

Human Trafficking:
Policies and Preventative Measures

Submitted by

Marybeth Gormley

Criminal Justice/Sociology

To

The Honors College

Oakland University

In partial fulfillment of the
requirement to graduate from

The Honors College

Mentor: Lori Burrington, Professor of Criminal Justice/Sociology
Department of Sociology, Anthropology, Social Work, and Criminal Justice
Oakland University

April 2, 2021

Abstract

The prevalence of human/sex trafficking in the United States is a concerning issue in society. This study looks at human/sex trafficking preventative policies and organizations and their effectiveness in small- or large-scale communities. Additionally, it looks at the methods utilized by these policies and organizations. This study will systematically analyze and compile findings from peer-reviewed evaluation research on the effectiveness of human/sex trafficking preventative measures. This study provides a comprehensive overview of various human/sex trafficking preventative measures and their effectiveness. This overview intends to provide knowledge that can be used by policymakers, practitioners, and the general public further to advance the prevention of human/sex trafficking.

Keywords: human trafficking, policy, organization

Human Trafficking: Policies and Preventative Measures

In the last few decades, the issue of human trafficking has become a prevailing concern. According to the United States' Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, human trafficking "is the recruitment, harboring, transporting, supplying, or obtaining a person for labor or services through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for involuntary servitude or slavery." Sex trafficking is defined as "a commercial sex act that is induced by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform sex acts is under 18 years of age" (Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000).

Measures have been implemented to help combat and prevent human trafficking worldwide. In the United States, the construction of the definition and societal views of human trafficking are critical factors in developing preventive organizations, laws, and other responses to human trafficking at the local, state, and federal levels. It is imperative to understand how the media impacts the public's views and knowledge on the topic. Typically, the news reports on the most severe cases of human trafficking because it grabs the audience's attention (Houston-Kolnik et al., 2020). By portraying trafficking in this way, they distort the real definition of the problem. People are vulnerable to and get involved with human trafficking in many ways.

This study is interested in evaluating the various techniques for combating human trafficking at the local, state, and federal levels. Whitney Shinkle suggests three categories to sort the current combating efforts: supply-based, demand-based, and financial gains (2007). This study analyzes efforts through Shinkle's (2007) framework analysis with compiled findings that analyze preventative measures and determine what is more commonly used at the federal, state, and local levels.

Modern-day Slavery

Human trafficking can be described as modern-day slavery. In the United States, it took several laws to eradicate race-based slavery, which is still prevalent in society today regardless of those laws. Therefore, human trafficking can be labeled as an alternative form of slavery in today's world that will require numerous changes, attention, and laws to eliminate (Logan et al., 2009). Numerous factors can make people more vulnerable to human trafficking, such as extreme poverty and specific personal characteristics such as gender, beliefs, and isolation (Logan et al., 2009). Individuals in extreme poverty look to alternative methods for making money, such as prostitution or obtaining any form of work. Additionally, the issue of inequality within the United States influences the type of victims selected.

One group of vulnerable people is immigrants, documented or undocumented, due to their societal status in the United States. Additionally, many immigrants are isolated and do not have many family members in the United States. For these reasons, they tend to live a low-profile life. These factors can make them a bigger target in the eyes of traffickers. Traffickers use various methods to control their victims, such as fear, lack of knowledge, isolation, physical and psychological confinement (Logan et al., 2009). To control victims, traffickers may also isolate their victims by keeping them captive and away from the public to silence them. They may physically and mentally abuse victims to keep their silence and cooperation. Keep in mind, not every case requires isolation. Some victims are among the public and have friends and family.

Undocumented immigrants may be controlled through their unlawful status by the fear of deportation. Additionally, people may lack knowledge of their human rights and the United States laws and not realize that their work situation qualifies as human trafficking. Some individuals may not be fluent in English, which may stand as a barrier between law enforcement

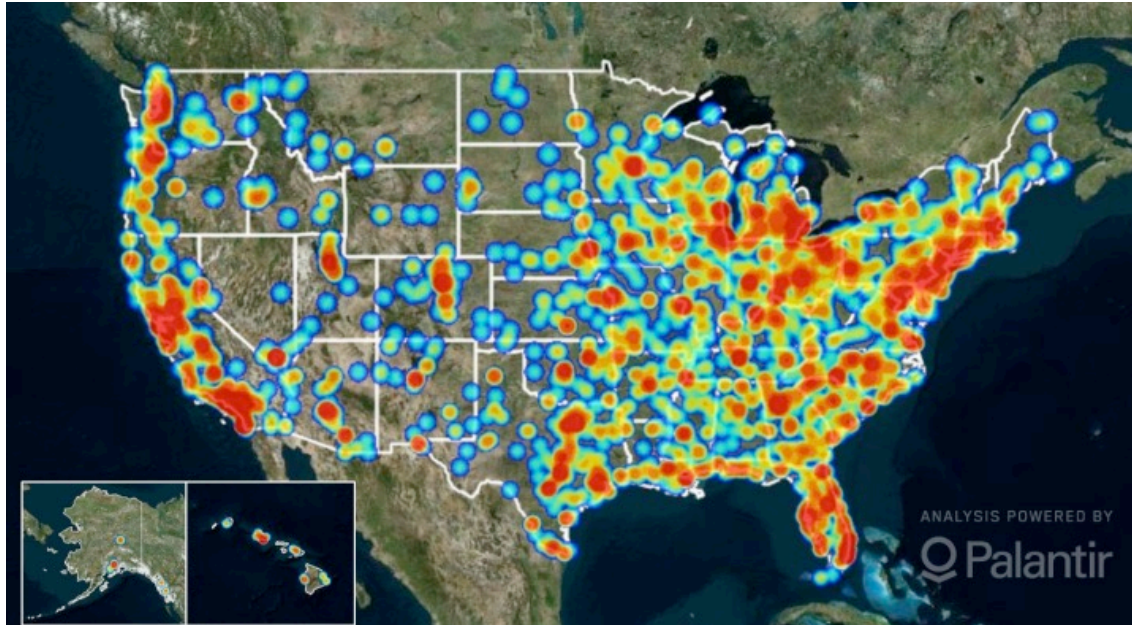
and victims. The public and law enforcement must know what to look for to recognize these victims (Logan et al., 2009).

