"Sex Trafficking Victims And Offenders In The United States"

ALEKSANDAR KITANOVSKI (Corresponding Author) School of POLITICAL SCIENCE, American International School MK-1000 Skopje, Macedonia Tel : ++ 389 77 800928 E-mail : alexmaldives@yahoo.com

Abstract

This project analyzed data previously collected from the University of Michigan Human Trafficking Law Project and the United States Department of Justice in order to identify the trends and relationships among several variables pertaining to sex trafficking victims and offenders in the United States. Recommendations include suggestions on the micro, mezzo, and macro levels to prevent sex trafficking and provide treatment to survivors and offenders. Both findings from the study and the literature review indicate that sex trafficking is an emerging global crisis, in which millions of women and children are deceived and coerced into sexual slavery. Although State and federal policies have been enacted to combat sex trafficking in the United States, globalization, a culture of tolerance toward sexually aggressive behavior, the high demand for prostitution, and government corruption and/or inaction have continued to allow sex trafficking to exist as one of the most profitable crimes for offenders.

Chapter 1 THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Sex trafficking is defined as smuggling people, mostly women and children, across worldwide borders and forcing them to become involved with prostitution, pornography, stripping, live-sex shows, mail-order bride services, military prostitution, and sex tourism (Zhang, 2007). It is prevalent both nationally and internationally, predominantly in third-world countries. According to the Trafficking in Persons Report of 2010, each year 12.3 million adults and children are trafficked worldwide and 40,000 to 50,000 of those are trafficked into the United States. Fifty-six percent of this population is women and children. Sex trafficking victims are women and children of different ages, socioeconomic statuses, and ethnicities from all over the world. Venkatraman (2003) suggested, "no neighborhood in the world is immune to human trafficking activity" (p. 2).

Sex trafficking is one of the most profitable criminal activities, as traffickers make anywhere from \$13 to \$20 billion worldwide per year (Zakhari, 2005). New policies such as the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) and the William Wilberforce Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2008 (TVPRA) have started to target human trafficking at the federal level. These policies increase criminalization fines, punishment for perpetrators, and provide sex trafficking victims with benefits and psychological services. Individual states in the United States have also

passed laws to combat human trafficking. They have helped set a strong foundation and the precedent needed in fighting sex trafficking. However, because of globalization, a culture of tolerance of sex trafficking, a high demand for prostitution, and worldwide government corruption, sex trafficking continues to be a low-risk criminal activity. This study examined sex trafficking in the United States by looking at two different databases, the Department of Justice and the University of Michigan's Human Trafficking Law Project. It analyzed the number of suspected sex trafficking incidents, factors involved in the sex trafficking process, and the characteristics of the victims and perpetrators.

Background of the Problem

The idea of trafficking people for profit emerged from the Transatlantic Slave Trade. Before 1865, approximately 10 million African men, women, and children were forced to cross the Atlantic Ocean to settle in North or South America, with approximately 645,000 slaves brought to the United States (Shelley, 2010). Upon arrival in the New World, they were sold and forced into slavery, where they were often beaten, dehumanized, and not compensated for their work in plantations.

During the 19th and 20th centuries, the terms "white slavery" and the "yellow slave trade" were coined to describe transnational sex trafficking from Europe and Asia to the United States (Doezema, 2000). Women from these continents were offered opportunities to work and live in the United States, and were deceived into signing contracts with trafficking recruiters stating that they would work to pay back smuggling fees. Once in the United States, women were never able to pay back the money owed, and were forced to have sex with paying male

clients, mostly in brothels, for controlling pimps. Most of the trafficked women spent the rest of their lives being sexually exploited and living in enslaved conditions (Keire, 2001). They were never compensated and were physically and psychologically manipulated and tortured. The idea that Caucasian women could be part of sexual slavery initially created a sense of panic in the United States. Unfortunately, the issue of sex trafficking today does not create that same panic. Some people participate in its continuation, while others turn a blind eye or are simply unaware of the problem. White slavery, commonly known today as sex trafficking, continues to exist on a global level, mostly affecting vulnerable populations of women and children. These victims are coerced to participate in this multi-billion dollar industry.

Once sex trafficking victims realize they are enslaved, it is almost impossible for them to escape. After women and children have been trafficked across international or state borders, traffickers convince their victims that they owe them money for smuggling fees and force them to pay it back through a process called "debt bondage." Debt bondage is the agreement that sex trafficked women must work until their debt is paid. However, sex trafficking victims find that it is impossible to pay off the owed debt (Broderick, 2005). Women and children are sexually exploited to make money for pimps. No matter how hard they work or how much money they make, it is never enough to pay off the debt.

Traffickers often destroy women's passports and identification, subjecting them to be detained and deported back to their home countries if they escape. This creates a fear of law enforcement. Sex trafficked women are moved to different parts of the country on a regular basis to prevent them from forming social relationships or becoming familiar with their surroundings. They ultimately live in social isolation (Zhang, 2007).

Traffickers use psychological and physical violence to instill fear in victims. Zimmerman et al. (2006) found that sex trafficked women in Europe were deprived of essential needs, including food, water, and sleep, and are often coerced into experimenting with illegal drugs. Once addicted, traffickers are able to manipulate them more easily. The victims also use drugs to cope with both sexual and physical abuse. If they refuse to participate in prostitution for any reason at all, victims are the subjects of extreme violence including gang rapes, physical abuse, and/or emotional abuse. This type of control makes women more vulnerable to developing mental health and chemical dependency issues.

Demographic Information of Trafficked Victims

Women are frequently victims of sex trafficking because of traditional gender roles. Families in countries such as India, Nepal, and West Africa choose to educate their sons and send their daughters to work at an early age (Buchmann, DiPrete, & McDaniel, 2008). Women and children are the ideal victims for sex trafficking because in these cultures they carry the burden of family hardships and responsibilities. They often have dreams of moving to westernized countries to make money and pursue educational opportunities, which makes them more vulnerable to sex trafficking. Women in these countries frequently have less access to resources and are not allowed to have higher paying jobs. This leaves women desperate, looking for a means of survival. Herz and Sperling (2004) suggest that in South Asian communities, families are expected to pay a dowry for their daughters' marriages, which creates financial stress. This forces families to consider other employment and marriage options for their daughters, which entices them to utilize mail-order bride services.

Obi and Das (2008) state that sex traffickers take advantage of "push and pull economic factors" and recruit women and children from other countries by promising them profitable jobs with great benefits and high salaries. In reality, traffickers are setting their victims up for a life of slavery. Traffickers prey on women who live in poverty because they understand these women are desperate for money and have few opportunities for employment and education (Shelley, 2010). Without education, these women have a limited understanding of life outside of their immediate environment, which makes them more vulnerable to become trafficking victims (Buchmann et al., 2008).

Simkhada (2008) reported that immigrant women and children from Nepal are easily manipulated into becoming involved with sex trafficking because they are eager to pursue new international job opportunities. Nepalese parents acknowledge that their living conditions are very poor, and the majority of the women trafficked are exposed to physical, emotional, and sexual abuse, which ultimately pushes them to look for a different life (Bal Kumar, Subedi, Gurung, & Adhikari, 2001).

Newman (2006) suggests that juvenile sex trafficking victims have different risk factors than adults. Juveniles are more likely to be recruited by traffickers if they run away from home, are in foster care, or are homeless

because of substance and child abuse issues within their families. They are more likely to have families who engage in domestic violence and have chronic mental illness. Traffickers easily recognize these vulnerabilities and offer them food, housing, attention, superficial love, and drugs. Often children first see their traffickers as the mothers or fathers they never had and after traffickers gain their trust, children are sexually exploited. Perpetrators are highly skilled men and women who will do anything to make a profit, including selling children's bodies for money.

Buyers and perpetrators of sex trafficking hold racist and ethnocentric attitudes, which has increased the demand for foreign women to be trafficked. For example, clients living in the United States stereotype Asian women as eager to have sex. This idea started during the Vietnam War when many U.S. soldiers started to use Asian women to fulfill their sexual desires (Sturdevant & Stolzfus, 1992). Estes and Weisner (2001) estimate that child victims are trafficked from over 40 different countries into the United States, increasing the racial and ethnic diversity. This allows buyers to have more choices. Raymond and Hughes (2001) noted in their meta-analysis that sex trafficked women, who are United States citizens, most likely identify as African American, Caucasian, Latina, or biracial (Native American and African American).

Statement of the Research Problem

The United Nations data suggests that the United States is the second primary destination for human trafficking after Germany because it is wealthy, industrialized, and prostitution is not only tolerated, but legal in some states. Estimates of the prevalence of sex trafficking in the United States vary depending on the source of data. The Trafficking in Persons Report of 2010 suggests that 50,000 to 60,000 women are sex trafficked into the United States while the United States Department of Justice estimates were significantly lower, about 14,500 to 17,500 (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). In addition, various studies have been conducted in the United States to understand the demographic information of victims and perpetrators of child sex trafficking through in-depth interviews and questionnaires, based on a limited number of participants (Estes & Weisner, 2001; Raymond & Huges, 2001). This illustrates that there is still a limited understanding of sex slavery due to its covert nature. Victims are hesitant to report the crime because of fears of being deported and arrested. Because of this, the prevalence and demographic information of victims and perpetrators in the United States is still relatively unknown.

