. Similarly, one officer expressed the need for “more trust … between federal and local levels because the local level collects intelligence information and the feds take it, but don’t share the results.” Another officer conveyed the desire to work more proactively with Immigrations and Customs Enforcement, if not for the barrier of lack of staffing to do so. At the same time, one officer commented that it is “exceptional what the federal government puts toward addressing the problem.”

Law enforcement officers face additional barriers when working with victims of human trafficking. Two respondents stated the lack of safe places, such as shelters, to
stay away from traffickers and the rapid mobility of victims and traffickers. One officer expounded about how some of the aforementioned barriers are interwoven. As soon as traffickers know law enforcement is tipped off about their activities, the traffickers relocate to other states. Therefore, better coordination and information sharing with other law enforcement agencies plays an important role.

Another officer recommended providing training for child and family services and the health department, in an effort to enhance the knowledge among these professionals who provide services for trafficked victims. One officer added lack of trust between immigrant communities and law enforcement to the list of challenges. He explained that immigrant community leaders may be distrustful and suspicious of law enforcement officers, and consequently, may not report human trafficking activities. Building relationships with leaders can improve the interactions in the community, as well as increase willingness of individuals to talk to law enforcement. Four law enforcement officers expressed the need for more direction when responding to human trafficking cases. From a legal standpoint, one officer stated that it would be helpful to receive “interpretations from the Attorney General’s office on enforcement guidelines for law enforcement included in training.” Law enforcement officers expressed the need for training on “how to handle victims” and increasing their own knowledge of “resources for safe spaces for victims.” One officer noted that “exposure to survivors” and providing the “opportunity to talk with them” coupled with formal training would be beneficial. Another officer reinforced this point in that law enforcement officers “need experience working cases to be an expert.”
Not only did law enforcement officers suggest increasing the knowledge of law enforcement officers about human trafficking, but they also recommended increasing knowledge among the general public and among professionals. One detective expressed, “more public knowledge would assist law enforcement in detecting more cases.”

Summary

Findings from the AGO data suggest that, overall, there is lack of awareness of human trafficking issues among law enforcement officers. Although the findings are not statistically significant, a closer review of the data indicates that both administrators and detectives/line officers uniformly agree that they lack knowledge of laws and protocols, knowledge of the issue of human trafficking, and awareness of social services for victims. The results of the AGO survey inquiring about the extent to which law enforcement officers had received training showed that the majority of administrators and detectives/line officers did not receive training to recognize and address human trafficking.

Data collected from telephone surveys showed that law enforcement officers become aware of human trafficking cases mostly through arrests for other crimes. Findings revealed that law enforcement officers have had experience with almost 300 human trafficking cases in Ohio. Victims involved in these cases are most often female, children, and U.S. citizens. Perpetrators involved in these cases are most often male, adults, and U.S. citizens. The majority of law enforcement officers who participated in telephone interviews collaborated with one or more federal, state, and/or regional level anti-human trafficking organization. The results also showed that most law enforcement
officers worked with hospitals and health centers and children’s services when assisting victims. Finally, there was an overall consensus among law enforcement officers that lack of training was the primary barrier to identifying and addressing human trafficking cases, followed by lack of awareness, and lack of protocols.
Chapter Five

Conclusions and Implications

Conclusions from Phase One Research Questions - Attorney General’s Office (AGO) Survey

Law Enforcement Officers’ Knowledge about Human Trafficking Issues

This study concludes with a discussion of the major findings followed by implications for social work, limitations, and future research. Overall, findings from the Attorney General’s Office (AGO) survey show that there is a lack of awareness about human trafficking among law enforcement officers. A higher score would mean greater knowledge. An average score between 3 and 5 for each of the three dimensions of the AGO survey would indicate some level of knowledge about human trafficking. Unexpectedly, the respondents score lowest on the dimension of knowledge of laws and protocols. Average scores ranged from 2.32 to 2.44, and only 18% of respondents agreed to having adequate knowledge in this dimension. Scoring for knowledge of social services for victims was higher with a range from 2.23 to 3.20, and about one-quarter of respondents reported possessing adequate knowledge (25.3%). The highest scoring category of knowledge was the issue of human trafficking with over half of respondents reporting adequate knowledge in this dimension. Scores ranged from 2.44 to 3.28. These scores from the AGO survey demonstrate a gap in knowledge, about human trafficking among law enforcement officers.

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A high percentage of law enforcement officers perceived lacking knowledge of human trafficking laws and protocols (75.3%), lacking knowledge of the issue of human trafficking (61.3%), and lacking awareness of social services (54.9%). The overall lack of awareness may be explained as to why only a small percent of law enforcement officers perceived human trafficking as a problem in the community (6.8%). Previous research found that local-level law enforcement did not often perceive human trafficking as a problem in the community, and therefore did not have training informing them of the problem nor were agency protocols in place to respond to potential cases (Farrell et al., 2008). Interestingly, most law enforcement officers who participated in the first phase of research neither agreed nor disagreed that existing laws are adequate to protect victims (60.5%). Since the AGO survey included all law enforcement officers, who may or may not have had experience working human trafficking cases, it is not possible to conclude that there is an association between having knowledge of human trafficking and extent of experience with human trafficking cases, and perception of the adequacy of human trafficking laws. However, research has shown, “agencies with a special unit, protocols, or training are two to three times more likely to identify cases of human trafficking than those without such preparations” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 115).

Lack of knowledge and awareness goes hand-in-hand with the need for training. Without understanding the problem and learning how to recognize indicators and investigation methods, law enforcement officers may overlook evidence of human trafficking cases or may make preventable mistakes when they are investigating in the community. Additionally, without awareness of where to seek support for victims, law
enforcement officers may not be able to maintain contact with them during investigations and may not be able to gain victims’ trust on their own (AHRM, 2008; Bales & Lize, 2005; Farrell et al., 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). With increased frequency of training, the level of knowledge among law enforcement officers is expected to increase as well.

**Law Enforcement Officers’ Perceptions of Training**

Most law enforcement officers conveyed that their agencies need training on human trafficking issues (administrators= 62.5%; detectives/line officers= 34.7%). Only a small percent of law enforcement officers reported receiving training on human trafficking. More administrators (33.3%) than detectives/line officers (20%) reported receiving training. This sample showed more prevalence of training when compared to national-level studies. Farrell et al., 2008 found less than 20% of agencies, and another study reported less than 10% of agencies had received human trafficking training (Wilson et al., 2006).