When it comes to human trafficking, all states have a law addressing the issue, but state penalties vary. Across the United States, some states have a minimum of twenty years in prison, while others have a maximum of five to ten years (Farrell et al., 2019). This discrepancy may not deter some traffickers. Farrell and colleagues (2019) found that states with harsher criminal penalties are associated with higher arrests and prosecutions. Additionally, they found that arrests and prosecutions are most significant in states that have passed provisions to fund victim services, train law enforcement, and support multidisciplinary task forces (Farrell et al., 2019). Multidisciplinary task forces are formed to unite various agencies to assist with investigations, prosecutions, and victims.

Statistics

The Polaris Project is a national human trafficking hotline that gathers statistics based on the calls they receive each year (Human Trafficking, 2019). At the time of research, the latest data available from Polaris was from 2018. Figure 1 listed below displays where the Polaris hotline received calls from in 2018. The red represents high amounts of human trafficking calls, and the blue represents lower amounts of human trafficking calls.

Figure 1: Polaris Hotline State Data for 2018



(Human Trafficking, 2019)

High reports
of Human
Trafficking

Lower reports
of Human
Trafficking

In 2018, California had the highest number of human trafficking cases reported to the Polaris hotline totaling 1656 (Human Trafficking, 2019). Texas is listed second, with 1000 cases reported to the hotline (Human Trafficking, 2019). Polaris's map displays high activity in the eastern half of the United States and along the west coast in 2018 (Human Trafficking, 2019). In 2018, the top five nationalities of victims were from the Philippines, Mexico, the United States, India, and Columbia (Human Trafficking, 2019). In the same year, the top five nationalities of traffickers were from the United States, Saudi Arabia, Mexico, Qatar, and the Philippines (Human Trafficking, 2019).

Additionally, Polaris provides data on the ages of people who contact the hotline. In 2018, there were 10,731 adults, 4,945 minors, and 7,402 unknown callers (Human Trafficking,

2019). Based on the hotline's statistics, the United States has a significant human trafficking problem despite having policies and organizations.

Polaris has various ways to reach out to the hotline. In 2018, they had 28,335 phone calls, 5,197 texts, 1,566 webchats, 4,034 web forms, and 1,956 emails (Human Trafficking, 2019). Approximately 70% of people contacted the hotline via phone call (Human Trafficking, 2019). This information can help organizations and hotlines know what method of contact is best for victims.

Evaluation Framework and Theory

Shinkle (2007) Categorization

Whitney Shinkle (2007) evaluated current efforts by categorizing them as supply-based, demand-based, and reducing financial gains. She has listed criteria that assist with sorting the organizations and policies under these categories. Efforts that fall under supply-based tend to promote awareness, combat trafficking in other countries, provide legal alternatives for migration, or reduce poverty and gender inequality (Shinkle, 2007). Efforts that fit under demand-based typically work to inform consumers, make trafficking socially unacceptable, or educate traffickers or beneficiaries on the laws and harm done by partaking in trafficking (Shinkle, 2007). The efforts to reduce the number of money traffickers receive from participating in these illegal acts fall under reducing financial gains. This category is much smaller, with very few creditable efforts (Shinkle, 2007).

Conflict Theory

Conflict theory is one way to evaluate human trafficking efforts from a structural standpoint. This theory claims that conflict is inevitable within a society due to the existing inequalities and injustices present in society (Ballantine et al., 2018). It aims to understand power

and oppression in society by focusing on how institutions create and enforce inequality and tension between groups to uphold the dominant group (Ballantine et al., 2018).

The current conflict theory model derives from Karl Marx, who recognized the structural inequalities surrounding social class (Ballantine et al., 2018). Due to this inequality, Marx noted that working-class individuals barely had enough to afford food and shelter (Ballantine et al., 2018). He separated society into two categories: the capitalists or "haves" and the workers or "have-nots" (Ballantine et al., 2018). Marx believed conflicts would be inevitable until the workers could receive a portion of the profits (Ballantine et al., 2018).

Low-income individuals seek alternative survival methods. Poverty is the most significant factor of being a target of human trafficking, especially among immigrants (Logan et al., 2009; Weitzer, 2014). Davy (2016) acknowledges other "push factors" such as: "economic and political instability, government corruption, illiteracy, civil unrest, and low food production" (p. 488). These structural factors push individuals into accepting any work they can get. A victim's family may sell them to obtain money during hard times (Logan et al., 2009). The individuals who are considered the "have-nots" are often victims of trafficking.

Within conflict theory, feminist criminologists see women as oppressed by gender inequality and class inequality within U.S. society (Burgess-Proctor, 2006; Cullen et al., 2018). In a patriarchal society, women face discrimination, which could impact their ability to thrive. They face different challenges that may result in becoming victims of crimes such as sex trafficking.

Labeling Theory

As defined by Howard Becker, labeling theory posits that society labels some individuals as deviant (Ballantine et al., 2018). Ultimately, what is considered "criminal" is determined by

those in power who create laws (Ballantine et al., 2018). The workers within the criminal justice system are tasked with labeling acts as deviant. Edwin Lemert distinguishes two types of deviant labels (Cullen et al., 2018). Primary deviance refers to an act of deviance that only has short-term repercussions and has little interference with the individuals' status and reputation in society (Ballantine et al., 2018). Secondary deviance refers to the individual internalizing the deviant label (Ballantine et al., 2018). Ultimately, society's adverse reactions, stereotypes, and labeling of individuals can result in them embracing those labels and becoming self-fulfilling prophecies (Cullen et al., 2018). This label has long-term repercussions on people's lives (Cullen et al., 2018).