Purpose of the Project

This study analyzed information from two databases, the University of Michigan's Human Trafficking Law Project and the Department of Justice, to analyze specific cases, prevalence, and trends of sex trafficking in the United States. The Department of Justice database provided data for the suspected incidence rate of different types of trafficking in the United States from 2007 to 2010. The University of Michigan Law School database provided the researcher with federal level court cases from 2003 to 2008. The researcher analyzed the frequency distribution of the country of origin of victims, gender of the perpetrators, location of incidents in the United States, type of violence inflicted upon victims, the first and second charges of perpetrators, the use of debt bondage, the use of the Internet to entice victims, the enticement of work opportunities, and if victims were transported across country borders. The data analysis also looked at the frequency of brothels used by the traffickers. Based on these findings, trends of sex trafficking in the United States were identified and compared to findings from the literature review.

Definition of Terms

Child Trafficking

Modern day slavery which exploits children 17 years and younger for the purpose of financial gain for human traffickers. It may occur across or within country borders.

Coercion

Threats of physically or psychologically harming trafficking victims if they fail to participate or perform as demanded by traffickers.

Debt Bondage

An illegal practice used by human traffickers in which perpetrators tell their victims that they owe money to pay for living expenses and smuggling fees. Victims are forced to pay back the debt through labor or commercial sex.

Human Trafficking

Modern day slavery which exploits the human body through forced labor services, prostitution, organ removal, or slavery. It is a criminal act in which perpetrators exert power over victims in an attempt to better control them for financial gain. Human trafficking can occur across or within country borders.

Sex Trafficking

Sex trafficking is a type of the human trafficking where vulnerable women and children are coerced into a life of slavery and forced to engage in prostitution, pornography, live sex shows, military prostitution, mail-order bride services, or sex tourism.

Theoretical Framework

Rational Choice Theory

The rational choice theory can be used to explain sex trafficking both economically and socially. Paternoster and Pogarsky (2009) state the rational choice theory explains human behavior and the choices people make. In general, people want to maximize social and economic gain and minimize risk. The rational choice theory framework can help explain sex trafficking from both the perspectives of the sex

trafficking victims and the traffickers. Women who are sex trafficked originally make the decision to trust their traffickers in hopes that they will accumulate money and an education in another country. Because the traffickers are professional con artists, they are extremely persuasive and deceiving. Women in third-world countries who face extreme poverty reason that the risk of trusting a sex trafficker seems small compared to the possibility of huge rewards in the future. Human traffickers, on the other hand, make up to \$100,000 annually for trafficking only one girl (Zakhari, 2005) and the risk of being caught is minimal.

Conflict Theory

The conflict theory, based on the economic theories of Karl Marx, attributes conflict to the inequality of the social and structural environment. People living in poverty are oppressed by those who have resources and power (Schriver, 2010). In Southeast Asia, women are discriminated against in several ways. For families living below the poverty line, girls are a threat to their economic well-being because they are not highly valued in society.

In Thailand, families marry their daughters to strangers and pay dowry money, often putting their safety and well-being into jeopardy. Young girls are forced by their families to marry elderly men, become involved in sex tourism, prostitution, or become mail-order brides for small amounts of money (Beyrer, 2001). Customs in India and Nepal like female infanticide, wife burning, and arranged marriages encourage women to give up their rights in order to earn the status of an "ideal daughter," "perfect wife," or "dignified widow" in society. In these cultures, women are expected to support their families under any circumstance.

Traffickers target single and widowed women living in poverty in Southeast Asia because they know that women are motivated by poverty, gender discrimination, and societal neglect to create income for their families. Women often agree to migrate in risky situations under debt-bondage to support their families.

Human Security Theory

Although human trafficking is not a new global issue, United States policymakers struggle to understand it. Some classify it as an issue of smuggling while others view it as a violation of human rights (Moussa, 2008). The human security theory states that the security and safety of all individuals is a human right. Often, the issue of sex trafficking is overlooked because some people do not consider it a form of slavery. However, sex trafficking is a threat to human security on many levels, and should be considered a global concern (Clark, 2003).

On an individual level, the spread of HIV/AIDS and STDs are passed to victims, clients, and their partners resulting in serious illness and death (Silverman et al., 2007). Sex trafficking victims also develop extreme psychological consequences as a result of their experiences with abuse. This includes substance dependency, depression, PTSD, dissociative disorders, and anxiety (Zimmerman et al., 2003). Individual victims are not given access to health and mental health treatment. They are also deprived of choices such as being able to quit their jobs, whether or not to marry, to have children, to practice a specific religion, or to create friendships. Their labor goes unrecognized and unpaid. On a societal level, sex trafficking increases violence, organized crime, government corruption, and weakens family ties. Families who have a member forced into sex trafficking are often overwhelmed with grief and remorse.

Justification

Organizing and investigating federal-level data in this study shows trends of sex trafficking in the United States. This will help the social work policymakers to both recognize as well as advocate within the United States government to improve federal and State laws to make them more congruent and applicable to victims. This project has also broadened awareness about the issue to individuals and communities. Everyone should be equipped with the knowledge to identify victims and aid them, rather than placing the burden solely on law enforcement and social service agencies. Lastly, with a clear and broad understanding of the ethnic diversity of victims, social workers treating these victims will be able to provide better culturally competent interventions and treatment during crisis intervention.

Assumptions

This research project is based on the assumption that oppression exists in the United States and is prevalent in the form of sex trafficking. This project assumes that sex trafficking is commonly underreported and the data collected does not fully reflect the actual number of sex trafficking cases.

Limitations

Because this is a secondary data analysis, the researcher is limited in analyzing only the number of variables investigated by the United States Department of Justice and the University of Michigan's Human Trafficking Project. The data analysis was examined in the framework of the variables provided, which limits the amount of data to a specific timeline, from 2003 to 2010.

Chapter 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In order to understand the complexity of sex trafficking, it is important to recognize it on the micro, mezzo, and macro levels. This literature review will focus on the historical background, causes, risk factors, consequences, and prevention of sex trafficking. Trafficking of all types continues to exist today because of the impact of globalization, a culture of tolerance toward sexually aggressive behavior, the high demand for prostitution, and government corruption. Even though United States policies are currently in place to combat human trafficking, future efforts are needed to raise global awareness, eliminate social stigma, and increase aid to survivors.

Human Trafficking

Human trafficking is considered to be a type of slavery, which exploits the human body through forced labor services, prostitution, organ removal, or slavery. The exact definition was composed by the United Nations in December 2000, and can be broken down into three sections: (1) The United Nations defines human trafficking as a criminal act, (2) It shows that human traffickers exert power over victims in an attempt to better control them, and (3) It defines the goal of traffickers as producing a profit by exploiting people for labor, sex, organs, and servitude (U.S. Department of State, 2010).

Sex Trafficking

Sex trafficking accounts for a large majority of the human trafficking cases. In the United States, more women and children are involved in sex trafficking than any other type of trafficking (U.S. Department of State, 2010). Sex trafficking is a highly organized crime in which traffickers systematically coerce vulnerable women and children into a life of slavery where they are forced to engage in prostitution, pornography, live sex shows, military prostitution, mail-order bride services, or sex tourism.

Child Sex Trafficking

In 2000, the United Nations differentiated adult and child trafficking by defining child trafficking as "the recruitment, transfer, harboring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation" (para. 5). Estes and Weiner (2001) further define child sex trafficking as "the movement of children for the purpose of financial gain as 'sex workers' across borders, within countries, across state lines, from city to city, or from a rural to urban setting." According to Raymond and Hughes (2001), most sex trafficking victims recruited into the industry are under the age of 25, with girls as young as 12 to 14 years old in the United States. Albanese, Donnelly, and Kelegian (2004) found that child victims in Ohio were as young as 10 years old; a majority of them were forced to participate in child pornography.

Historical Background

World War II ignited military prostitution in various parts of Eastern Asia and Germany. Women from China,

Korea, Thailand, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam, and Japan were abducted and coerced by Japanese military personnel to become sex slaves and live in houses where they were continuously raped by the Japanese military. By 1942, it was estimated that over 1,000 women were trafficked in Malaysia alone (Hirofumi, 1998). It was estimated that between 10,000 and 200,000 women were forced into prostitution during the war (Hirofumi, 1998).

The Third Reich also set up brothels in parts of Vienna and inside concentration camps. Women prisoners were forced to have sex with approximately 10 men per day in an effort to boost soldier and male inmate morale, and reduce the number of homosexual men. The most popular brothel, "Madame Rosa," had a total of 623,000 visits in 1943.

Women were falsely promised that they would be compensated and released from the brothels after six months. Many women contracted sexually transmitted diseases and were forced to have abortions (Czech, 2011). Today, sex trafficking continues on a global level because of various contributing factors.

Contributing Factors

Globalization

Globalization is defined as the "greater mobility of goods and people and rapid communication throughout the world" (Shelley, 2005, p. 37). Nowadays, globalization has made communication between and within countries easier. Cellular phones and the Internet, for example, have allowed children and women to be contacted any time of the day, even when they are in the security of their own homes (Zhang, 2007). Sex traffickers use websites such as facebook.com and myspace.com to lure young girls into meeting and talking with them. They use the Internet to hide their true motives.

The Internet has also increased the problem of child pornography. It gives viewers the illusion that it is private and anonymous. Sex traffickers advertise and post child pornography on websites that can be accessed internationally. They can post images and videos easily, with little risk of being caught. In their global overview of child pornography, Wortley and Smallbone (2006) estimated that there is more than one million child pornography websites on the Internet, and 200 new images or videos are posted daily. Between 50,000 and 100,000 traffickers organize the pornographic photography and videos, with one-third of them operating in the United States. In 1998, approximately one million people downloaded child pornography from a web site originating in Tajikistan (Shelley, 2005). The Internet makes the control of pornography extremely difficult, when one website closes, hundreds of others open. It is extremely difficult to regulate, and most traffickers understand that the chances of being caught are small.