An earlier Ohio study found that nearly all law enforcement officers (90.9%) had received training cases (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). This study was conducted four years earlier and included only law enforcement officers who had experience with human trafficking cases. Therefore the percent of law enforcement officer who had received training was higher. Telephone interviews in the second phase of this study revealed a similar finding with 93.3% of officers with human trafficking case experience having received training in this area.

Regardless of finding no statistical significant differences between administrators and detectives/line officers in their perceptions of training received, there seems to be a
need for increased availability of training. A mandated component of accredited training units should include human trafficking, in order to ensure officers are prepared to identify and respond appropriately to the needs of human trafficking victims. Understanding the definition and surrounding issues of human trafficking is important to include in training because human trafficking laws have created a new paradigm for viewing crimes, particularly involving the commercial sex industry (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Further recommendations for training content are discussed throughout the following sections.

Conclusions from Phase Two Research Questions - Telephone Interviews

Context in which Human Trafficking Cases are Identified by Law Enforcement

The data from the second phase of research supports the provision to target training on human trafficking toward units that typically handle cases related to human trafficking such as vice, domestic violence, missing persons, kidnapping and abduction, and special victims. Even though not all law enforcement agencies have dedicated units or personnel to investigating human trafficking, it is important that those who would typically be assigned such a case have the knowledge and resources to do so (Farrell et al., 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Even though most officers did not identify human trafficking as their primary casework, every type of case is either directly or indirectly involved with the crime of human trafficking. Understanding the primary cases law enforcement officers handle is important because human trafficking crimes are not always easily detected. In fact, a majority of respondents (78.6%) in this study stated that they became aware of human trafficking cases through arrests for other crimes. Given that most human trafficking cases seem to overlap with other types of cases, the
researcher suggests that training should be specifically focused on human trafficking identification, investigation, and referrals to victim services.

Vice incorporates commercial sex activities, namely prostitution, one of the many forms of human trafficking (Farrell et al., 2008). Many human trafficking victims are raped and sexual assaulted (Davis, 2006; Hodge, 2008); crimes that are investigated by special victims units. Furthermore, Internet predators and pornography fuel the demand for human trafficking (Jeffreys, 2009). In some cases where children are trafficked, family members are the perpetrators (Grieco, 2008), and thus are connected to child abuse and neglect investigations. Victims are obtained through the means of kidnapping and abduction, and are kept in servitude through means of fraud and forgery of documents (Hughes, 2003). Some crimes do not directly facilitate the supply or demand for human trafficking itself, but instead are associated with various activities in which human trafficking crimes may be associated. For instance, narcotics units may encounter prostitutes who conduct drug deals for their pimps. Also, traffickers sometimes force their victims to take drugs as a form of coercion to make them dependent on the trafficker (U.S. Department of State, 2009). Legal and illegal gambling activities are associated with commercial sex activities such as prostitution and strip clubs (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). Prostitutes disproportionally are murdered at higher rates than other groups (Monto, 2004). Most law enforcement officers (71.4%) encountered victims on the streets. Assuming that law enforcement officers come into contact with victims on the streets more often than other venues because it is part of their patrol and investigation routines, training initiatives should focus on informing detectives and line officers of
effective identification and investigation practices, as well as how to appropriately interact with trafficked victims.

**Characteristics of Human Trafficking Cases**

Respondents reported that their agencies have handled a minimum of one to a maximum of 73 cases, involving more than 1,300 victims encountered and more than 200 perpetrators arrested. Children (83.4%) and females (80.9%) made up the largest percentages of victims. More officers reported U.S.-born victims than victims born in other countries (85.7%). However, foreign-born victims were reported by over half of respondents (57.1%). Conversely, almost all perpetrators arrested were adults (99.1%) and males (96.4%). Most officers reported U.S.-born perpetrators (64.3%) than perpetrators born in other countries (28.6%).

Currently, there are no studies that estimate the prevalence and characteristics of human trafficking cases in Ohio using law enforcement data. However, two media review studies have revealed a total of 33 substantiated human trafficking cases in Ohio between 2003 and 2009 (OTIP, 2010; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Between 2003 and 2007, law enforcement officers reported investigating six cases in Toledo and between one and 10 victims per case. Officers in Toledo and Columbus reported encountering as many as 75 victims per year. The cases of trafficking involving children in the commercial sex industry were “almost exclusively female, ranging in age from 10 to 17” and U.S. citizens (Wilson & Dalton, 2007, p. 16). According to one Ohio Trafficking in Persons Study Commission report, more than 75 victims were recovered from an inter-state sting operation. More than half of these victims were children trafficked into the commercial
sex industry, and all victims had ties to Toledo, Ohio. As many as 20 traffickers were
arrested and charged with human trafficking. At least 11 sex trafficking cases recorded
since 2008 involved victims born in countries other than the United States (OTIPSC,
2010). No other comprehensive numbers were found estimating the characteristics of
human trafficking cases specifically in Ohio. Knowing information about victims and
perpetrators has important implications for law enforcement. Quantifying the problem
and identifying those who are potentially vulnerable allows law enforcement
administrators to assess the degree of the problem in their communities and to screen for
victims and perpetrators. From this information, administrators can then make informed
decisions to dedicate personnel and funding to address human trafficking cases.
Information from the Human Trafficking Reporting System has assisted in both
quantifying the problem and assisting law enforcement officers engaged in investigation
to share information. The database collects information from 38 federally funded multi-
agency task forces, including information describing incidences, victims, suspects, and
law enforcement agencies involved (Kyckelhahn et al., 2008).

Instituting mechanisms at the state and local levels is also necessary. A stand-
alone human trafficking law in Ohio requiring record keeping of human trafficking cases
may lead to more accurate and consistent data on the state and local levels. Not only
would a law require record keeping of human trafficking crimes, but it would potentially
increase the protection for victims, as well as deter traffickers from conducting their
activities in the state of Ohio (Clawson et al., 2006). Law enforcement database systems
could be utilized to record demographic information cases, victims, and traffickers,
including age, gender, country and city/county of origin, race and ethnicity, type of household for children (married, divorced, etc), and an open field for case notes that do not fit into any single category.

Collaboration with Law Enforcement Agencies and Community Organizations

Law enforcement officers in this study identified collaboration between law enforcement agencies as instrumental in effectively combating human trafficking. In fact, over half of respondents (57.1%) stated that they became aware of human trafficking cases through referrals from other law enforcement officers. Additionally, law enforcement officers who have experience with more than five human trafficking cases are involved in one or more anti-human trafficking organizations. This association suggests that involvement in such an organization facilitates information sharing and collaboration.