Labeling theory can be applied to the victims of trafficking. Historically, the wealthy define deviancy for other social classes and racial groups (Ballantine et al., 2018). By criminalizing trafficking, a criminal label is placed on traffickers. Additionally, the populations at risk for being trafficked, such as immigrants, people of color, and the poor, are typically labeled or stereotyped as deviant by U.S. society (O'Brien, 2016; Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) was intended to remove the criminal stigma previously associated with victims. However, with high inequality in the U.S., these labels did not disappear (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). This can interfere with how the public and law enforcement view victims and, in return, may impact whom they look out for.

Findings

Local Efforts

For this study, local efforts include organizations and policies that focus on specific communities or counties. I utilized the Polaris Referral Directory, which provided an interactive map of known human/sex trafficking prevention organizations across the United States. Past

findings suggest that most local efforts can be categorized under Shinkle's supply-based category (Shinkle, 2007). Many organizations around the United States focus on reducing "push" factors and raising awareness (Logan et al., 2009). Push factors can include runaway children, the homeless, extreme poverty, and prostitution. Many of these organizations focus on establishing a shelter for children and finding better alternatives for those in extreme poverty (Logan et al., 2009). These are considerably aimed at individuals who are at risk of being trafficked (pre-trafficking).

Additionally, organizations focus on providing resources to human trafficking victims (Logan et al., 2009). These can include legal services, shelter, food, and other resources that can assist their situation. These are aimed towards individuals after they are victims of human trafficking (post-trafficking). According to conflict theory, these prevention methods reduce trafficking by assisting marginalized individuals by providing resources. Many individuals look for means of survival and, as a result, get coerced into trafficking.

Awareness-raising Efforts

There is evidence that awareness-raising efforts successfully educate individuals on the dangers and prevalence of human/sex trafficking (Shinkle, 2007). The goal of awareness-raising efforts is to inform individuals on facts surrounding human trafficking, such as the warning signs, what puts people at risk, whom to contact, clarifying what trafficking is, and how to help prevent it (Shinkle, 2007). These efforts have been more tailored towards people at risk and the community they are located. They are accessible via social media, television, articles, magazines, posters and in-person events, and many other forms. These efforts have proven to increase collaboration between local governments and the community (Shinkle, 2007).

Researchers have identified unforeseen issues with efforts focused on raising awareness about human/sex trafficking. They have found that many of these organizations are more focused on a political agenda than preventing trafficking (O'Brien, 2016). Efforts that aim to prevent sex trafficking tend to advocate for eradicating prostitution (O'Brien, 2016). Many researchers do not find prostitution fully linked to sex trafficking (O'Brien, 2016). According to the International Organization for Migration's Counter Trafficking Module Database, 27% of assisted victims were trafficked for sexual exploitation, while 53% of trafficking victims involved labor forms (O'Brien, 2016).

Additionally, this political agenda error has occurred with anti-migration efforts. Many anti-trafficking awareness programs focus on minimizing labor migration even though it is also not entirely linked to human trafficking (O'Brien, 2016; Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). Various campaigns claim that the individuals who migrated are "the ignorant, the lazy, or the old fashioned" and lack information (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). According to labeling theory, individuals whom these labels are placed on may internalize it and it may become a self-fulfilling prophecy (Ballantine et al., 2018). Additionally, this belief leads individuals to suggest the solution to eliminating human trafficking is to eliminate immigration and forcing immigrants to remain at home, which is presented as a "safe place" (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). Some immigrants leave their countries due to poor living situations, which contradicts the assumption that home is a "safer place" for everyone.

Media's Impact on Human Trafficking

Few researchers have explored how the media, including social media (Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, etc.), television, and online ads, may impact individuals' knowledge and opinions towards human trafficking. One study looked at how human trafficking advocates felt

towards the media's depictions of the issue (Houston-Kolnik et al., 2020). There is an abundance of misinformation presented in the media, and the complexity of human trafficking makes deciphering the information difficult. This misinformation can lead to stereotyping and further victimization of victims, which are other critical issues with awareness-raising efforts (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018).

Stereotyping is expressed through portraying ideal victims as weak and criminally inclined. They emphasize gender roles such as submissive, naïve women who need protection due to being powerless, blameless, weak, and vulnerable (O'Brien, 2016; Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). Many campaigns were viewed as "disempowering and trivializing victims and their experiences" (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018, p. 115). Numerous organizations fail to address the full complexity of the human trafficking problem by not addressing the function of the social, economic, and political forces that play a role (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018).

The media can lead people to believe that individuals enter trafficking by choice through sex, for example. Additionally, it can create an image of these individuals being "whores" while ignoring other forms of trafficking (Houston-Kolnik et al., 2020). According to Houston-Kolnik and colleagues (2020), the trafficking advocates feel this image is due to the idea that things surrounding sex generate money in American culture; therefore, they focus on sex trafficking and ignore other forms.

The media tends to share details that will attract the viewers' attention. They often leave out the process of rehabilitation and the path it takes for survivors to heal (Houston-Kolnick et al., 2020). These survivors are often labeled as "victims," leaving them portrayed as "weak and helpless" (Houston-Kolnick et al., 2020). Images associated with trafficking typically display a woman who is in bondage. These images suggest that trafficking happens to women because

they are weak, vulnerable, and subject to abuse (Houston-Kolnick et al., 2020). This belief is problematic because men are trafficking victims too. Men are rarely recognized in campaigns. The ones that recognize men portray them as perpetrators and predators rather than victims (O'Brien, 2016; Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018).