Globalization has added to the ease of smuggling trafficked victims across international borders. Improvements in land, sea, and air transportation have permitted human smuggling to become systematic and organized by professionals. For example, as reported by Zhang (2007), traffickers use hitchhiking and convince victims to ride on top

of freight trains or trucks to cross the Mexico-United States border. It was estimated by Zhang that 500,000 illegal immigrants per year are brought into the United States by professional smugglers. Despite government efforts to control smuggling, it is difficult because sex trafficking victims are forced to be compliant with their trafficker's orders. Women in third-world countries search desperately to work in wealthier countries, and government corruption allows the trafficking of humans to continue.

Government Corruption

Government corruption, defined as "irregular conduct by government officials for personal gain" (Hughes, 2000, p. 4), is partially responsible for the high volume of smuggling and human trafficking across country borders. Government corruption has allowed human trafficking to become a lucrative and low-risk activity. Public officials worldwide such as border guards, law enforcement, immigration personnel, customs officials, lawyers, and judges allow human trafficking to continue by either denying that it is a problem or actively participating in it. Judges in Russia routinely take bribes from traffickers to reduce or dismiss criminal trafficking charges (Caldwell, Galster, Kanics, & Steinzor, 1999). In 2001, according to Agbu (2003), Bosnian visa and immigration officials were caught allowing traffickers to freely cross the country's border in exchange for sexual services. In Nigeria, hundreds of police officers were found visiting brothels and receiving sexual services from women and children who were victims of sex trafficking.

Law enforcement officials view sex trafficking as a complicated legal issue because women are illegally

brought across country and state borders to have sex with clients for money (Shelley, 2010). Even though these victims are enslaved, it is difficult to prove this in the court of law. Because of the cultural norms associated with prostitution, victims of trafficking are often more likely to be arrested than traffickers. Sadly, the victims are often charged as offenders.

Culture of Tolerance

Sex trafficking continues to be globally accepted partly because there is a cultural tolerance of pimps, people who sell women and children for sex. Pimps are glorified throughout the world, especially in the United States. The cultural practice of the word "pimp" is now an adjective synonymously used to describe men that are "cool," "awesome," "radical," or constantly with beautiful women (Shelley, 2010). Television shows, such as MTV's "Pimp My Ride," uses the word "pimp" to positively describe customizing and restoring old cars. In 2003, rapper 50 Cent released his new song, P.I.M.P, which sold over 500,000 copies. Several months later, 50 Cent was offered \$50 million to represent Reebok. During the 2003 MTV awards, Snoop Dogg walked on stage with two women on dog leashes. In 2006, he was featured on Rolling Stones magazine as "America's Most Loving Pimp." In 2006, the Academy Award for best song was given to Three-Six-Mafia's "It's Hard Out There for a Pimp."

The Demand for Prostitution

Survey research and different theories demonstrate that commercial sex exists because the demand for prostitution among male clients is high (Grubman-Black, 2003). The theory of "McSex" states that men want to purchase sex for control, the variety of sexual partners, and to immediately satisfy sexual needs. Grubman-Black (2003) further specified that male clients (1) are lonely, shy, lack self-confidence or are awkward, (2) want to have new sexual experiences, (3) become aroused by having a choice of sexual partners, (4) vent frustrations in their personal lives, and (5) feel like they need to have complete control and dominance over women. These men range in both age and number of times they have purchased sex.

Prieur and Taksdal (1989) hypothesized that a small amount of clients are actually responsible for purchasing the majority of sex trafficked women through prostitution. In 1998, a survey by Atchison, Fraser and Lowman was completed in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and the United States to determine the frequency and personal features of clients who purchased sex from traffickers. Findings confirmed Prieur and Taksdal's hypothesis, showing that 8% of surveyed men had paid for sex once, 33% had paid from two to 10 times, 32% from 11 to 15 times, and 27% more than 15 times throughout their lives. Men's ages ranged from 18 to 67 years old, 33% were married, and 87% were Caucasian. Ten percent of men said that they used prostitutes more than once a month. This study focused on the demand for prostitution of adult women; however, johns are often interested in child pornography and prostitution as well.

Sex Trafficking Process

Human trafficking is a systematic, highly organized crime comprised of a team of people who recruit, control, exploit, manipulate, and transport women into slavery (Arnowitz, 2009). It is difficult to fully understand and evaluate the process and organization of sex trafficking because few traffickers are arrested and convicted. As a result, limited information is reported and received by law enforcement.

Recruiting

The process of women being trafficked starts with recruiting. Recruiting is done through various methods including the use of the Internet and other formal advertisements, family members and friends, and, although rare, kidnapping. Recruiters initially offer women promises of marriage, employment, educational opportunities, or a better life. Contrary to popular belief, women are sometimes involved in the process as traffickers. Data taken from 78 countries showed that 42% of recruiters were women (Aronowitz, 2009). Most of these women recruiters are victims of sex trafficking themselves. In the Philippines, all trafficking victims left with traffickers willingly, with 25% pursuing recruiter careers themselves (Aronowitz, 2009). Push and pull factors make women and children the most vulnerable targets of becoming sexually exploited by traffickers.

Perpetrators of sex trafficking are more likely to be involved in other criminal activities such as welfare fraud, tax evasion, drug trafficking, bank fraud, robbery, money laundering, and insurance scams (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). They initially become interested in the industry because, compared to other criminal acts, there is much less risk of getting caught and they can make up to \$700,000 per year for trafficking multiple women. Estes and Weiser (2001) found that the number of offenders involved in one sex trafficking case can range from one to 14. The ages of these offenders range from 19 to 27 for women and 22 to 43 for men, with a majority of them identifying as African American. Pimps manage anywhere from one to seven girls at a time. In the United

States, perpetrators choose victims that are younger and more naive to the business and consequences of sex trafficking.

Push and Pull Factors

Push factors are defined as the hardships which drive women to move away from their families and home countries while pull factors are influences that attract women to move to wealthier, usually Western European counties (Aronowitz, 2009). Women may decide to trust traffickers and travel to other countries because they have experienced domestic violence, do not have educational opportunities, are unemployed, or live in perpetual poverty. Women around the world consistently have higher unemployment and poverty rates than men. Women employed, on average, make 76 cents to every dollar of a male colleague (Chang, 2010). Pull factors, driven by the global popular culture, shows an idealized view of the west. Films and television feature high, unrealistic standards of living, especially in the United States, leading women to believe that their needs will be met and their dreams will be fulfilled. Unfortunately, women who initially decide to trust traffickers do not realize that they will soon live a life in slavery (Schauer & Wheaton, 2006).

Debt Bondage

Once women agree to leave with traffickers, recruiters inform them that they must pay back the cost of smuggling fees through a process called debt bondage, usually between \$1,000 and \$35,000 (Ebbe & Das, 2008). Debt bondage is used to create and maintain control and dominance over victims. In order to pay off the debt, women must become involved with prostitution, sex tourism, stripping, pornography, or live sex shows. Most women are never able to pay off this accumulated debt because traffickers do not credit the earned money towards the victims' debt. Sex trafficking victims in Albania are exploited their entire lives or until they escape or are caught by law enforcement (Curtol, Decarli, DiNicola, Belli, & Savona, 2004). Victims of sex trafficking are controlled through excruciating physical and psychological pain.

Physical and Psychological Control over Victims

Traffickers physically and psychologically manipulate their victims by forcing them to live and work in poor conditions while depriving them of food, water, sleep, and social contact. They instill terror in their victims in order to reduce or eliminate resistance. This type of control is conducive to traffickers because they are able to make the most profits while sustaining the lives of their victims.

Living Conditions

Living conditions are designed to house as many women as possible in a small amount of space. As described by Caldwell, Galster, and Steinzor (1997), the brothels in Cambodia are dark, narrow, and unsanitary. Small apartments for trafficked women are often infested with bed bugs and cockroaches with only beds and a kitchen table and chairs as furniture. In India, "pillow house brothels" consist of small rooms with cloth dividers hung to separate beds. Sometimes women are chained to the beds. Women cannot leave the premises without a trafficking guard or manager.

Work Expectations

Traffickers expect that women will work long hours seven days a week. Campbell (2000) interviewed Thai women who worked in nightclubs and brothels up to 20 hours per day until 3:00 AM, seven days a week. Women are not given time off while they are menstruating or if they are physically ill. After work, they are expected to clean the brothel or recruit new male customers. Pyne (1995) reported that Burmese women working in brothels are not allowed to turn down male customers for any reason and must perform all sexual acts requested. Women are raped by up to 20 men per day in order to pay off their debt bondage in hopes they will be able to save enough money to return home.

Physical and Psychological Control

Pimps use a system of control, described by Walker (1979), as a cycle of violence to manipulate victims. The cycle starts out in the "honeymoon phase," in which pimps pretend to be in love with women, show them affection, introduce them to drugs and alcohol, and build their self-esteem, to gain full psychological control. This is followed by extreme aggression and violence through physical, sexual, and emotional abuse.

Once women become sexually exploited, it is almost impossible for them to escape. Pimps deprive victims of the opportunity to become familiar with their outside surroundings and do not allow them to integrate into the mainstream community in any way. Traffickers destroy all forms of identification including passports and do not allow women to communicate with anyone in the world outside of prostitution, forcing them to live in complete social isolation. Because of these living conditions, victims lose a sense of control in their lives and

often start to feel hopeless and helpless (Farr, 2005).

Journalist Michael Specter interviewed a Ukrainian woman who worked in a brothel in Israel who described the pimp she worked for, "He drove me to a brothel and burned my passport in front of me. He said, 'I own you. You have no papers and you don't speak Hebrew. You have to start working as a prostitute'" (Specter, 1998, para. 3). When she first refused, she was continuously raped and beaten. This experience is not unusual; pimps use physical and psychological manipulation to force women to comply with their orders. This has a severe negative impact on women's mental and physical well-being, leaving them incapable of escaping.