Furthermore, most respondents (66.7%) in this study received training from a federal law enforcement agency, which provides an opportunity for state and local agencies to establish relationships and build trust with federal agencies. State and local-level law enforcement officers (53.3%) cited lack of clarity of roles between federal, state, and local roles to monitor human trafficking as a barrier to identifying cases. Collaboration among all levels of law enforcement is imperative, as respondents explained to need for “open communications with intelligence organizations in the state, as well as the federal government” and “more trust … between federal and local levels because the local level collects intelligence information and the feds take it, but don’t
share the results.” Nationwide studies have discovered similar findings (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007).

One law enforcement officer mentioned “competition between agencies for jurisdiction” as a barrier, thereby hindering communication and information sharing. This point has been noted in other law enforcement studies as a barrier to effective responses (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). To contend with this challenge, instituting formal channels of communication, inter-agency trainings, and sharing agency protocols have been proposed (Clawson et al., 2006). Evidence has shown that collaboration between law enforcement agencies is instrumental in identifying, investigating, and successfully prosecuting cases (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007).

Law enforcement officers recognized the importance of working with community organizations to assist trafficked victims and to facilitate victim cooperation during investigation. The acknowledgment on behalf of law enforcement officers that they are seeking understanding from a victims’ perspective is critical because the law enforcement standpoint has not always viewed human trafficking crimes, such as prostitution, as a problem, let alone expressed interest in the impact on victims (Farrell et al., 2008; Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Not only do services for victims facilitate investigation, but strengthening relationships between law enforcement and community organizations also creates a stronger safety net for some of society’s most vulnerable.

In order to better assist trafficked victims, law enforcement officers and social workers in community organizations must reach out to one another and break down
barriers of distrust. In seven of nine prosecuted human trafficking cases on a national level, law enforcement officers and victim service providers worked together (Clawson et al., 2006). Ongoing collaboration requires the ability to trust one another.

Most law enforcement officers in this study worked with hospitals/health centers (73.3%) and children’s services (66.7%). Agencies that provide necessities, such as food, clothing, and shelter, as well as long-term assistance, such as employment services and mental health services, constituted 33% or less of collaborative relationships with community agencies. Few law enforcement officers (26.7%) mentioned working with local agencies that provide comprehensive services to victims. A nationwide study found that law enforcement officers perceived housing needs as the first priority (65%) and medical needs as the next most urgent priority (39%). Other services identified by less than one-third of law enforcement officers pertained to necessities for survival and supportive social services, such as food, clothing, support groups, mental health counseling, and legal and advocacy services (Clawson et al., 2003). In another study, about two-thirds of law enforcement agencies indicated meeting “immediate support needs of trafficking victims” (Farrell et al., 2008, p. 83). Research suggests that when law enforcement agencies belong to multi-agency task forces, they are more likely to connect victims with support services (Farrell et al., 2008).

Training for law enforcement, as well as for community organization personnel, could focus on strategies for collaborating with other law enforcement agencies and community organizations. Farrell et al. (2008) recommended creating a formal Memoranda of Understanding between law enforcement and service providers in the
event of encountering trafficked victims, thus preventing last minute “scrambling” for resources (p. 217). A formal agreement also establishes boundaries for information sharing and communication processes.

**Barriers and Challenges to Identifying and Responding to Human Trafficking Cases**

**Lack of awareness and training.** The previous findings and discussion from both the AGO and telephone survey data validated the need to increase knowledge among law enforcement officers and to increase availability and frequency of training. In a separate part of the telephone interview, the majority of respondents stated lack of training (93.3%) and lack of awareness (86.7%) as primary barriers to identifying and human trafficking cases. In responding to human trafficking cases, 86.7% reported lack of training and 66.7% of respondents reported lack of awareness as primary barriers. These responses are congruent with the findings from the first phase of the study where most of the law enforcement officers indicated lacking awareness and training in identifying human trafficking cases. Lack of training was cited by 53% of respondents in a nationwide study (Farrell et al., 2008).

**Lack of protocols.** In addition to these barriers, law enforcement officers identified lack of protocols as a primary barrier to identifying and responding to human trafficking cases. Support for establishing an agency protocol is justified by a majority of law enforcement officers who identified a lack of protocols as a barrier to identifying cases (66.7%) and responding to human trafficking cases (53.3%). More than one-quarter of respondents (26.7%) stated that their agencies had formal protocols, and increase since 2007. An Ohio study found only 2% of law enforcement agencies in Columbus and
Toledo, Ohio reported having agency protocols for human trafficking (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Moreover, all of the respondents who reported having an agency protocol confirmed that the protocols were “very useful” or “useful” for identifying cases of human trafficking. Lack of protocols was cited by 45% of respondents in a nationwide study as a barrier to investigating and prosecuting human trafficking cases (Farrell et al., 2008).

Protocols provide strategies and standards for law enforcement practices and define roles within the agency, thereby equipping law enforcement officers to detect and investigate human trafficking cases (Clawson et al., 2006). Agency protocols also allow administrators, detectives, and line officers to have a uniform code of response, especially in agencies without personnel or dedicated units that may need to refer to formal operating procedures (Farrell et al., 2008). In a National Institute of Justice report, an agent with the FBI stated, “investigations must be unified and focused, but that’s why [human trafficking] cases don’t get investigation I think. … There are no uniform procedures in place” (Bales & Lize, 2005, p. 126).

Although agencies differ based on the communities they serve, a statewide standard protocol for law enforcement response to human trafficking will provide a starting point for combating this crime in Ohio. Few law enforcement officers disclosed that they engage in pro-active investigations of human trafficking. In combination with more resources and inter-agency collaboration, research suggests establishing an agency protocol for identifying and investigating human trafficking (Farrell et al., 2008).
Lack of resources. In addition to implementing the structure to identify and investigate human trafficking, it is also important to note the resources necessary to address this crime. The vast majority of law enforcement officers expressed the lack of staffing (93.3%) and funding (80%) as barriers to responding to human trafficking. Two agencies in Toledo, Ohio have designated officers who handle human trafficking cases and also belong to federal-level task force (Wilson & Dalton, 2007). Strikingly, researchers in the same study noted, “the response in Columbus is largely coordinated through a single person” (p. 54). Nearly two-thirds of respondents in a national-level study indicated a lack of resources as a barrier to responding to human trafficking (62%) (Farrell et al., 2008), and another national-level study found that only four out of 163 agencies (2.5%) had dedicated staff to handle human trafficking cases (Wilson et al., 2006). The lack of resources available constrains law enforcement officers’ abilities to proactively seek cases of human trafficking. Because law enforcement in general reactively responds rather than proactively seeks cases, they oftentimes operate in crisis mode.