According to labeling theory, this can interfere with how the public and law enforcement view victims and, in return, impact whom they look out for. Citizens may not notice the signs of human trafficking if a male is being victimized like they would if the suspected victim was a female. Additionally, the portrayal of victims as migrants, naïve, and lacking information on migration dangers may lead to further victimization (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018).

This portrayal informs people to look for individuals in chains or captivity when that is not always the case. Many individuals suffering at the hands of trafficking are walking the streets and appear "free," even though they are not. The media focuses on what will entertain viewers even through stereotypes (Houston-Kolnick et al., 2020). The misinformation may give people the impression that human trafficking is an international issue, and they may not realize that it can occur in their community (Houston-Kolnick et al., 2020).

The issues listed emphasize the role of inequalities within countries associated with the causes of human trafficking (O'Brien, 2016). Erin O'Brien (2016) suggests that governments benefit from the politically motivated representation of the human trafficking problem, which emphasizes individual responsibility as opposed to structural problems such as inequality.

On the flip side, media is a great tool to spark conversations surrounding human trafficking. These conversations can help spread accurate information that can correct the misinterpretations 24 hours a day. Advocates can use this platform to help spread "hope" and "agency" rather than "control" and "pity" (Houston-Kolnick et al., 2020).

State Efforts

Most state efforts can be categorized under supply-based and demand-based efforts. The focus of these efforts is on capacity building and policies. In many states, capacity building is done by forming coalitions or task forces. All states have a human trafficking task force or a unit of agencies that collaborate to combat human trafficking (Human Trafficking, 2019). These task forces can involve different police agencies, victim service providers, legal services, corrections, mental health groups, refugee services, and various local organizations (Human Trafficking, 2019). Additionally, most of these efforts are aimed at those impacted after the trafficking occurs (post-trafficking) and victims.

Polaris produced a longitudinal study from 2011 to 2014 that ranked states annually based on the laws and efforts they had to combat human trafficking and the number of victim's assistance offered. Polaris evaluated states based on whether a variety of efforts were implemented. They looked at if states had implemented sex trafficking provisions, labor trafficking provisions, asset forfeiture and investigative tools, and training and human trafficking task forces (2014 State Ratings, 2014). Additionally, they looked at whether states had a lower burden of proof for sex trafficking of minors, posting human trafficking hotline, safe harbor, protecting minors, victim assistance, access to civil damages, and vacating convictions for sex trafficking victims (2014 State Ratings, 2014). The information discussed can be found in Table 1.

Overall, 39 states qualified as a tier-one, which indicates they have the highest number of efforts in place (2014 State Ratings, 2014). Nine states and D.C. qualified as a tier two, and two states qualified as a tier-three (2014 State Ratings, 2014). There were no states ranked as a tier

four, suggesting that all states have some efforts to combat human trafficking. Polaris found significant improvement in state laws over the evaluation years (2014 State Ratings, 2014).

Polaris did a separate evaluation of victim assistance offered by each state. In the victim assistance section, states were evaluated on whether they implemented a human trafficking hotline, a safe harbor for minors, victim assistance, access to civil damages, and vacating convictions for sex trafficking victims (2014 State Ratings, 2014). Twelve states qualified as a tier-one, which have the highest number of victim assistances implemented, seventeen states qualified as a tier two, nine states and D.C. qualified as a tier-three, and twelve states qualified for a tier four (2014 State Ratings, 2014).

Two states had a perfect score in both categories: New Jersey and Washington state. According to the Polaris hotline state rankings for the highest trafficking, New Jersey ranks seventh in 2014 and fourteenth in 2018, while Washington state ranked eleventh in 2014 and thirteenth in 2018 (Human Trafficking, 2019). Looking at this data, even though these two states covered every category listed in combating laws and victim assistance, they still had a significant amount of human trafficking taking place compared to other states.

Table 1: 2014 Human Trafficking and Tier Ratings by State with Cases and Population

State (Ranked by number of cases in 2018)	Reported Trafficking Cases (2018)	Population (2018)	2014 Victims Rating	2014 Tier Rating
California	1656	39,461,588	2	1
Texas	1000	28,628,666	2	1
Florida	767	21,244,317	2	1
New York	492	19,530,351	2	1
Ohio	443	11,676,341	1	1
Michigan	383	9,984,072	4	2
Georgia	375	10,511,131	3	1
Nevada	313	3,027,341	2	1

Illinois	296	12,723,071	1	1	!
North Carolina	287	10,381,615	2	1	
Pennsylvania	275	12,800,922	1	1	!
Arizona	231	7,158,024	4	2	
Washington	229	7,523,869	1	1	*!
New Jersey	224	8,886,025	1	1	*!
Virginia	198	8,501,286	4	1	
Colorado	178	5,691,287	4	1	
Missouri	178	6,121,623	3	1	
Maryland	165	6,035,802	3	1	
Tennessee	165	6,771,631	2	1	
South Carolina	156	5,084,156	2	1	
Louisiana	149	4,659,690	1	1	!
Indiana	142	6,695,497	3	1	
Kentucky	141	4,461,153	2	1	
Oregon	135	4,181,886	3	1	
Wisconsin	134	5,807,406	3	1	
Oklahoma	121	3,940,235	2	1	
Massachusetts	120	6,882,635	2	1	
Minnesota	120	5,606,249	1	1	!
Iowa	102	3,148,618	4	2	
Kansas	95	2,911,359	3	1	
Alabama	89	4,887,681	2	1	
Mississippi	86	2,981,020	1	1	!
Arkansas	85	3,009,733	2	1	
District of Columbia (DC)	84	701,547	3	2	
Nebraska	82	1,925,614	2	1	
Utah	76	3,153,550	2	1	
New Mexico	70	2,092,741	2	1	
Connecticut	55	3,571,520	1	1	!
Hawaii	48	1,420,593	1	1	!
Delaware	42	965,479	1	1	*!