Impact on Women's Mental and Physical Functioning

Impact on Physical Health

Women who are sex trafficked are more likely to experience serious health consequences. Decker, McCauley, Phuengsamram, Janyam, and Silverman (2010) conducted a survey in Thailand and found that sex trafficked women were more likely to report condom failure, unprotected sex, and abortions without healthcare assistance. This subjects women to a myriad of health problems including sexually transmitted diseases. Silverman et al. (2007) found that 38% of sex trafficked women in Nepal were diagnosed with HIV. In addition, Cwikel, Ilan, and Chudakov (2003) studied the effects of sex trafficking on a sample of 55 women in Israel and found that 82% were denied access to healthcare by their traffickers, and because of this, they were more likely to develop physical health problems including chronic headaches, pelvic pain, gastrointestinal difficulties, oral health problems, and bone fractures. In the United States, trafficking victims only survive seven years, on average, after being trafficked because of these health issues (Potterat et al., 2004). These problems continued long after the women were no longer being trafficked.

Psychological Effects

The psychological consequences of sex trafficking are correlated to women's experience of sexual and physical trauma. Sex trafficked women experience higher rates of anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts (Zimmerman et al., 2003). In a study which examined specific mental

health symptoms of sex trafficked women in Nepal, it was reported that 97.7% of women had symptoms of anxiety, 100% of women had symptoms of depression, and 29.6% of women expressed having symptoms of PTSD (Tsutsmi, Takashi, Amod, Seika, & Eiji, 2008). Because of their experienced abuse, after women survive sex trafficking, they often have a difficult time integrating into mainstream society or finding normalcy in their own lives.

Substance Abuse and Dependency

A meta-analysis found that victims of sex trafficking were given drugs and alcohol such as marijuana, heroin, and sedatives in order to make them more obedient and easier to control (Raymond & Hughes, 2001). Women are often injected with drugs without their consent, to make them dependent on substances. Raymond and Hughes found that 71% of sex trafficking victims in the United States were forced to use drugs or alcohol. Because of this, sex trafficking survivors report higher rates of substance abuse as a way of coping with psychological pain.

Mental Health Treatment

Sex trafficking survivors are offered mental health treatment and services, usually through community-based mental health treatment centers. According to Bales and Soodalter (2009), the United States only has 39 emergency housing beds in the country for children who are sexually exploited. The remainder of the victims must go into foster care or to domestic violence shelters. Services for victims often include crisis intervention services, intensive case management, pro bono legal services, medical28 services, family reunification, and transportation to appointments (Clawson, Dutch, & Williamson, 2008). Women are slowly integrated back into society and receive educational opportunities and assistance finding employment if wanted. Agencies that provide these services in the Sacramento area include Opening Doors, Women Escaping a Violent Environment (WEAVE), Community Against Sexual Harm (CASH), Courage To be You, and My Sister's House. In addition to these services, victims are offered long-term trauma counseling, in which therapists use empowerment models to help re-connect women to society and build their self-esteem. Victims are often resistant to receive help because of their involvement with prostitution and feelings of shame (Clawson et al., 2008).

Sex Trafficking in the United States

Trafficking exists everywhere in the United States, including rural, urban, and suburban areas. According to a report by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime in 2006, areas in the United States used for

transportation and sex trafficking destinations include Michigan, Washington, Oregon, Texas, California, Arizona, and New Mexico. Victims are primarily trafficked from Asia, the former Soviet Union, Africa, Eastern Europe, and Latin America (Mizus, Moody, Privado, & Douglas, 2003).

Mail-Order Bride Services

The United States facilitates various types of sex trafficking. Mail-order bride trafficking, the process of selling women as wives to men abroad, frequently occurs in the United States. Mail-order bride companies use the Internet to offer men international

tours to meet their prospective brides. Usually, this arrangement is set-up through a "mail-order bride agency" which targets poor, underdeveloped countries. The mail-order bride agencies are not required to perform background checks on male customers. Therefore, women are often subjected to domestic violence, marriage fraud, and sexual abuse (Lindee, 2007). Lindee estimated that 15,000 women every year travel to the United States through mail-order bride agencies from Russia, Eastern Europe, Asia, and Central America. The website www.loveme.com offers men a trip to Russia for \$4,100. The trip includes airfare to Russia and events centered on men choosing their prospective wives, who may be under 18 years old (www.loveme.com). On average, these mail-order bride agencies make up to \$10,000 per woman (Lloyd, 2000).

Sex Tourism

Washington, DC is the United States' center for child sex tourism. Up to 200 juveniles per day are forced to post sex advisements on Craigslist for sex tourism. Buyers of sex services range in occupation and socioeconomic status. Even wealthy individuals are customers of sex trafficking (Shelley, 2010). Governor Elliot Spizer of New York paid \$10,000 per sexual encounter, for pimps to transport prostitutes across state lines to provide him with services, which violated interstate trafficking laws. In the southern states, military prostitution is prevalent in Asian massage parlors and brothels outside of Fayetteville, North Carolina (Shelly, 2010). Victims are trafficked into the United States to fulfill a variety of different services for male customers.

Human Trafficking Legislation

The Trafficking Victims Prevention Act of 2000

On October 28, 2000, the Clinton administration enacted the Trafficking Victims Prevention Act (TVPA), at a cost of \$95 million, to combat the international and domestic sex trade industry (Roby, Turley, & Cloward, 2008). It was the first primary and secondary prevention program designed in the United States to raise public awareness, stop human trafficking globally, and provide former and potential victims with social services. This policy reflected the values of the Thirteenth Amendment, which originally made slavery illegal in the United States (Cullen-DuPont, 2009). The TVPA of 2000 made human trafficking a federal crime, and severely punished pimps for soliciting children and women for sex. Those convicted of human trafficking in the United States are now forced to serve a life sentence in prison for trafficking crimes involving death, kidnapping, and/or sexual abuse of children or adults (Roby et al., 2008).

According to Cullen-DuPont (2009), the TVPA of 2000 provides up to 5,000 victims of severe human trafficking, per year, with a Trafficking Visa (T-Visa), which allows them to eventually become United States citizens. This qualifies victimized women and children for housing, education, food stamps, Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), Supplemental Security Income (SSI), daycare, English language training, Medicaid, job training, and psychological services (Ebbe & Das, 2008). In return, they are required to help government agents capture and prosecute human traffickers. The T-Visa demonstrates a tremendous change in immigration laws in

the United States, which once did not differentiate human trafficking victims from perpetrators or prostitutes, sentencing them to similar jail time or extensive fines. Furthermore, human trafficking victims were once regarded as illegal aliens and immediately deported back to their home countries after paying fines or serving prison time (Roby et al., 2008).

The prevention of human trafficking also involves educating and providing a critical analysis of the sex trade industry to potential victims, key policymakers, and the general public. Because of the TVPA of 2000, The United States Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Refugee Resettlement awards grants to numerous nongovernmental organizations to familiarize at risk populations, such as the homeless, adolescents, migrant farm workers, and prostitutes with possible scams and techniques that have been used by traffickers to seduce victims (Roby et al., 2008). Organizations present case studies to these populations, which convey the severity of human trafficking. In addition to domestic education, the United States is working globally to build awareness in other countries by implementing child education training programs in Brazil, Albania, Croatia, Cambodia, Mongolia, Russia, and Liberia (Roby et al., 2008). These programs provide other countries with

information about human trafficking through television, the radio, poster campaigns, new school curricula, and human trafficking prevention hotlines.

The William Wilberforce Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2008

The William Wilberforce Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act (TVPRA) of 2008 renewed and expanded the TVPA of 2000 by establishing new requirements for both domestic and international human trafficking laws (Ebbe & Das, 2008). The act provides funding for global prevention programs, adding protection for human trafficking survivors, and broadening the definition of human trafficking perpetrators. One of the main goals of the TVPRA of 2008 is to closely monitor human prevention trafficking services in other countries. In order to achieve this goal, The State Department of Human Trafficking in Persons Report started to record the status of human trafficking prevention efforts made by all other countries. This is a change from the TVPA of 2000, which only required the United States to monitor the status of human trafficking efforts in specific countries. By globally investigating human trafficking programs, the United States has been able to identify which countries are failing to meet the minimum standards for human trafficking prevention and, as a result, these countries have received more help (Ebbe & Das, 2008).

The TVPRA of 2008 also aims to aid human trafficking victims. This policy modifies previous T-Visa provisions and allows human trafficking victims to become permanent United States residents, even if their visas have expired. For the first time, these services have been extended to include victims of human trafficking originating in the United States as well as those from other countries. In addition, the TVPRA of 2008 has widened the definition of "human trafficking perpetrators" to incorporate people who

are indirectly involved with the human trafficking process such as those who provide sex slaves with food and shelter or entice them into the sex trade industry (Roby et al., 2008).

The TVPRA of 2008 also provides increased funding for new studies, reports, and data collection to better understand human trafficking both internationally and in the United States. Now, money confiscated from human trafficking perpetrators is given to nonprofit organizations to further the development of education and prevention programs.

State Legislation

In addition to the federal response of human trafficking, 33 states in the United States have passed bills which require law enforcement to attend human trafficking training, establish human trafficking prevention task forces, extend the term of imprisonment of traffickers, establish sex trafficking as separate from prostitution, provide services to human trafficking victims, or raise the penalty for traffickers who exploit minors (Bales & Soodalter, 2009).