One respondent who participated in this study explained, “There are very few agencies that are actively investigating Human Trafficking cases at this time in central Ohio. These cases take an enormous amount of time and resources making it difficult for smaller agencies to investigate these cases.” For instance, many personnel, including an undercover officer, electronics team, and safety team of about six people are assigned to surveillance and making arrests. Further staffing is needed for interviewing perpetrators, victims, and by-standers and following up on leads. Pursuing human trafficking cases
faces barriers ranging from lack of cooperation from victims to lack of understanding among prosecutors and judges (Farrell et al., 2008), which also means that building a case sufficient for prosecution demands resources for a crime that may not be recognized as human trafficking. One respondent shared that once investigators built a case to support human trafficking, the judge ruled the crime a misdemeanor of prostitution instead. Consequently, the already scarce resources of the law enforcement agency were wasted. Correspondingly, resistance from prosecutors was cited in Farrell et al. (2008) as a challenge to pursuing human trafficking. However, in Toledo once awareness was increased among those in the criminal justice system, more cases were investigated and prosecuted (Wilson & Dalton, 2007).

Translation services are another valuable resource to law enforcement officers handling human trafficking cases. Two law enforcement officers in this study cited language barriers between victims and law enforcement officers. Interpreters are not always accessible and immediately responsive to the request to assist law enforcement. Farrell et al. (2008) found that 63% of law enforcement officers indicated language barriers and lack of translators as a major barrier.

**Social Work Implications**

Findings in this study on law enforcement response to human trafficking in Ohio have important social work practice implications on the individual, organizational, and community levels. On the individual level, social workers may directly provide support to trafficked victims. On the organizational level, social workers administer programs and implement personnel policies within agencies that impact preparation of staff and
adequacy of victim support. On the community level, social workers are responsible for advocating for their clients and public policies to protect their rights.

Recognizing the need to understand victims and effectively interview them are important to social work practice because social workers often occupy roles as victim advocates and therefore must interact and coordinate efforts with law enforcement officers. For social workers, it is important to be aware of the understanding law enforcement officers have of the reality for victims. If officers are identifying the need for more training, victim advocates must be prepared to express the needs of victims and work closely with law enforcement to protect the victims’ rights and mental health.

The involvement of service providers is especially important because victims of human trafficking often do not have a means of shelter and other necessities, outside of those provided by their traffickers. Collaborative relationships between law enforcement and service providers may facilitate victim cooperation with investigations and prosecutions and lead to more positive outcomes for victims (Farrell et al., 2008; Clawson et al., 2006). Therefore, training for law enforcement officers on the role of victim service providers and building collaborative relationships would lead to increased knowledge of the social service assistance available in the community and would enhance the response to victims’ complex needs.

Law enforcement collaboration with community organizations has significant implications for social work practice. Most respondents stated that their agencies worked with hospitals/health centers (73.3%) and child welfare services (66.7%), services that offer immediate response to victims. Social workers are employed by organizations that
provide health and social services, and they have direct contact with victims. In order to increase awareness of human trafficking in health and social service agencies, medical social workers and child protective service social workers should be trained to understand the issue of human trafficking and victims’ trauma and protecting the victim from undue harm. Continuing education and training is mandated to maintain a social work license, and the Social Work Code of Ethics directs social workers to ensure competent practice with clients by “continually striv[ing] to increase their professional knowledge and skills and to apply them to practice” (National Association of Social Workers, 2008, p. 6).

Moreover, social administrators should establish a formal protocol for supporting victims a vital safety net and boundaries for appropriate information sharing with the law enforcement officers, medical team, other involved professionals, and victims’ family members. When interacting with law enforcement, social workers are required to respect the client’s self-determination and maintain confidentiality, while at the same time working for justice for the client (NASW, 2008).

Social workers are charged with the responsibility “to enhance human wellbeing and help meet the basic human needs of all people, with particular attention to the needs and empowerment of people who are vulnerable, oppressed, and living in poverty” (NASW, 2008, p. 1). Victims of human trafficking certainly are incorporated in this scope of attention from social workers. On the macro-level, the Code of Ethics also calls upon social workers to advocate for social justice. Therefore, social workers should advocate to protect victims and clients from the oppression of modern-day slavery. They
can do so by supporting and actively lobbying for a stand-alone human trafficking law in Ohio.

Limitations

This study contributed additional knowledge to the information about human trafficking in Ohio. Furthermore, the results of this study corresponded to existing literature about law enforcement response to human trafficking. There are important implications for both law enforcement and social work fields construed from this research. However, there were limitations to providing a comprehensive and generalizable account of law enforcement response to human trafficking in Ohio.

There were three principal challenges to this study. First, limited research was available specifically addressing law enforcement and human trafficking in Ohio. Second, gaining access to law enforcement officers, in general, is challenging for three reasons. Correspondence via telephone was difficult by and large. Referrals were difficult to obtain. Contacting detectives and line officers was even more challenging because they spend more time in the field than the office, as compared to administrators. This study sought to gain an understanding of law enforcement response to human trafficking from the perspectives of those with investigation experience, which for the most part includes detectives and line officers. Third, there are a small number of law enforcement officers in Ohio who have experience handling human trafficking cases.

When the Master’s thesis was proposed, only two published studies explored human trafficking in Ohio (Wilson & Dalton, 2007; Davis, 2006). During the time which data was being collected, the Ohio Attorney General’s office released the “Report on the
Prevalence of Human Trafficking” in Ohio. Recently, there were two national landmark research studies published in the field of human trafficking and the role of law enforcement officers (Clawson et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 2008), but neither of these studies included Ohio, which made it less applicable to local experiences. While these studies were groundbreaking, they did not seek to include law enforcement in their sample. In fact, Wilson and Dalton (2007) obtained information about law enforcement in Columbus from various individuals involved in the justice system, not exclusively law enforcement detectives and patrol officers. Furthermore, Wilson and Dalton’s study identified cases through media accounts and contacting stakeholders, some of which were law enforcement officers. Davis (2006) presented a descriptive account of forms of human trafficking in Ohio and provided detailed explanations of legal and policy issues. This study did not include any information from the perspective of law enforcement officers in Ohio. Neither of the Ohio studies principally focused on exploring law enforcement responses, therefore this study intended to fill this gap in knowledge by targeting interviews with law enforcement officers.