West Virginia	40	1,804,291	4	2	
Maine	32	1,339,057	4	2	
Idaho	26	1,750,536	4	2	
South Dakota	22	878,698	4	3	
Montana	22	1,060,665	3	2	
Alaska	19	735,139	4	1	
Rhode Island	18	1,058,287	4	1	
North Dakota	14	758,080	4	3	
Puerto Rico	14	3,193,354	NA	1	
Vermont	13	624,358	1	1	!
Wyoming	12	577,601	3	2	
New Hampshire	11	1,353,465	2	1	
Guam	4	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	
Virgin Islands	Less than 3	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	

* = Perfect score for Tier laws

! = Received 1 in both

Number of Cases in Each State/Territory in 2018 according to the Polaris Project Statistics:

(Human Trafficking, 2019)

Population Data in 2018: (United States Census Bureau, 2019)

Victim and Tier Ratings 2014 according to the Polaris Project: (2014 States Ratings, 2014)

Federal Efforts

The United States government provides a significant amount of funding for state coalitions. Additionally, they provide grants that organizations can apply for (Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000). Legislation tends to focus on demand-based efforts and reducing financial gains. They attempt to eliminate the believed need for trafficking by informing consumers, making trafficking unacceptable, or educating traffickers or beneficiaries on the laws and harm done by partaking in trafficking (Shinkle, 2007). Additionally, legislation

aims to reduce and eliminate the financial gains traffickers receive through their participation in human trafficking.

One primary piece of legislation in the United States is the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA). It was reauthorized in 2003, 2005, 2008, and 2013. The Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) has a framework of three "P's" to combat human trafficking: protection, prosecution, and prevention. The first "P," labeled protection, looks to protect victims regardless of immigration status (Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000). The second "P," labeled prosecution, requires the restitution to be paid to the victims and give up any property gained through human trafficking (Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000). Finally, the third "P," known as prevention, attempts to promote international initiatives to combat human trafficking (Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000).

Additionally, the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) created the Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons in the State Department. This office publishes the Trafficking in Persons (T.I.P.) report, which requires other countries to report their human trafficking incentives (Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000). It brings together federal departments and agencies to address many aspects of human trafficking (Blue Campaign, 2019).

The Preventing Sex Trafficking and Strengthening Families Act of 2014 aims to reduce sex trafficking among youth in the foster system and develop protocols for runaway or missing children (Federal Law, 2020). The Justice for Victims of Trafficking Act of 2015 was put in place to strengthen services for victims and put forth the requirement for a fund to support victim assistance programs (Federal Law, 2020). The Department of Homeland Security provides

immigration relief to victims of human trafficking to encourage them to come forward and feel safe (Blue Campaign, 2019). Both of these acts impacted the TVPA.

The United States Department of Homeland Security founded the Blue Campaign to unite various departments to effectively address human trafficking through training and general awareness (Blue Campaign, 2019). It established the National Human Trafficking Awareness Day on January 11 and started the #WearBlueDay to raise awareness (Blue Campaign, 2019).

Discussion

Local Efforts: Effectiveness

In the United States, local efforts to combat human trafficking are most effective when raising awareness about the issue. These efforts occurred both before and after the trafficking took place. Many prevention efforts educated community members on the dangers and housed people at risk, such as the runaway youth, while others offered victim services. It is easier to educate a community on the dangers and warning signs surrounding human trafficking at this level. It is useful for individuals to come together to stop human trafficking in their communities. These small acts can add up to significant changes. This is not to say they are without flaws, but they tend to focus on educating the community.

According to conflict theory and feminist criminology, structural push factors, such as poverty and racial inequality, associated with the working-class or "have-nots," push people into survival mode (Logan et al., 2009; Burgess-Proctor, 2006). Individuals may accept any work they can get or become coerced into trafficking through their illegal status (Logan et al., 2009). These inequalities in society continue to exist today and ultimately impact who is viewed as a victim and how they are helped (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018).

Inequalities in the United States have negatively impacted many campaigns and draw attention away from the issue they are dedicated to stopping. Stereotyping and further victimization are vital issues with awareness-raising efforts (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). Feminist criminologists posit that this inequality victimizes women. Stereotyping is expressed through portraying ideal victims as weak and criminally inclined. They emphasize gender roles such as submissive, naïve women who need protection due to being powerless, blameless, weak, and vulnerable (O'Brien, 2016; Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). Additionally, labeling theory suggests these stereotypes can lead victims to internalize these stereotypes and become self-fulfilling prophecies (Cullen et al., 2018). Offending individuals who are most at risk with these campaigns may make them a more considerable risk for human trafficking. These are the individuals who need to be aware of the risk factors, and these types of campaigns may push them away and not allow them to get beneficial information.

State Efforts: Effectiveness

According to the Polaris Hotline, human trafficking is most abundant in the eastern half of the United States and the Western border. It is essential to note the Polaris Project scored both New Jersey and Washington state as having met all significant efforts to combat human trafficking and had made victim services readily available. However, both states still had a significant amount of human trafficking (refer to Table 1). Perhaps, this is due to the enforcement of laws within these states or the possibility that the current laws and efforts are not highly effective.

The focus on combating the supply for human trafficking was found at a state level. Their best efforts are focused on policies and coalitions that work to eliminate the pool of available individuals that traffickers want to take advantage of. Generally, the laws aim to dissuade

traffickers from engaging in the act and protect victims and people at risk (Wooditch et al., 2009). Some of these policies can be categorized under demand-based efforts. Most state efforts are utilized after the trafficking has taken place rather than preventing it from occurring. If the local efforts aim to prevent trafficking from occurring and the state provides policies and services for the victims, a nice balance is present.

State coalitions can be beneficial for assisting the victims and efficiently prosecuting the trafficker. Unfortunately, many of these groups are unable to communicate and work together in a timely fashion (Okech et al., 2012). This lack of communication may hinder the criminal justice process and lead to further victimization. Individuals should have the ability to obtain professional aid should they need it through these coalitions, but these services are delayed or denied in some cases.