Each state has different human trafficking laws, and in some states including Alabama, Alaska, Delaware, Louisiana, Maine, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming laws are non-existent (Bales & Soodalter, 2009). The states that do have human trafficking laws focus on the criminalization of trafficking perpetrators, often minimalizing or ignoring the needed benefits and protection for trafficking survivors. State laws are not as comprehensive as the TVPRA; law enforcement is more likely to use a "prostitute paradigm" to look at sex trafficking and assume that women are prostitutes and have a choice to participate in sex. Victims often do not have identification and are considered illegal immigrants, immediately sent to jail or deported.

Human trafficking is viewed differently from state to state. Law enforcement in states that have trafficking laws views the crime as a State crime. Law enforcement in states where there are no trafficking laws view it as a federal crime. Farrell, McDevitt, and Fayr (2008) surveyed over 3,000 law enforcement agencies, including State police headquarters and county sheriff's offices across the United States. They found that law enforcement agencies generally perceive human trafficking as non-existent in their local communities. Seven percent of the agencies had never investigated a human trafficking case, 6% of agencies had special units dedicated to human trafficking cases, 20% of agencies had received human trafficking training, and 10% of agencies had a human trafficking protocol. Law enforcement reported that many victims were resistant to cooperate with law enforcement out of fear that traffickers would kill them and their families.

Conclusion

Sex trafficking, a form of modern slavery, has damaged the lives of millions of children, women, and their families. Trafficking victims are stripped of their self-worth, tortured, abused, and even killed by traffickers while perpetrators often go without punishment. It is extremely important that social workers have a broad

understanding of the issue of sex trafficking so they can proactively and reactively work to combat it on the micro, mezzo, and macro levels. The gap in knowledge between the actual and reported sex trafficking incidence rates shows that much work is still needed in understanding the problem. This project seeks to increase awareness, from the social work perspective, of the prevalence and variables that makeup individual sex trafficking cases to help close this wide gap.

Chapter 3 METHODS

This chapter will discuss the methodology of the study including the research design, data collection procedures, measurement instruments, human subjects protection procedure, data analysis plan, and the study limitations.

Research Design

The research design of this project is a quantitative descriptive design because it described and analyzed sex trafficking data of cases in the United States collected by the Department of Justice from 2007 to 2010 and the University of Michigan from 2003 to 2008. According to Rubin and Babbie (2010), the goal of a quantitative descriptive study is to describe the characteristics of a specific population through analyzing and describing relationships between sample variables.

This project examined sex trafficking in the United States by first studying the number of suspected human trafficking and sex trafficking incidents provided by the Department of Justice data. It then analyzed data pertaining to factors and relationships from 20 different sex trafficking cases from the University of Michigan's Law School Human Trafficking Project. The variables gathered from the University of Michigan Law School database included the age category and country of origin of victims, gender of perpetrators, location of incidents, type of violence inflicted upon victims, the first and second charges of perpetrators, the use of debt bondage, the use of the Internet, enticement of work opportunities to victims, and if victims were transported across country borders. The data analysis also included the frequency of brothels used by traffickers.

All of the cases used for this project were categorized by the court as sexual exploitation/prostitution cases. All of the cases had female victims and adult perpetrators. This project explored the impact of sex trafficking in a different way, by combining and organizing sex trafficking information; thereby gaining more information and increasing awareness about the variables that make up and impact sex trafficking in the United States.

Data Collection Procedures

There were no participants directly involved in this research project because it is a secondary data analysis. It analyzed data previously collected by the United States Department of Justice and University of Michigan's Law School Human Trafficking Project. The data collection procedures of both projects were outlined on their respective websites and are free for the public to access and use for analysis.

The Department of Justice funds the Human Trafficking Reporting System, which collects data from 42 local task forces to measure information on human trafficking in the United States. From January 2007 to June 2010, the Human Trafficking Reporting System collected information through surveys and interviews with victim service organizations, federal law enforcement agencies, the United States Attorney's Offices, and the Civil Rights Division of Justice. This information was collected in approximately 25% of the United States, from 42 different jurisdictions. The Department of Justice

defined a human trafficking incident as a human trafficking case that led to a perpetrator arrest where the survivor received a T-Visa. The raw data for this project is available to the public online at http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/rawdata.cfm through the Bureau of Justice website. Consent was given to use human trafficking data for the purpose of secondary data analysis.

In February 2011, The University of Michigan created the Human Trafficking Law Project, a database that provides detailed information of federal and State human trafficking cases from 1980 to the present. Each human trafficking case was reviewed by University of Michigan law students and the Human Trafficking Law Project manager and summarized before being entered into the database. The researchers collected the database information from the United States Department of Justice and other government websites such as the LexisNexis Internet search engine and legal research services. The Human Trafficking Law Project is the only publicly available database that describes specific human trafficking cases. This website is available at

http://www.law.umich.edu and consent was given to use human trafficking data for the purpose of secondary data analysis.

Measurement Instruments

This project required access to a computer and the University of Michigan's Human Trafficking Law Project and the Department of Justice websites. The descriptive data was analyzed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Human Subjects Protection

In the fall semester of 2011, the researcher submitted the Human Subjects application for review to the project research advisor. The project advisor made corrections and suggestions in order to assist the researcher to complete the application. The Protection of Human Subjects Protocol was completed and reviewed by the Division of Social Work at California State University, Sacramento in October 2011. On November 17, 2011 the researcher received a letter from the Human Subjects reviewers stating that the project had been approved, approval number 11-12-034. The Human Subjects reviewers determined that the level of risk of this research project was exempt because the researcher is reviewing and analyzing anonymous and confidential data previously collected by other research institutions. There were no risks involved with conducting this project.

Data Analysis Plan

All collected data from the Department of Justice was re-organized by the researcher and placed in a new table on an excel spreadsheet before being entered into SPSS to evaluate the mean and frequency of trafficking in the United States per quarter from 2007 to 2010.

The data from the University of Michigan was organized into categories by the researcher and then entered into SPSS. SPSS generated frequency distribution tables of each variable. A contingency coefficient was calculated to measure the association between gender of the perpetrator and the use of violence. The cross-tabulation test controlled for internet use when looking at the first charge of the perpetrator.

Limitations

Although the researcher collected information about sex trafficking from two different databases, there were still a number of limitations to the project. This project was limited to analyzing the variables provided by each database. Sex trafficking is often underreported and unrecognized in the United States. Because of this, it is impossible for either database to know the exact rate of sex trafficking. Traffickers are not always prosecuted and may take a plea bargain to avoid going to trial so these cases are automatically eliminated from the databases. Because of these factors, this project does not represent the actual number of sex trafficking incidents in the United States.

The Department of Justice website states that data was only collected in 25% of the United States. Therefore, the findings from this study cannot be generalized to the entire country and does not represent all trends of the incidence of trafficking in the United States. The researcher analyzed 20 different cases from the University of Michigan Human Trafficking Law Project, which is a small sample size. A larger sample size would be needed to establish validity of the data and lend more generalizability to the findings.

Chapter 4 RESULTS

The following data analysis represents variables from 20 different United States sex trafficking cases from the University of Michigan Human Trafficking Law Project database from 2003 to 2008 and the suspected incidents of United States sex trafficking as generated by the Department of Justice from 2007 to 2010. Findings for this secondary data analysis were generated from SPSS.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Minor	13	65.0	65.0	65.0
Adult	2	10.0	10.0	75.0
both	5	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

In this particular sample, the majority of the victims were minors. This corresponds with the literature reviewed that refers to the increasing trafficking rate pertaining to minors. Estes and Weisner (2001) estimated that 100,000 to 300,000 children are trafficked in the United States with victims as young as 12 years old.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution of the Country of Origin of Victims

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid United States	7	35.0	35.0	35.0
Brazil	2	10.0	10.0	45.0
Mexico	1	5.0	5.0	50.0
Costa Rica	1	5.0	5.0	55.0
Unknown	9	45.0	45.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

This table shows the frequency distribution of the country of origin of sex trafficking victims. Out of the cases analyzed, the country of origin for 35% of victims was the United States, 10% of victims' country of origin was Brazil, 5% of victims' country of origin was Costa Rica, 5% of victims' country of origin was Mexico, and 45% of victims' country of origin was unknown. The literature review shows that the United States is a primary destination country for sex trafficking. It is easy for illegal immigrants to be trafficked into the United States from other countries (Zhang, 2007).

Table 3Location of Sex Trafficking Incidents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid East Coast	8	40.0	40.0	40.0
West Coast	1	5.0	5.0	45.0
Midwest	10	50.0	50.0	95.0
Other	1	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Half of the sex trafficking incidents took place in the Midwest. Forty percent of the incidents occurred on the East Coast and 5% were on the West Coast. The literature review suggests that Texas, Michigan, California, Arizona, and New Mexico were most frequently used for the primary location of sex trafficking in the United States (Mizus et al., 2003). The East Coast is the United States' epicenter for child sex tourism and mail bride services (Shelley, 2010).

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Female	2	10.0	10.0	10.0
Male	13	65.0	65.0	75.0
Both	5	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

This table shows that 65% of the cases had male perpetrators, 10% had female perpetrators, and 25% had both female and male perpetrators. This finding is supported by the literature review, which suggests that a majority of sex trafficking perpetrators are male, but it is not unusual for women to be involved as well. Women are most likely involved with the recruiting process and have been sex trafficked themselves.

Table 5 Fraguency Distribution of Violance Inflicted by Part

Frequency Distribution	ı of Violence I	Inflicted by	Perpetrators
------------------------	-----------------	--------------	--------------

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	16	80.0	80.0	80.0
no	1	5.0	5.0	85.0
unknown	3	15.0	15.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Eighty percent of perpetrators used violence to control their victims. In 15% of cases, it was unknown if violence was used. The literature review suggests that a majority of sex trafficking victims experience severe physical, emotional, and sexual abuse from perpetrators. This often includes gang rapes and deprivation of water, food, and adequate shelter (Farr, 2005).