Another limitation of this research is the sampling procedure for obtaining referrals. The study was designed to contact top administrators (i.e. chiefs of police, sheriffs, and patrol post commanders) first. The researcher assumed that the upper management would be aware if an officer or officers had worked on a human trafficking case. It was observed that the administrators were less likely to be knowledgeable about the experiences of their respective officers and therefore less likely to be able to provide a referral. Also the logistics of where the officers in human trafficking are housed within
the law enforcement division is a barrier to accessing them. The supervisor may not be accessible to the detective or line officer and sometimes they are located in separate facilities, especially in large agencies with several divisions (Swanson et al., 1993, p. 205). Supervisors may assume that if they have not heard about a human trafficking victims or investigations, it does not exist or has not happened in their agencies. Additionally, using the term human trafficking when contacting administrators assumes that they have knowledge about this issue when it is a relatively new definition under U.S. law. Participation also seemed difficult because the term human trafficking is relatively new to law enforcement officers. Ohio does not have a statute specifically defining human trafficking as a crime in-and-of itself, and therefore, detectives and line officers at the local and state levels are not necessarily familiar with the federal definition. Even if they have encountered human trafficking in the field, they may not have recognized it as such.

One challenge to contacting law enforcement officers was their availability. Officers were contacted two or more times and a considerable amount did not respond (n=31; 29.5%). Part of this challenge can be attributed to the methodology using telephone interviews. Given that most of the law enforcement officers have multiple responsibilities, and are often not available at the office made it difficult to reach individuals, especially those who were dedicated to investigating human trafficking cases.

Furthermore, this study focused on including only respondents with experience in human trafficking cases, and targeted line officers and detectives. Contact via telephone
with line officers and detectives posed a barrier because their duties are normally to investigate and patrol in the field, hence less accessible. Non-response rates may also be explained by a lack of desire to participate in research for fear of breaching confidentiality and lack of time to participate in an interview.

Another limitation of this study is the exclusion of federal law enforcement, as this study is to assess the law enforcement response to human trafficking on a state and local levels in Ohio. As evident in characteristics of the respondents, most of which are affiliated with a federal task force, the Federal Bureau of Investigation and Immigration and Customs Enforcement are engaged in human trafficking investigations, especially those involving interstate transportation. Excluding law enforcement officers from these agencies further limited the number of respondents.

Finally, contacting officers who have experience handling human trafficking cases was challenging. It was assumed that at least 25 local and state level law enforcement officers with experience working human trafficking cases would be accessible to be interviewed. It was discovered, however, that there are very few officers assigned to handle human trafficking cases, and the same small number of officers with previous experience has handled the cases that are known. The researcher assumed 25 interviews was realistic for two reasons. First, the prevalence of human trafficking in Toledo suggested that numerous law enforcement officers were involved in investigations. Second, the formation of regional coalitions and informal networks in Ohio suggested that communities were responding to the existence of human trafficking
in their neighborhoods, therefore signifying that law enforcement officers in this area were also responding to the problem.

**Future Research**

This study paves the way for exploring new methodology for conducting research in human trafficking from the perspective of law enforcement officers. Use of in-person interviews, including federal agencies and clarity in defining ‘what is considered as a human trafficking case’ has potential for increasing sample size. While this study collected data on overall characteristics of the victims in the cases, it would be prudent to collect victim data at the individual level to help illuminate the full extent of officers’ involvement and the complexity of their workload. Future work should increase the parameters of the regions studies by including more cities or geographic regions. Also, this study included only a few background variables, which limited the description of the respondents. Future research should explore other descriptive variables such as age, education, race, types of training received, etc.

In order to assist social workers with collaborative efforts with law enforcement, future research should analyze best practices for inter-professional communication structures and strategies. Particular attention should be paid to working with hard-to-reach populations, such as runaway youth, undocumented immigrants, and other groups who are vulnerable to being trafficked. In order to create a comprehensive safety net for trafficked victims, future research on victim services should include inter-professional collaboration models and investigate the incorporation of relationships with law enforcement into organizations’ program designs.
Summary

This study has implications for law enforcement responses to human trafficking in Ohio. Increased availability and frequency of training would create a foundation of knowledge about laws and protocols, the issue of human trafficking, and services available for victims, thus assisting law enforcement officers to effectively combat human trafficking in Ohio. Collaboration between federal, state, and local law enforcement is instrumental in building strong cases. Collaboration between law enforcement and community organizations is essential to both successful human trafficking investigations and better support for victims once they are identified by law enforcement. Most human trafficking victims are children and are female, while perpetrators are typically adults and males. Both U.S. citizens and individuals born outside of the U.S. constituted victims and perpetrators. In order to effectively respond to human trafficking cases, law enforcement officers identified the needs for more training, increased awareness, defined protocols, and more resources. Agency protocols were found to be useful to responding to human trafficking cases.

Furthermore, this study has implications for social work. In terms of social work practice, this study concludes that there is a need for building relationships between social workers and law enforcement officers to better assist clients and close the gap between systems that may not currently protect victims of human trafficking. In terms of policy, this study affirms the need for a stand-alone human trafficking law at the state level. It is the role of social workers to advocate for such a law in the interest of social justice, a core social work value.
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Appendix A: Social Systems Model of Law Enforcement in Ohio
Suprasystem: Criminal justice system actors & organizations and social service agencies that interact with trafficked victims

Feedback:
Disparities and congruencies between Outputs and Proposed Outcomes

1. Increase in victims rescued; Increase in cases identified, arrests, prosecutions, & convictions
2. Increase in officers trained; Increase in collaborations

Social System:
Law Enforcement in Ohio

Agency Goals (preserve peace)
Division of Labor
- Roles
- Group social norms
- Working conditions & information flows
Management
- Communication
- Accountability
- Formal Protocols
- Budget
- Training

Input
1. Victims; Traffickers
2. Information; Dedicated personnel: Support from mgmt; Funding; Public support

Structure
Mediate conflict
Investigate cases and arrest perpetrators
Formal & Informal Interactions between LE personnel and:
- Subordinates, peers, supervisors
- Other LE agencies
- Social service agencies

Output
1. Victim cooperation; Connection to social services; Successful investigations leading to arrest, prosecution, & conviction
2. Trained personnel; collaborative relationships
3. Resistance to change within agency; Stats

Conditions
1. Funding, Personnel, Knowledge, Collaboration
2. Regional Coalitions, State Commission, Federal Initiatives
3. Lack of Supportive Resources

Function
Boundary: Sworn duty

Interface: Law Makers, Social Services, Prosecutors, Judges, Justice Systems
Appendix B: Calculations for At-Risk Populations
1. 3,000 (runaway youth) was divided by two to equal 1,500 males and females. 1,500 (females) was multiplied by .55 (percentage of homeless girls in prostitution) to obtain a number of 825 homeless girls in prostitution in Ohio.