According to labeling theory, the criminal label can be internalized over time, and as individuals embrace it, it may transform into secondary deviance (Ballantine et al., 2018). These labels have detrimental impacts on these victims' lives (Cullen et al., 2018). Offering these services was intended to help remove the criminal stereotype assigned to trafficking victims by stressing that they are victims of a crime (O'Brien, 2016). Unfortunately, due to inequality in the U.S., immigrants, people of color, and the poor are stereotyped as criminals, which may impact how victims are treated throughout the process (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018).

Federal Efforts: Effectiveness

Legislation put forth by the Federal Government tends to focus on demand-based efforts and reducing financial gains. Providing policies and funding to smaller efforts such as state coalitions is the most significant effort provided by the Federal Government. Regardless of these efforts, the Polaris Project found that the United States is still in the top five for victims and

traffickers' nationalities, suggesting that more can be done to prevent trafficking within the states (Human Trafficking, 2019).

The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) made trafficking a federal crime in the United States (Okech et al., 2012). This Act enhanced penalties associated with trafficking offenses, allowed the seizure of assets and criminal forfeiture, and increased penalties from ten to twenty years (Wooditch et al., 2009). Additionally, the 2005 amendments defined the consumer of prostitution and sex trafficking as a lawbreaker that is punishable (Stolz, 2007).

According to labeling theory, assigning the criminal label to these acts could deter people from engaging in fear of having that label (Cullen et al., 2018). The TVPA attempted to deter traffickers by increasing the penalties and categorizing it as a federal offense (Wooditch et al., 2009). According to the U.S. State Department, the number of criminally charged has increased while the number of criminally convicted has not, suggesting the TVPA has failed to deter traffickers (Wooditch et al., 2009).

According to feminist criminologists, the law favors men and is not gender-neutral (Burgess-Proctor, 2006). White, upper-class men wrote the TVPA, which leaves room for biases reflected in the law. According to Burgess-Proctor (2006), women require more legal protection than men due to their vulnerabilities, such as rape. Feminist criminologists may claim sex trafficking results from women's oppression and inequality in society (Cullen et al., 2018). Within the TVPA, there is a focus on the international trafficking of women and children for prostitution (Stolz, 2007). Feminists believe sex trafficking is worse than prostitution because it requires a male dominant society and is suffused with violence, and legalization of the act would make it worse (Stolz, 2007). Some individuals link prostitution and sex trafficking together, but feminists provide reasons to separate them (Stolz, 2007). The reauthorization of the TVPA in

2003 and 2005 added provisions that prohibit grants given to organizations that support the legalization of prostitution (Stolz, 2007). These reauthorizations attempt to reduce the demand for prostitution by making the consumer unlawful (Stolz, 2007).

The TVPA aims to increase prosecutions by assisting victims and encouraging them to come forward (Okech et al., 2012). Between 1994 and 2007, the number of sex trafficking cases increased (Judge & Boursaw, 2018). One study found that after the TVPA was implemented, the rate at which charges were filed was slightly lower (Judge & Boursaw, 2018). This data may suggest that the Act slowed down sex trafficking rates, but more research is needed (Judge & Boursaw, 2018). Unfortunately, due to the crime's hidden nature, it is hard to fully assess whether trafficking has decreased (Judge & Boursaw, 2018).

Preventing Trafficking

The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) created a conversation with foreign countries regarding trafficking. The United States offers other countries assistance with drafting anti-trafficking legislation and prosecuting traffickers (Wooditch et al., 2009). International coordination is intended to reduce the spread of trafficking around the world. From 2000 to 2004, the United States had invested over \$100 million into preventing international trafficking (Wooditch et al., 2009). The United States requires foreign countries to implement anti-trafficking efforts. If they fail to meet the standards stated in the TVPA, the United States will not authorize financial assistance to those countries aside from humanitarian and trade-related aid (Wooditch et al., 2009).

As mandated in the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA), the U.S. Department of State annually organizes the Trafficking in Persons (T.I.P.) Report that includes 164 countries (Wooditch et al., 2009). The countries are ranked within a three-tier scale based on

their level of compliance with the TVPA standards (Wooditch et al., 2009). Out of the 164 countries included, only 28 countries report a Tier 1, and 25 countries have not enacted any anti-trafficking legislation (Wooditch et al., 2009). There are seven countries identified to be the origin of trafficking, and of those, one is listed as a Tier 1 (Wooditch et al., 2009). The lack of country participation suggests that the T.I.P. report has failed to secure international cooperation and persuade countries to adopt anti-trafficking standards. Therefore, this portion of the Act is unsuccessful (Wooditch et al., 2009).

The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) provides state grants to promote anti-trafficking awareness and provide additional training to law enforcement and coalitions (Stolz, 2007; Wooditch et al., 2009). The lack of knowledge in the community impacts the number of trafficking incidences and the number of victims coming forward (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014). The Blue Campaign and #WearBlueDay have spiked awareness on social media. This platform is a useful tool for supplying many people with information regarding human trafficking and its prevalence.

Evaluation Efforts

The Scientific Methods Scale (SMS) was put in place for researchers to reference to ensure good evaluation outcomes (Davey, 2016). According to Davey (2016), based on this scale, a

"research design that achieves Level 3 on the SMS, with measures of the outcome pre- and post-intervention and an appropriate comparison group against which to compare results, is considered a minimum design for drawing valid conclusions about effectiveness of an intervention."

The United States Government Accountability Office claims that evaluating anti-human trafficking organizations is difficult due to the lack of data concerning the number of human trafficking victims and the lack of an organized framework (Davey, 2016). In 2011, the Campbell Collaboration reviewed 20 studies and found that none met the Scientific Methods Scale Level 3 standard, suggesting that projects are not being evaluated properly. Similarly, GAATW and Davey's (2016) research supported these findings regarding the lack of appropriate evaluations (Davey, 2016). Researchers cannot conclude the effectiveness of organizations if they do not meet the SMS Level 3 standard.