Table 6Type of Violence Inflicted by Perpetrators

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Physical	3	15.0	15.0	15.0
Sexual	5	25.0	25.0	40.0
Both	8	40.0	40.0	80.0
Unknown	4	20.0	20.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Forty percent of perpetrators used both sexual and physical violence to control their victims. This finding is supported by the literature review, which shows that perpetrators use the cycle of violence to manipulate, coerce, and deceive victims, especially children (Walker, 1979). In the case of the State of Texas vs. Stephen Lynn Buggs, the perpetrator sexually assaulted the victim with a sword, took all of her money, and left her in a locked closet.

Frequency Distribution of the First Charge of Perpetrators

			Valid	Cumulative
	Frequency	Percent	Percent	Percent
Valid Sex Trafficking	7	35.0	35.0	35.0
Transportation of illegal	2	10.0	10.0	45.0
aliens for sex trafficking				
Transportation of a minor	6	30.0	30.0	75.0
for sex trafficking				
Other	5	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Table 7 shows that 35% of perpetrators' first charge, as determined by a federal court, was sex trafficking. Thirty percent of perpetrators' first charge was transportation of a minor for sex trafficking and 10% was transportation of illegal aliens. The TVPRA of 2008 widened the definition of "sex trafficking perpetrator" to include traffickers who are indirectly involved with the process (Roby et al., 2008). It is shown that sex trafficking perpetrators may face several different sex trafficking charges.

Table 8Second Charge of Perpetrators

			Valid	Cumulative
	Frequency	Percent	Percent	Percent
Valid Sex Trafficking	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
Transportation of Illegal	2	10.0	10.0	30.0
Aliens for Sex Trafficking				
Transportation of minor	6	30.0	30.0	60.0
for sex trafficking				
Child Sexual Abuse	1	5.0	5.0	65.0
Other	7	35.0	35.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

This table shows that 30% of perpetrators' second charge was the transportation of a minor for sex trafficking, 20% was sex trafficking, 10% was the transportation of illegal aliens, 5% was child sexual abuse, and 35% was other charges. Raymond and Hughes (2001) asserted that sex trafficking perpetrators are more likely to be involved with multiple criminal activities and have several criminal charges.

Table 9Frequency Distribution of Brothels Involved

requency Distribution of Diothetis Involved						
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent		
Valid yes	2	10.0	10.0	10.0		
no	18	90.0	90.0	100.0		
Total	20	100.0	100.0			

In ten percent of the cases investigated, sex traffickers used brothels to contain victims. Ninety percent of cases did not use brothels. Brothels have been designed by traffickers to make a profit, often dehumanizing the living conditions of victims. In the United States brothels are illegal in all states except Nevada. Brothels are widely used in other countries such as Cambodia and India and less in the United States (Caldwell, Galster, & Steinzor, 1997).

Frequency Distribution of Debt Bondage Used by Perpetrators						
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent		
Valid yes	4	20.0	20.0	20.0		
no	11	55.0	55.0	75.0		
unknown	5	25.0	25.0	100.0		
Total	20	100.0	100.0			

Twenty percent of traffickers in the sample population used debt bondage as a way to control their victims. Fifty-five percent of traffickers did not use debt bondage. Debt bondage is initially one of the ways traffickers manipulate their victims, forcing them to have sex for money (Ebbe & Das, 2008).

Table 11 Internet Involved in Recruiting Victims

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	5	25.0	25.0	25.0
no	14	70.0	70.0	95.0
unknown	1	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

The Internet was used to recruit 25% of sex trafficking victims. Seventy percentof sex trafficking victims were recruited through other methods. Globalization has added to the ease of sex trafficking. It is extremely hard to regulate what is posted on the Internet, therefore, traffickers can use it in the recruitment process with a small risk of being caught (Zhang, 2007).

Table 12Victims Transported Across United States Borders

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unknown 9 45.0 45.0 100.0	Valid yes	3	15.0	15.0	15.0
	No	8	40.0	40.0	55.0
Total 20 100.0 100.0	Unknown	9	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

This table shows that 15% of trafficking victims were transported into the United States by traffickers. Forty percent of victims were not transported into the United States.

As described in the literature review, push and pull factors influence women and children to trust traffickers to illegally transport them to the United States (Obi & Das, 2008). As Zhang (2007) illustrates, women and children are transported across the United States border in many different ways; for example they cross from Mexico by hitchhiking and riding on top of trains and trucks.

Table 13	
Enticed with Work Opportunities	

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	8	40.0	40.0	40.0
no	4	20.0	20.0	60.0
unknown	8	40.0	40.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	100.0	

This table shows that out of the 20 cases reviewed, 40% of the victims were enticed by traffickers through profitable work opportunities. The literature review suggests that women living in poverty are more vulnerable to being coerced into trafficking with work opportunities because they feel accountable to help

their families. Traffickers will frequently entice victims with work and education opportunities, high salaries, and the opportunity to support their families (Buchmann et al., 2008).

Table 14

Cross Tabulation of the Gender of the Perpetrator, First Charge of the Perpetrator, and Internet Involvement

					First Charge of	Perpetrators		_
					2.00	3.00		
					Transportation	Transportatio		
					of illegal aliens	n of a minor		
				1.00 Sex	for sex	for sex	4.00	
Intern	et involv	ed in rec	ruiting victims	Trafficking	trafficking	trafficking	other	Total
1.00	Gender	2.00	Count	2		2		4
yes	Р	Male	% within GenderP	50.0%		50.0%		100.0%
		3.00	Count	0		1		1
		Both	% within GenderP	.0%		100.0%		100.0%
	Total		Count	2		3		5
			% within GenderP	40.0%		60.0%		100.0%
2.00	Gender	1.00	Count	0	2	0	0	2
no	Р	Female	% within GenderP	.0%	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
		2.00	Count	2	0	3	3	8
		Male	% within GenderP	25.0%	.0%	37.5%	37.5%	100.0%
		3.00	Count	2	0	0	2	4
		Both	% within GenderP	50.0%	.0%	.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total		Count	4	2	3	5	14
			% within GenderP	28.6%	14.3%	21.4%	35.7%	100.0%
3.00	Gender	2.00	Count	1				1
unkn	Р	Male	% within GenderP	100.0%				100.0%
own	Total		Count	1				1
			% within GenderP	100.0%				100.0%
Total	Gender	1.00	Count	0	2	0	0	2
	Р	Female	% within GenderP	.0%	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
		2.00	Count	5	0	5	3	13
		Male	% within GenderP	38.5%	.0%	38.5%	23.1%	100.0%
		3.00	Count	2	0	1	2	5
		Both	% within GenderP	40.0%	.0%	20.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Total		Count	7	2	6	5	20
			% within GenderP	35.0%	10.0%	30.0%	25.0%	100.0%

When the perpetrator recruiter methods controlled for internet use, 60% of perpetrators who used the Internet in recruitment used it for the transportation of a minor for sex trafficking. Forty percent of the perpetrators used it for sex trafficking.

When contingency coefficient was calculated to measure the association between the gender of the perpetrator and use of violence, there was a moderate positive association (.382), but it was not statistically significant.

Table 15	

ANOVA of Suspected Incidents of Different Types of Trafficking							
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
Between	8800237.067	2	4400118.533	32.745	.000		
Groups							
Within Groups	3628108.800	27	134374.400				
Total	12428345.867	29					

The type of trafficking is a good predictor of the incidence rate with regard to sex trafficking, labor trafficking, and unknown trafficking. One of the limitations is that this applies to suspected incidents of trafficking, not substantiated trafficking incidents.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics of Sex Trafficking, Labor Trafficking and Unknown Trafficking

					Std.	
	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Deviation	
Suspected Incidents of	30	21.00	2065.00	515.9333	654.64773	
Different Types of						
Trafficking						
Valid N (listwise)	30					
(4110 1 ((1150 (150)	20					

The mean of sex trafficking, labor trafficking, and unknown trafficking for the period of 30 quarters from January 2008 to June 2010 was 515.9333. The minimum number of suspected incidents was 21 during one quarter and the maximum was 2,065 during one quarter.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS

This section will include information about the themes from the study's overall findings, recommendations for decreasing sex trafficking on the micro, mezzo, and macro levels, and specific implications to combat sex trafficking in the field of social work.

Overall Findings

Analysis shows that 65% of sex trafficking cases involved the trafficking of a minor. The primary country of origin of victims was the United States (35%) while 45% of the victims' country of origin was unknown. The majority of sex trafficking incidents occurred in the Midwest (50%) or the East Coast (40%). The majority (65%) of sex trafficking perpetrators were male. Eighty percent of the perpetrators inflicted violence, both sexual and physical, on victims. The first charge of perpetrators was more likely to be sex trafficking (35%) while the second charge was transportation of a minor for sex trafficking (30%). Most sex trafficking cases did not use brothels (90%). The Internet was involved in 25% of cases trying to recruit victims. Debt bondage was used by 20% of perpetrators. In 15% of cases, traffickers transported victims across country borders. Forty percent of victims were enticed into sex trafficking by work opportunities.

Table 15 shows that the means of suspected trafficking between different types of trafficking is statistically significant. Therefore, the ANOVA test done was reliable and has a high degree of external validity.

Table 16 shows the mean of suspected human trafficking incidents per quarter in the United States from 2007 to 2010 on the federal level. Table 16 shows that the mean number of suspected incidents per quarter was 515.9333 with a minimum of 21 incidents and maximum of 2,065 incidents. The literature review suggests that there are 40,000 to 50,000 children and women being trafficked into the United States (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). This means that most incidents of sex trafficking are not investigated and go unreported.