2. 3000 (runaway youth) was multiplied by .20 (percentage with histories of physical and sexual abuse) to obtain a number of 600 homeless youth with histories of abuse in Ohio.

3. 3000 (runaway youth) was multiplied by .17 and .35 (percentages of homeless youth who experienced sexual abuse) respectively to obtain a range of 510 to 1,050 homeless youth in Ohio who have experienced sexual abuse.

4. 1,345,152 (number of females ages 0-17 in Ohio in 2007) was multiplied by .25 (percentage of girls experiencing sexual abuse) to obtain 336,288 girls in Ohio who have experienced sexual abuse.
Appendix C: AGO Survey Instrument
Central Ohio Rescue and Restore Coalition

Law Enforcement Committee Awareness and Need Assessment Survey

The aim of this survey is to identify training needs and agencies’ level of awareness on the topic of human trafficking. The results of the survey will be kept confidential and will only be reported in aggregate. They will be used to help the Central Ohio Rescue and Restore Coalition (CORRC) prioritize efforts to better support law enforcement and other efforts to prevent and combat human trafficking. Please take a few minutes to fill out this survey which will help build a service response matrix for our area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact Person/Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City, State, Zip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your assignment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please use the following 1 – 5 Scale for each question:

1 = Strongly Agree 2 = Agree 3 = Neutral 4 = Disagree 5 = Strongly Disagree

1. I am aware of how Human Trafficking is defined
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
2. I know how to recognize the signs of a victim of sex trafficking
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
3. I know how to recognize the signs of a victim of labor trafficking
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
4. I know how to recognize the signs of a Human Trafficking business or entity
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
5. I am aware of incidences of Human Trafficking in Ohio
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
6. I have an understanding of the effects of Human Trafficking
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
7. Human Trafficking is a problem in my community
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
8. I have received training in recognizing and addressing Human Trafficking
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
9. My agency needs training on Human Trafficking
   1  2  3  4  5  N/A
10. I am familiar with Federal laws related to Human Trafficking
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
11. I am familiar with Ohio laws related to Human Trafficking
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
12. I know how to investigate according to Ohio Legislation
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
13. Existing laws are adequate to protect victims of Human Trafficking
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
14. I am aware of the Social Services protocol to follow when encountering a victim of Human Trafficking
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
15. I understand the criminal justice system procedures pertaining to Human Trafficking
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
16. The federal agencies should have sole jurisdiction of Human Trafficking in the U.S.
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
17. Social services are available to victims of Human Trafficking
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
18. I understand how to connect trafficked victims with services in the community
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A
19. My agency can investigate Human Trafficking cases
    1  2  3  4  5  N/A

**Please use the space below and additional paper if needed, to further add any additional concerns, examples or comments to the statements above**

Comments/Suggestions:

Thank You for your time!
Appendix D: Telephone Survey Questionnaire
I’m going to ask a few questions about your occupational background and training experience.

Background Information and General Knowledge

1. How many years have you been in the law enforcement/criminal justice field?

2. Please describe your current position and primary roles.

3. What types of cases do you primarily work?
   - Special Victims
   - Vice
   - Missing persons, kidnapping, abduction
   - Child abuse/neglect
   - Domestic Violence
   - Labor rights/violations
   - Other ______________________

4. From what source(s) do you primarily receive your training and technical assistance on how to investigate human trafficking cases?
   - Federal law enforcement agency
   - The agency you work for
   - State law enforcement agency
   - Social service agency
   - Local law enforcement agency
   - Other ___________________

I am now going to ask you about identification of victims and response practices, as well as how you have handled human trafficking cases.

Identification and Response Practices

5. How does your organization typically become aware of a case of human trafficking?
   - Private citizens
   - Referrals from other law enforcement
   - Arrests for other crimes
   - Other ___________________
   - Undercover operations

6. How many cases of human trafficking have you handled since you have been working in this department?

7. Does your have formal protocols for identifying cases of human trafficking?
a. (If yes) How useful is your formal protocol in helping identify human trafficking cases out of a range from 1 to 5? One meaning not useful; three meaning somewhat useful; and five meaning very useful.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not useful</td>
<td>Somewhat useful</td>
<td>Very useful</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

I am going to ask some questions about investigations, arrests, and prosecutions in which your agency has been involved.

**Investigation, Arrest, and Prosecution**

8. In your opinion, approximately how many total human trafficking cases has your agency investigated between 2005 and 2009? (Investigation can include collecting evidence, interviewing witnesses, writing reports and following up on leads. In addition, cases may include more than one suspect or victim.)

Now I will be inquiring about the human trafficking cases you have worked on.

9. What is your best estimate of the total number of male human trafficking victims you have encountered?

10. What is your best estimate of the total number of female human trafficking victims you have encountered?

11. What is your best estimate of the total number of transgender human trafficking victims you have encountered?

12. Of those human trafficking victims that you identified, what is your best estimate of how many were juvenile victims and how many were adult victims?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than 18 years old</th>
<th>18-24 years old</th>
<th>25-29 years old</th>
<th>30-39 years old</th>
<th>40-50 years old</th>
<th>More than 50 years old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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I will read a list of countries. Please respond “yes” to all that apply.
13. Of all the human trafficking cases you have worked on since 2005, which of the following countries listed below have perpetrators originated from?

- United States
- Mexico
- China
- Russia
- India
- Ukraine
- Korea (South)
- Nigeria
- Malaysia
- Thailand
- Vietnam
- Philippines
- Other: (list all that apply) -

_I will read a list of locations. Please respond with “yes” to all that apply._

14. When you are in the community investigating, where have you encountered victims of human trafficking?

- Streets
- Brothels
- Massage parlors
- Private homes
- Other________________

_The next few questions are about perpetrators of human trafficking._

15. Approximately how many perpetrators have been _arrested_ between 2005 and 2009 as a result of investigation?

16. What is the average age range of perpetrators who have been arrested for human trafficking between 2005 and 2009?

   - Less than 18 years old_____
   - 18-24 years old_____
   - 25-29 years old_____
   - 30-39 years old_____
   - 40-50 years old_____
   - More than 50 years old
   - Varies (please explain): _______________________________

17. Approximately what percentage of perpetrators of human trafficking who have been arrested between 2005 and 2009 were male?
18. Approximately what percentage of perpetrators of human trafficking who have been arrested between 2005 and 2009 were female?

19. Approximately what percentage of perpetrators of human trafficking who have been arrested between 2005 and 2009 were transgender?

_I will read a list of countries. Please respond with “yes” to all that apply._

20. Of all the human trafficking cases that you have worked on between 2005 and 2009, from which of the following countries listed below have perpetrators originated?