Davey (2016) found more short-term evaluations produced than longitudinal studies due to the lack of funding and human resources needed. Longitudinal studies are necessary to understand the impact of efforts and organizations over time. Many programs are based on what they assume works, not based on research.

There is a difference between monitoring and evaluating. Monitoring is performed when the staff involved with the program or organization keep track of their success. These often lack transparency and legitimacy because they are typically designed to serve the interests of the organization. An outside party evaluates with a measure designed to provide accurate results and measure the organization's impact or program (Davey, 2016).

Recommendations

Researchers have listed recommendations to assist organizations with achieving their goal of combating human trafficking. Inequality and immigration must be addressed in the United States to get the most out of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) (Wooditch et al., 2009). Eradicating the push factors that make individuals vulnerable, such as poverty, racial and gender inequality, could help reduce trafficking (Okech et al., 2012). Many

trafficking victims are unaware that they are being recruited into trafficking, allowing smugglers to exploit them (Wooditch et al., 2009). Currently, the TVPA "fails to recognize that human trafficking is a dimension of illegal migration," and until it is viewed as such, the Act will not be efficient (Wooditch et al., 2009, p. 243). In the U.S., immigration policy and anti-trafficking policy impact each other. Therefore, they should be viewed as interdependent rather than separate entities (Wooditch et al., 2009).

Victims should be treated with more compassion (Wooditch et al., 2009). The criminal stereotype assigned to victims has profound implications for how victims are treated (Okech et al., 2012). They should be offered safe shelter and care (Okech et al., 2012). Removing this label and providing timely services to a broader range of victims can improve their health (Okech et al., 2012; Wooditch et al., 2009).

Additionally, the collaboration between the police and agencies should be improved to be more efficient (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014). There is currently a lack of training and communication between agencies (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014). Specifically, they should focus on getting things done more efficiently and implementing better communication by eliminating language barriers through translators (Farrell et al., 2019). If the community is educated on the signs of trafficking, perhaps more prosecutions would occur and result in less trafficking (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014). Additionally, improving these services can allow law enforcement to recognize trafficking situations instead of first assuming they are illegal citizens and resorting to deportation (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014). By improving the investigation tactics, the police will not need to rely strictly on victims coming forward (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014).

Wooditch and colleagues (2009) suggest making the T-Visa (enabling legal status) an incentive for cooperation rather than making it a requirement. The process currently suggests the

"prosecution of traffickers undermines the protection of victims" (Wooditch et al., 2009, p. 245). By removing the cooperation as a requirement and offering appropriate services to more victims, they will be more willing to help with the investigation (Wooditch et al., 2009).

Another way to help victims is to redefine the seriousness of trafficking required when offering aid to victims (Wooditch et al., 2009). Services should be offered to all victims in a timely manner to improve their health and wellbeing (Wooditch et al., 2009; Okech et al., 2012). Currently, the United States offers a significant portion of the budget to the investigation and prosecution of traffickers, while preventative efforts, including research and evaluations, receive the least amount (Wooditch et al., 2009). Redistributing these funds could help improve victim services (Wooditch et al., 2009). By implementing these revisions, the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) is more efficient at protecting victims, prosecuting traffickers, and preventing trafficking.

According to Shinkle (2007), prevention-based efforts are the least utilized. Despite the rise in awareness-raising campaigns, the lack of research on their effectiveness and credibility leaves them open for questioning (Shinkle, 2007). Organizations should implement clear goals with an obtainable path to achieve them. These efforts should separate political agendas from their human trafficking awareness campaigns to reach the most at-risk individuals (O'Brien, 2016; Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). Additionally, inequality found at every level needs to be addressed to eliminate the specific risks individuals possess for human trafficking.

The Federal government and states should strengthen current laws to protect victims better. Specifically, they need to strengthen labor laws and educate employees and employers on what those laws entail. It is essential to look at human trafficking from a human rights lens (Farrell et al., 2019). In other words, individuals should have the same rights and protections

regardless of skin color, sexual orientation, gender, or other factors. The issue should not be categorized as a political issue but rather an infraction on human rights.

Implications

There is little research available about the patterns of human trafficking and efforts to combat it. This lack of research is primarily due to limited available data and funding. There should be more of a focus on funding studies that can make improvements to efforts. Additionally, there is little research done on the supply- and demand-based efforts available. It would be beneficial to know which methods are more successful in combating human trafficking. There should be more evaluations of efforts than internal monitoring to see if they are useful (Davey, 2016).

These organizations put forth large amounts of money to host events and spread awareness, and it would be beneficial on a financial level to know if they are successful (Davey, 2016). This knowledge can allow the federal government to focus on funding efforts that are successfully working to achieve their goal. Inequality and immigration must be addressed in the United States to get the most out of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) (Wooditch et al., 2009).

If the current trends continue, the United States government will prosecute traffickers under the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA). With limited data, research cannot officially say whether these efforts have reduced the trend of trafficking. According to Judge and Boursaw (2016), there is an increase in trafficking prosecutions charged under immigration law. This substitution effect may impact future investigations and impact perception of the number of trafficking activities in research (Judge & Boursaw, 2016). The TVPA will

continue to lead the international anti-trafficking efforts and produce the T.I.P. report, proving to be unsuccessful at improving international collaboration.

The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) has been reauthorized many times. The reauthorizations of this Act have typically focused on improving the prosecution of traffickers. Based on these trends, it is safe to believe it will be renewed in the future, focusing on prosecuting traffickers. The TVPA will continue to financially support states' efforts to spread awareness about human trafficking. States will continue to support awareness-raising efforts regardless of their effectiveness at reducing trafficking.