Overall, this descriptive study shows patterns of sex trafficking in the United States: A majority of victims are minors, United States citizens, and are trafficked in the Midwest. Perpetrators are more likely to be male and inflict physical and sexual violence on their victims. Perpetrators are more likely to entice victims with work opportunities in-person than recruitment through the Internet.

Recommendations

Because sex trafficking is an underground operation, it is difficult to catch traffickers and recognize victims. Even though the TVPA of 2000, TVPRA of 2008, and State laws exist, it is clear that sex trafficking is still prevalent worldwide and more preventative and reactive measures are needed at the micro, mezzo, and macro levels in different areas of social work.

In the United States, there is an inconsistency between the federal government and State policies. U.S. Senator Richard Durbin, who is chairman of the U.S. Senate's Subcommittee on Human Rights and the Law, said, "The Federal Government views prostituted children as victims, yet most states treat them as criminals. "If State laws treated child prostitution more like human trafficking, then social service agencies could play a more important role" (U.S. Senate, 2010, p. 2). Finkelhor and Omrod (2004) found that 229 of the child prostitution arrests at the State level treated children as offenders of prostitution instead of victims of human trafficking. It is essential for states to treat human trafficking survivors as such so they can receive the social services they deserve. As sex trafficking survivors, they deserve refuge and aid to gain safety and stability in their lives. Victims of sex trafficking should not be seen as prostitutes and criminals, regardless of the circumstances, which enslaved them. It is important for social workers to advocate for these changes in policy, to make the federal and State laws congruent.

Although policies make legal changes and control agencies, social work practitioners have the power to change their own biases about survivors by learning about sex trafficking, thus reducing the associated social stigma. More training is needed in the social services departments at the undergraduate and graduate levels to train professionals about the issues surrounding sex trafficking. Practitioners need to understand how to provide effective treatment for survivors of severe trauma. Social work graduate programs are increasingly providing less training to practitioners surrounding these issues. For example, California State University, Sacramento, did not offer the graduating class of 2012 specific classes working with clients who have experienced sexual trauma. Not only should classes be required for graduation, professors should incorporate strategies to work with survivors of sexual trauma into every class curriculum. Without training, practitioners may be ill equipped to work with sex trafficking survivors and can harm instead of help them. Every graduating MSW needs to be aware of the evidenced-based practices used to treat sex trafficking survivors.

Public education within elementary, junior high, and high schools also need to include education about sex trafficking into their school curriculum. This project shows that traffickers are now recruiting minors through the Internet (25%). Therefore, even neighborhoods that are considered to be "safe" are not exempt from sex trafficking. It is important to have social networking safety training to teach children how to navigate the Internet safely. For example, in the case of United States vs. Deonte Santos, the defendant recruited a 12-year-old victim online in Elk Grove, California to become a prostitute in Sacramento. By using the Internet, traffickers can recruit victims in the safety of their own homes, even when parents are present.

This secondary data analysis shows that sex trafficking does not only occur among immigrants—it also happens among our nation's own citizens who may be more difficult to identify. Victims of sex trafficking are not likely to disclose their involvement in prostitution to providers, especially law enforcement, due to their own sense of shame and fear of the response from their traffickers (Lloyd, 2000). The power of the trafficker's threats of abuse encourages survivors to protect their perpetrator at all costs (Lloyd, 2000). Because of this, the public would also benefit from more awareness education of sex trafficking. Law enforcement officials are not always the first to encounter victims of trafficking, therefore, neighbors, customers, and citizens should be equipped with the knowledge to identify victims and aid them, rather than placing the burden solely on law enforcement and other service agencies.

Public awareness can be raised for adults through television, radio announcements, and community awareness events. For example, Sacramento holds an annual human trafficking march, coordinated by local non-profit agencies, to provide information to citizens about human trafficking. On a national level, celebrities can also use their power to advocate for human trafficking awareness, like George Clooney did when he co-produced a documentary about child sexual exploitation titled "Playground" (The Nest Foundation, 2010). President Barack Obama also brought attention to the cause by declaring January 2010 National Slavery and Human

Trafficking Prevention Month.

According to Logan, Walker, and Hunt (2009), there are fewer resources and services for human trafficking victims than for victims of any other crime. Among the resources that do exist, there is most often a lack of understanding of human trafficking crimes as well as laws such as the TVPRA of 2008 among social service staff. This makes it difficult for victims to access the help they need. In order to address this problem, there needs to be more service agencies that specialize in sex trafficking, especially residential care facilities for women and children who have just escaped from traffickers. Logan et al. (2009) also stresses the need to coordinate trainings across service agencies. This would encourage agencies and organizations to clearly define their role and would thus reduce duplication in efforts and funding, as well as increase opportunities for sharing valuable information (Logan et al., 2009). Even victims who escape sex trafficking are not offered adequate social services and mental health programs because they are limited.

In order to decrease the rate of sex trafficking, future research should focus on understanding the public's awareness of this issue in the United States. Surveys should be distributed in the United States in order to fully understand gaps in individual knowledge. Although the Trafficking in Persons Report of 2010 indicated that this process has been started, specific research targeting women and children is incomplete. This information can help determine which areas need more education regarding sex trafficking, which will help individuals in the general population be able to identify and help trafficking victims. More information is also needed to understand what happens to sex trafficking survivors after they escape trafficking. Needs assessments should be done throughout the country to gain a broader understanding of what services and programs are being offered and what is still needed.

Social Work Implications

As explained in the recommendations section, social workers play a vital role in helping provide services to survivors of sex trafficking. Social workers need to provide sex trafficking survivors with mental health counseling, legal assistance, crisis intervention, and assistance with housing, food, and medical care in every community. Because survivors may have been smuggled across country borders, it is important that social workers thoroughly understand the issues of culture, white privilege, oppression, and power that may affect survivors. Without treatment and advocacy, survivors may not understand their legal rights and fear the wrath of their traffickers. This could lead survivors to return to their traffickers, only perpetuating the cycle of violence.

Treatment should also be provided to the perpetrators of sex trafficking. Social workers employed in prisons working with perpetrators have the opportunity to provide traffickers with in-depth assessment and psychotherapy. Social workers should be educated in the evidenced-based treatment provided for perpetrators especially those diagnosed with Anti-Social Personality Disorder, helping traffickers connect their lack of feelings with their behavior. Without treatment, sex traffickers are likely to return to trafficking.

Sex trafficking is a worldwide epidemic affecting every country, city, and neighborhood. This project shows that more research is needed in the prevention and reaction aspects of sex trafficking. Social workers must take an active leadership role in sex trafficking intervention by educating individuals and communities, conducting research, and advocating for policy changes to decrease the rate of sex trafficking. This can help end the dehumanization of modern slavery.

REFERENCES

Agbu, O. (2003). Corruption and human trafficking: The Nigerian case. West African Review, 4(1), 1-13.

- Albanese, J., Donnelly, J. S., & Kelegian, T. (2004). Cases of human trafficking in the United States: A content analysis of a calendar year in 18 cities. *International Journal of Comparative Criminology*, 4(1), 96-111. Retrieved from http://ccj.sagepub.com/content/24/3/296.full.pdf+html
- Aronowitz, A. (2009). Human trafficking, human misery: The global trade in human beings. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Atchison, C., Fraser, L., & Lowman, J. (1998). Men who buy sex: Preliminary findings of an exploratory study. In J. Elias, V. Bullough, V. Elias, & G. Brewer (Eds.),

Prostitution: On whores, hustlers, and johns (pp. 172-203). Amherst, NY: Prometheus.

Bal Kumar, K., Subedi, G., Gurung, Y., & Adhikari, K. (2001). *Nepal trafficking in girls with special reference to prostitution: A rapid assessment.* Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/legacy/english/regions/asro/newdelhi/ipec/download/resources /nepal/nppubl01eng9.pdf

- Bales, K., & Soodalter, R. (2009). *The slave next door: Human trafficking and slavery in America today*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Beyrer, C. (2001). Shan women and girls and the sex industry in Southeast Asia: Political causes and human rights implications. *Social Science and Medicine*, 53(4), 543-550. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0277953600003580
- Broderick, P. M. (2005). *Identifying factors in human trafficking*. Boca Raton, FL: Florida Metropolitan University Online.
- Buchmann, C., DiPrete, T. A., & McDaniel, A. (2008). Gender inequalities in education. Annual Review of Sociology, 34, 319-334. doi: 10.1146/annurev.soc.34.040507.134719
- Caldwell, G., Galster, S., & Steinzor, N. (1997). Crime & servitude: An expose of the traffic in women for prostitution from the newly independent states. Washington, DC: Global Survival Network.
- Caldwell, G., Galster, S., Kanics, J., & Steinzor, N. (1999). Capitalizing on transition economies: The role of the Russian mafia in trafficking women for forced prostitution. In P. Williams (Ed.), *Illegal immigration and commercial sex. The new slave trade* (pp. 42-73). London: Frank Cass Publishers.
- Campbell, C. (2000). Selling sex in the time of AIDS: The psycho-social context of condom use by sex workers on a Southern African mine. *Social Science Medicine*, 50(4), 479-494. Retrieved from http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/2818/1/Selling_sex_in_the_time_of_AIDS.pdf
- Chang, M. (2010). *Shortchanged: Why women have less wealth and what can be done about it.* New York: Oxford University Press.
- Clark, M. (2003). Trafficking in persons: An issue of human security. *Journal of Human Development, 4*(2), 247-263. Retrieved from

http://proxy.lib.csus.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=10 282510&site=ehost-live