- United States
- Mexico
- China
- Russia
- India
- Ukraine
- Korea (South)
- Nigeria
- Malaysia
- Thailand
- Vietnam
- Philippines
- Other: (list all that apply) -

_The following section of the interview involves collaboration between law enforcement agencies._

_Collaboration_

21. Do you serve on any special task forces or work closely with any coalitions on the issue of human trafficking? If so, please describe the nature of your involvement.

22. Out of the following choices, what types of community agencies does your organization work with to respond to human trafficking cases?

- Hospitals/health centers
- Mental health clinics
- Clothing donations
- Employment services
- Food pantries
- Children’s services
- Housing agencies
- Other____________________

_The final section of the interview involves barriers and challenges to law enforcement agencies when investigating human trafficking cases._
Barriers/Challenges

I will read a list of options. Please reply “yes” to all that apply.

23. What are the primary barriers/challenges law enforcement faces in identifying a case of human trafficking?

- Confusion between the federal, state, and local law enforcement roles to monitor this crime
- Lack of awareness
- Lack of training
- Lack of protocols
- Other____________________

24. What are the most significant barriers/challenges law enforcement face in responding to a case of human trafficking?

- Confusion between the federal, state, and local law enforcement roles to monitor this crime
- Lack of awareness
- Lack of training
- Lack of protocols
- Lack of funding
- Lack of staffing
- Other____________________

25. What additional information or resources do you need to better address human trafficking cases?

Thank you very much for taking the time to answer these questions. Your participation in this study will be beneficial, not only to law enforcement officers, but also to victims of human trafficking.

Could you please refer me to other law enforcement officers who have experience working with human trafficking cases?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Region:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Position:</td>
<td>Phone:</td>
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<td>Email:</td>
<td>Email:</td>
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</table>
Appendix E: Distribution of Responses Sorted by Sub-Scale
Table 4A

_Distribution of Law Enforcement Officers’ Responses on Knowledge about the Issue of Human Trafficking N= 101_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th># of Responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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Table 4B

*Distribution of Law Enforcement Officers’ Responses on Knowledge about Laws and Protocols N = 101*

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Table 4C

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Appendix F: Reference - Senior Policy Operating Group (2008)
The President’s Interagency Task Force to Combat Trafficking in Persons

DECLARATION OF ACHIEVEMENTS

2001-2008
The President
The White House

Dear Mr. President:

Pursuant to Section 105 of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (P.L. 106-386), by Executive Order 13257, you established the President’s Interagency Task Force on Trafficking in Persons, chaired by the Secretary of State, in February 2002.

This Declaration of Achievements summarizes the work of federal agencies under your leadership to prosecute traffickers, protect victims, and prevent human trafficking. It has been an honor to work with you in pursuing these goals.

David H. C. Chu
Department of Defense

L. H. Chao
Department of Labor

Michael R. Bloomberg
Department of Housing and Urban Development

Sarah E. Bloom Raskin
Office of Management and Budget

James F. Flaherty, Jr.
National Security Council

Anne E. Finley
U.S. Agency for International Development

Office of the Global AIDS Coordinator

Candace R. discovery
Department of State

Department of Justice

Department of Health and Human Services

Homeland Security

Office of the Director of National Intelligence

Domestic Policy Council
DECLARATION OF ACHIEVEMENTS: 2001-2008
The President’s Interagency Task Force to Combat
Trafficking in Persons (TIP)

Prosecution: Identifying and Punishing Human Traffickers

- From Fiscal Years (FY) 2001 to 2007, the Civil Rights Division of the Department of Justice (DOJ) and U.S. Attorneys’ Offices prosecuted 156 TIP cases securing 342 convictions and guilty pleas. This represents a seven-fold increase in the number of prosecutions over the previous seven years, due in part to the creation of the Human Trafficking Prosecution Unit. These prosecutions have led to sentences as long as life in prison and to millions of dollars in restitution to victims.

- Since creation of the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) in 2003, U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) initiated more than 1200 TIP cases. ICE investigative efforts have led to over 360 convictions for human trafficking and related offenses. Since the enactment of the Protect Act in 2003, the ICE Cyber Crimes Center’s investigations of U.S. citizens who sexually exploit children overseas has resulted in 54 convictions.

- DOJ has worked closely with state and local partners through 42 Human Trafficking Task Forces nationwide, created and funded by DOJ’s Bureau of Justice Assistance. The task forces bring together federal, state, and local law enforcement investigators and prosecutors, along with social services agencies, to find and rescue victims and punish their traffickers.

- The Department of Labor’s (DOL) Wage and Hour Division (WHD) participated in 32 of the 42 Human Trafficking Task Forces to assist in identifying traffickers and ensuring restitution for TIP victims. DOL WHD also incorporated trafficking-related material into its basic investigator training and drafted a standardized internal human trafficking resource manual.

- Started in 2003, the Innocence Lost Initiative, a joint federal and state effort implemented through 23 task forces in selected cities, focuses on the investigation of prostituted children. Through this initiative, sponsored by DOJ’s Child Exploitation and Obscenity Section, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, and the National Center for Missing and Exploited Children, over 400 children have been rescued and 356 convictions obtained in state and federal court.

- U.S. Customs and Border Protection (CBP) established the Office of Alien Smuggling Interdiction (ASI) in 2006 to extend the nation’s security zone beyond the physical borders and to deter, detect, and disrupt illegal migration to the United States and increase prosecutions of alien smugglers and human traffickers.

- DOJ’s Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) funded a project creating an online TIP reporting system used by Human Trafficking Task Force members to record data on traffickers and their victims. BJS and the National Institute of Justice have funded and conducted research on the scope and nature of trafficking in the U.S. and globally, as well as research into the best practices of law enforcement and social services.
• The Department of State’s (DOS) Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons (G/TIP) tracks thousands of convictions globally through its annual TIP Report, expanding from 2,800 convictions in 2003 to 4,400 in 2007. Over 150 acts of new or amended anti-TIP legislation were adopted by foreign governments since 2003. These increases are due, in large part, to U.S. government diplomatic engagement and funded programs.

• The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) has strengthened the capacity of civil society groups internationally to change and enforce anti-trafficking laws and trained judiciary officials to implement those laws in countries including Albania, Mexico, Mozambique, Nigeria, the Philippines, and Zambia.

• The interagency Human Smuggling and Trafficking Center (HSTC), created in 2004 as a fusion center and information clearing house, has produced strategic assessments, intelligence reports, and training materials related to TIP, human smuggling, and criminal facilitation of clandestine terrorist travel. It has provided investigative leads to U.S. law enforcement agencies and worked with foreign law enforcement partners to combat TIP.