Without addressing the inequality in society, people will continue to be victimized. The current trend suggests the rich are getting richer, and the poor are getting poorer, allowing the gap of attainment to grow (Szablewska & Kubacki, 2018). According to labeling theory, individuals and victims labeled as criminals are treated as such and may eventually internalize it and become a self-fulfilling prophecy (Ballantine et al., 2018). This trend will likely continue unless society changes the stereotype associated with victims.

Limitations

Research surrounding human trafficking is limited. This crime is significantly underreported, which affects the accuracy of the data received. This lack of data makes research more difficult. I found little research done on the effectiveness of organizations and efforts implemented. Many organizations participate in monitoring rather than evaluating; therefore, the data is biased and potentially inaccurate. I utilized the Polaris Project data because they can compile data at a national level that covers crimes that may not have been reported to the police. This data is not based on cases reported to the police, nor was a prosecution required to occur. These factors may have skewed their data.

Bibliography

- Ballantine, J., Roberts, K., & Korgen, K. (2018). *Our social world: Introduction to sociology* (6th ed.). SAGE.
- Blue Campaign. (2019). *Homeland Security*. Retrieved from <https://www.dhs.gov/blue-campaign/about-blue-campaign>
- Brennan, D. (2014). *Life interrupted trafficking into forced labor in the United States*. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Burgess-Proctor, A. (2006). Intersections of Race, Class, Gender, and Crime: Future Directions for Feminist Criminology. *Feminist Criminology*, 1(1), 27–47. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1557085105282899>
- Cullen, F. T., Agnew, R., & Wilcox, P. (2018). *Criminological theory: Past to present-essential readings* (6th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Current Federal Laws. (2019). *Polaris*. Retrieved from <https://polarisproject.org/current-federal-laws>
- Davy, D. (2016). Anti-Human trafficking interventions: How do we know if they are working? *American Journal of Evaluation*, 37(4), 486-504. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214016630615>
- Farrell, A., Bouché, V., & Wolfe, D. (2019). Assessing the impact of state human trafficking legislation on criminal justice system outcomes. *Law & Policy*, 41(2), 174-197. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lapo.12124>
- Farrell, A., & Pfeffer, R. (2014). Policing human trafficking: Cultural blinders and organizational barriers. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 653(1), 46-64. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716213515835>

Federal law. (2020). *Polaris*. Retrieved from

<https://humantraffickinghotline.org/what-human-trafficking/federal-law>

Gozdziak, E. M., & Collett, E. A. (2005). Research on human trafficking in North America: A review of literature. *International Migration*, 43(1-2), 99-128.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0020-7985.2005.00314.x>

Houston-Kolnik, J., Soibatian, C., & Shattell, M. (2020). Advocates' experiences with media and the impact of media on human trafficking advocacy. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 35(5-6), 1108–1132. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517692337>

Human trafficking and development: The role of microfinance. (2006). Exeter, England:

Published on behalf of World Evangelical Fellowship Theological Commission by the Paternoster Press.

Human Trafficking at Home. (2019). *Polaris* [Data file]. Retrieved from

<https://polarisproject.org/domesticworkers>

Judge, S., & Boursaw, B. (2018). The impact of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 on trends in federal sex trafficking cases. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 29(8), 823–

848. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0887403416655430>

Logan, T. K., Walker, R., & Hunt, G. (2009). Understanding human trafficking in the United States. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 10(1), 3-30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838008327262>

National Slavery & Human Trafficking Prevention Month. (2019). *U.S. Department of Defense*.

Retrieved from https://dod.defense.gov/News/Special-Reports/0118_National-Slavery-Human-Trafficking-Prevention-Month/

Nichols, A. J. (2016). *Sex trafficking in the united states: Theory, research, policy, and practice*.

New York: Columbia University Press.

- O'Brien, E. (2016). Human trafficking heroes and villains: Representing the problem in anti-trafficking awareness campaigns. *Social & Legal Studies*, 25(2), 205-224.
doi:10.1177/0964663915593410
- Okech, D., Morreau, W., & Benson, K. (2012). Human trafficking: Improving victim identification and service provision. *International Social Work*, 55(4), 488–503.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0020872811425805>
- Orme, J., & Ross-Sheriff, F. (2015). Sex trafficking: Policies, programs, and services. *Social Work*, 60(4), 287-294. doi:10.1093/sw/swv031
- Referral Directory. (2019). [Interactive map with organization locations]. *Polaris*. Retrieved from <https://humantraffickinghotline.org/training-resources/referral-directory>
- Stolz, B. (2007). Interpreting the U.S. human trafficking debate through the lens of symbolic politics. *Law & Policy*, 29(3), 311-338. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9930.2007.00257.x>
- Szablewska, N., & Kubacki, K. (2018). Anti-human trafficking campaigns: A systematic literature review. *Social Marketing Quarterly*, 24(2), 104-122.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1524500418771611>
- Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, Pub. L. No. 106-386, 114 Stat. 1464 (2000).
<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/10492.pdf>
- United States Census Bureau (2019). *Table 1. Annual estimates of the resident population for the United States, Regions, States, and Puerto Rico: April 1, 2010 to July 1, 2019* (NST-EST2019-01). [Data Set]. United States Census Bureau.
<https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/popest/2010s-state-total.html>

Weitzer, R. (2014). New directions in research on human trafficking. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 653(1), 6-24.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716214521562>

Wooditch, A., DuPont-Morales, M., & Hummer, D. (2009). Traffick jam: A policy review of the United States' Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000. *Trends in Organized Crime*, 12(3-4), 235–250. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12117-009-9069-x>

2014 State Ratings on Human Trafficking Laws. (2014). *Polaris* [Data file]. Retrieved from <https://polarisproject.org/resources/2014-state-ratings-human-trafficking-laws>