- Clawson, H. J., Dutch, N. M., & Williamson, E. (2008). National symposium on the health needs of human trafficking: Background document. Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Health and Human Services.
- Cullen-DuPont, K. (2009). Global issues: Human trafficking. New York: Infobase Publishing.
- Curtol, F., Decarli, S., DiNicola, A., Belli, R., & Savona, E. U. (2004). Victims of human trafficking in Italy: A judicial perspective. *International Review of Victimology*, 11(1), 111-141. Retrieved from https://www.ncjrs.gov
- Cwikel, J., Ilan, K., & Chudakov, B. (2003). Women brothel workers and occupational risks. *Journal of Epidemiological Community Health*, 57(10), 809-815. doi:10.1136/jech.57.10.809
- Czech, H. (2011). Venereal disease, prostitution, and the control of sexuality in World War II Vienna. *East Central Europe*, 38(1), 64-78. doi: 10.1163/187633011X566111
- Decker, M. R., McCauley, H. L., Phuengsamran, D., Janyam, S., & Silverman, J. G. (2010). Violence victimization, sexual risk and sexually transmitted infection symptoms among female sex workers in Thailand. Sexually Transmitted Infections. 86(3), 236-40. doi:10.1136/sti.2009.037846
- Doezema, J. (2000). Loose women or lost women? The re-emergence of the myth of white slavery in contemporary discourses of trafficking in women. *Gender Issues*, 18(1), 38-54. Retrieved from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12296110 Ebbe, O. N., & Das, D. K. (2008). *Global trafficking in women and children*. Boca Raton, FL: International Police Executive Symposium.
- Estes, R. J., & Weiner, N. A. (2001). *The commercial sexual exploitation of children in the U.S., Canada and Mexico*. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Farr, K. (2005). Sex trafficking: The global market for woman and children. New York: Worth.
- Farrell, A., McDevitt, J., & Fayr, S. (2008). Understanding and improving law enforcement responses to human trafficking. Retrieved from https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/222752.pdf
- Finkelhor, D., & Ormrod, R. K. (2004). Prostitution of juveniles: Patterns from NIBRS. Retrieved from http://www.unh.edu/ccrc/pdf/jvq/CV67.pdf
- Grubman-Black, S. (2003). *Deconstructing john*. Paper presented at the Demand Dynamics Conference, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois October 17-18, 2003. Retrieved from http://www.law.depaul.edu/centers_institutes/ihrli/downloads/demand_dynamics.pdf
- Herz, B., & Sperling, G. (2004). What works in girls' education: Evidence and policies from the developing world. New York: Council on Foreign Relations Press.
- Hirofumi, H. (1998). Japanese comfort women in Southeast Asia. Japan Forum, 10(2), 211-219. Retrieved from http://proxy.lib.csus.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct= true&db=aph&AN=6683502&site=ehost-live
- Hughes, D. M. (2000). The Natasha trade: The transnational shadow market of trafficking in women. Journal ofInternationalAffairs,53(2),1-18.Retrievedfrom

http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=fe0e389d-890f-4ecd-b9f2-4c647368c031%40sessionmgr12&vid=2&hid=19

- Keire, M. L. (2001). The vice trust: A reinterpretation of the White slavery scare in the United States, 1907-1917, *Journal of Social History*, *35*(1), 5-41. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=fd543167-be76-4ead-a0e7-3b096978f059%40sessionmgr11&vid=2&hid=19
- Lindee, K. M. (2007). Love, honor, or control: Domestic violence, trafficking, and the question of how to regulate the mail-order bride industry. *Columbia Journal of Gender and Law*, *16*(2), 551-601.
- Lloyd, K. (2000). Wives for sale: The modern international mail-order bride industry.
- Northwestern Journal of International Law and Business, 20(2), 341-367. Logan, T. K., Walker, R., & Hunt, G. (2009). Understanding trafficking in the United
- States. *Trauma Violence Abuse*, 10(1), 3-30. doi: 10.1177/1524838008327262 McKeganey, N., & Bernard, M. (1996). *Sex work on the streets:* Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Mizus, M., Moody, M., Privado, C., & Douglas, C. A. (2003). Germany, U.S. receive most sex trafficked women. *Off Our Backs*, 33(7/8), 4.
- Moussa, G. (2008). Gender aspects of human security. *International Social Science Journal*, 59, 81-100. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2451.2008.00633.x
- Newman, G. R. (2006). *The exploitation of trafficked women*. Washington, DC: Center for Problem-Oriented Policing. Retrieved from http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/mime/open.pdf?Item=1699
- Obi, N. I., & Das, D. K. (2008). Global trafficking in women and children. New York: CRC Press.
- Paternoster, R., & Pogarsky, G. (2009). Rational choice, agency and thoughtfully reflective decision making: The short and long-term consequences of making good choices. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 25, 103–127. doi: 10.1007/s10940-009-9065-y
- Potterat, J. J. (2004). Mortality in a long-term open cohort of prostitute women. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 57(10), 778-85. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwh110
- Prieur, A., & Taksdal, A. (1989). Appreciating women: Men who buy sex. Oslo, Norway: Pax Forlag.
- Pyne, H. (1995). AIDS and gender violence: The enslavement of Burmese women in the Thai sex industry. In J. Peters & A. Wolar (Eds.), Women's rights human rights: International feminist perspectives (pp 215-223). New York: Routledge.
- Raymond, J. G., & Hughes, M. D. (2001). Sex trafficking of women in the United States: International and national trends. Washington, DC: Coalition of Trafficking Against Women.
- Roby, J. L., Turley, J., & Cloward, J. G. (2008). U.S. response to human trafficking: Is it enough? *Journal of Immigrant and Refugee Studies*, 6(4), 508-525. doi: 10.1080/15362940802480241
- Rubin, R., & Babbie, E. R. (2010). *Essential research methods for social work* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks-Cole.
- Schauer, E. J., & Wheaton, E. M. (2006). Sex trafficking into the United States: A literature review. Criminal Justice Review, 31(2), 146-169. doi: 10.1177/0734016806290136
- Schriver, J. (2010). Human behavior and the social environment: Shifting paradigms in essential knowledge for social work practice (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Shelley, B. (2005). Democratic development in East Asia: Politics in Asia series. London, UK: Routledge Publishers.
- Shelley, L. (2010). Human trafficking: A global perspective. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Silverman, J. G., Decker, M. R., Gupta, J., Maheshwari, A., Willis, B. M., & Raj, A. (2007). HIV prevalence and predictors of infection in sex-trafficked Nepalese girls and women. *Journal of American Medical Association*, 298(5), 536-542. doi: 10.1001/jama.298.5.536
- Simkhada, P. (2008). Life histories and survival strategies amongst sexually trafficked girls in Nepal. *Children and Society*, 22(3), 235-248. doi: 10.1111/j.1099-0860.2008.00154.x
- Specter, M. (1998, January 11). Traffickers' new cargo: Native Slavic women. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.brama.com/issues/nytart.html
- Sturdevant, S., & Stoltzfus, B. (1992). Let the good times roll: Prostitutionand the U.S. military in Asia. New York: The New Press.
- The Nest Foundation. (2010). *Documentary film "Playground."* Retrieved from http://www.playgroundproject.com/film/
- Tsutsmi, A., Takashi, I., Amod, P., Seika, K., & Eiji, M. (2008). Mental health of female survivors of human trafficking in Nepal Source. *Social Science and Medicine*, 66(8), 1841 -1847. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.12.025
- U.S. Department of State. (2010). *Trafficking in persons report 2010*. Retrieved from http://www.state.gov/g/tip/rls/tiprpt/2010/
- U.S. Senate. (2010). In our own backyard: Child prostitution and sex trafficking in the United States. U.S.

Senate, 111th Cong., (S. Hrg. 111–587).

- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2006). *Trafficking in persons: Global patterns*. Retrieved from http://www.unodc.org/pdf/traffickinginpersons_report_2006ver2.pdf
- Venkatraman, B. (2003). Human trafficking: A guide to detecting, investigating, and punishing modern-day slavery. *The Police Chief*, 70(12), 1-8.

Walker, L. E. (1979). The battered woman. New York: Harper & Row.

Wortley, R., & Smallbone, S. (2006). *Child pornography on the Internet: Problem – oriented guides for police*. Retrieved from http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/files/ric/Publications/e04062000.pdf

- Zakhari, B. (2005). Legal cases prosecuted under the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000. In S. Stoecker & L. Shelley (Eds.), *Human traffic and transnational crime: Eurasian and American perspectives* (pp. 125-149). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Zhang, S. (2007). *Smuggling and trafficking in human beings: All roads lead to America*. West Port, CT: Praeger Text Publishers.

Zimmerman, C., Hossain, M., Yun, K., Roche, B., Morison, L., & Watts, C. (2006).

Stolen smiles: A summary report on the physical and psychological health consequences of women and adolescents trafficked in Europe. London, UK: London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine.

The IISTE is a pioneer in the Open-Access hosting service and academic event management. The aim of the firm is Accelerating Global Knowledge Sharing.

More information about the firm can be found on the homepage: <u>http://www.iiste.org</u>

CALL FOR JOURNAL PAPERS

There are more than 30 peer-reviewed academic journals hosted under the hosting platform.

Prospective authors of journals can find the submission instruction on the following page: <u>http://www.iiste.org/journals/</u> All the journals articles are available online to the readers all over the world without financial, legal, or technical barriers other than those inseparable from gaining access to the internet itself. Paper version of the journals is also available upon request of readers and authors.

MORE RESOURCES

Book publication information: <u>http://www.iiste.org/book/</u>

IISTE Knowledge Sharing Partners

EBSCO, Index Copernicus, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, JournalTOCS, PKP Open Archives Harvester, Bielefeld Academic Search Engine, Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek EZB, Open J-Gate, OCLC WorldCat, Universe Digtial Library, NewJour, Google Scholar