**Protection: Protecting and Assisting Human Trafficking Victims**

• Through FY 2007, the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) certified 1,248 adult trafficking victims and provided Letters of Eligibility to 131 minor trafficking victims. In FY 2007 alone, HHS grantees conducting community outreach made contact with approximately 1,500 victims or suspected victims; 122 started the certification process; 23 received certification; and 120 assisted open law enforcement investigations.

• HHS established a national hotline (1-888-3737-888) in 2003, currently operated by the National Human Trafficking Resource Center. In 2006, HHS launched the national Per-Capita Services contract to provide “anytime anywhere” services to rescued TIP victims. The contract has broadened the national network of service providers to 120 sites.

• DHS published regulations for continued presence as well as T and U nonimmigrant status, providing immigration relief to TIP victims and victims of violent crime. Through FY 2007, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services awarded 1,974 T visas to TIP victims and their family members. DHS also developed a model for law enforcement ensuring on-site victim assistance in the immediate aftermath of rescues involving large numbers of TIP victims.

• HHS expanded its capacity to identify and serve TIP victims through the launch of its In-Reach Campaign, leading to the establishment of the U.S. Domestic Notification Pilot Program. The Pilot Program notifies suspected U.S. Citizen and Lawful Permanent Resident trafficking victims of the benefits and services for which they may be eligible.

• The DOS Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration (PRM) has assisted 169 family members from 31 countries to join certified TIP victims in the U.S. through its program established in 2005 to support family reunification. Of the 169 persons, the program reunited 149 eligible family members with TIP survivors in the U.S., and provided 11 rescued victims with travel and reintegration assistance who elected to return to their countries of origin.

By the Senior Policy Operating Group

July 11, 2008
• The HHS Rescue and Restore Regional Grants and Intermediary Contracts bolstered innovative grassroots anti-trafficking efforts by sub-awarding nearly two million dollars in FY 2008 alone to small ethnic, community, and faith-based organizations that are on the frontlines of victim outreach and identification.

• USAID is implementing pilot residential rehabilitation programs in Cambodia and Ecuador based on its study of best practices, as required by the Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2005.

• Of $480 million to fund programs that combat exploitative child labor around the world, DOL has set aside more than 47 percent, or $227 million, to combat TIP for the purposes of labor and commercial sexual exploitation. DOL programs have rescued more than one million children from exploitative child labor globally, many of whom were TIP victims.

• U.S. government funding for international anti-TIP projects increased from $51 million in FY 2001 to $79 million in FY 2007, benefitting over 90 countries and totaling over $528 million since FY 2001. DOS G/TIP currently manages over $40 million in open grant funds. USAID provided $125 million for anti-TIP projects between FY 2001 and FY 2007.

• DOS PRM funded the development and dissemination of a Handbook on Performance Indicators for Counter-Trafficking Projects. The handbook reflects collaborative efforts with federal agencies and the priority placed by the Department on developing tools to measure the impact of anti-trafficking programs.

Prevention: Raising Awareness

• The U.S. government brought global attention to the importance of addressing the demand for trafficked victims. DOS G/TIP's extensive bilateral and multilateral engagement, public outreach, and programming, boosted focus on demand within the United Nations, by governments, the private sector, civil society, and the media.

• The Department of Defense has implemented its zero tolerance policy opposing prostitution and sex trafficking. Since late 2005, patronizing prostitution is a specific, chargeable offense for service members under Article 134 of the U.S. military's statutory criminal law, the Uniform Code of Military Justice. DoD is also working to prevent labor trafficking in U.S. military contracts. Anti-TIP training is now mandatory for all DoD assigned personnel.

• The HHS Rescue and Restore (R&R) Campaign launched in 2004 raises TIP awareness through media, coalition-building, and training. The R&R Campaign generated 274.2 million anti-trafficking media impressions in print, broadcast, and radio; reached 1.3 million people via the R&R billboard campaign; and galvanized hundreds of grassroots activists by establishing 21 R&R coalitions. Coalitions have trained thousands of front-line workers—forensic nurses, social workers, law enforcement, faith-based and community organizations.

By the Senior Policy Operating Group

July 11, 2008
• DOS G/TIP has built global awareness of modern-day slavery through eight annual TIP Reports, covering 170 countries in 2008 (compared to 82 in 2001) and focusing increasingly on forced labor, in addition to sex trafficking. DOS G/TIP has widely disseminated anti-TIP information through electronic and print media, the Internet, and digital video conferences – reaching 1.26 billion people in 2007, an increase of over 300 percent in the last two years.

• USAID supported public awareness campaigns including radio, drama, and youth camps to combat TIP. USAID partnered with MTV Europe Foundation and MTV Networks Asia Pacific to launch an anti-trafficking Asia campaign using TV programming, online content, and live events. Collaboration with top rock band Radiohead is taking the anti-trafficking Asia campaign global reaching as many as 560 million households worldwide.

• The Department of Education created a Fact Sheet providing the education community an overview of the trafficking of children and its effect on U.S. schools. It describes how to identify, report, and help victims, and lists resources and publications that schools can use to raise awareness. Through listservs and conferences, it has reached over 150,000 contacts.

• DHS ICE conducted TIP awareness campaigns through public service announcements, billboards, and capacity building training for over 24,000 law enforcement officers and nongovernmental organization personnel worldwide.

• DHS CBP spearheaded a public TIP awareness campaign to educate the traveling public, potential victims, and CBP employees. CBP has published Human Trafficking Information Cards in English, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese to discreetly warn potential victims of the potential risks they may face and assistance available to them.

• DOJ organized three National Conferences on Human Trafficking, attended by Human Trafficking and Innocence Lost Task Force members, and federal officials collaborating to combat trafficking. The task forces have trained tens of thousands of law enforcement officers and community members to identify this crime. Since 2001, 33 states have adopted legislation criminalizing human trafficking based on a DOJ-drafted model TIP law.

• The Secretary of Labor hosted in May 2003 “Children in the Crossfire,” a conference to raise awareness about the forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict, an unconditional worst form of child labor, and in November 2004 hosted the “Conference on TIP in North America” showcasing initiatives in the region. In 2003, DOL published “Faces of Change” to highlight DOL efforts to combat the worst forms of child labor internationally.

• DOS G/TIP built partnerships with the private sector, leveraging expertise and resources to combat TIP and child sex tourism – Carlson Companies became the first North American tourism company to sign a global Code of Conduct and develop training for hospitality personnel; and LexisNexis gave support to major public outreach efforts, technical capacity building, and in-kind assistance to the National Human Trafficking Resource Center.