POLICE OFFICERS' UNDERSTANDING OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN KENT: INVESTIGATING TRAINING AND KNOWLEDGE

by

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Abstract

Research into the impact of training is non-existent for human trafficking, this is in despite of requests for evaluation appearing frequently in academic literature. This study examines the impact of human trafficking training on police officers' understanding in Kent Police, a county in England, United Kingdom. The first two stages of the study evaluate the immediate knowledge gained from the training, whilst the final stage is completed after a six month period when the officers' knowledge is measured again to explore the long-term impact of the training course. This study highlights the struggle faced by police officers in defining human trafficking and understanding victim consent, but showcases the impact of training on improving understanding in key areas such as initial officer actions and removing harmful stereotypes, often seen within human trafficking. The third stage emphasises the need for police training to learn from educational research to improve memory retention. Recommendations are provided to assist Kent Police and wider human trafficking research to develop this further.

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1. Police officers' understanding of human trafficking in Kent: Investigating training and knowledge

Human trafficking, a crime that has been occurring for centuries (Surma, 2016), still exists around the world (Shelley, 2010), adapting to new technologies and changing political statuses (Truong, 2011) which has only encouraged criminal networks to invest in an increasingly profitable market which has developed with very little effective law enforcement prevention (Truong, 2011).

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2000) and the various protocols produced within affirmed the need for law enforcement globally to take action to prevent human trafficking. In particular, the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, shortened to the Palermo Protocol, introduced a definition of human trafficking that has now became internationally recognised (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2000).

Whilst the definition will be discussed in greater detail later, it consist of five core elements; recruitment, transportation, use of force, exploitation of victims and benefit for offenders (Wheaton, Schauer and Galli, 2010). The first four elements occur to victims, whilst the last is only offered to the offenders, who benefit, often financially, from the system. As well as agreeing on a definition, the convention also discussed the growing need for better data collection on victims. The exact number of victims is not known and current data figures are sourced from agencies which all have different methods of recording (Lacsko and Gramegna, 2003), resulting in vast variances in figures. A report from the United State of America's Department of State (2019) estimates that globally 24.9 million people in 2019 become a victim of human trafficking. On the other hand, the 2018 United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime report estimated that there are approximately 25,000 victims currently around the world, with 5,144 identified modern slavery offences in 2019 in the United Kingdom (UK) (Stripe, 2020).

Furthermore, whilst sexual exploitation has been a focus for many years (Andrees and Van Der Linden, 2005), the slowly growing interest in other forms of exploitation, such as labour or domestic servitude, has allowed a more accurate understanding of the crimes and victims within human trafficking (Russell, 2017). Arguably, the introduction of the Palermo Protocol created a catalytic effect that has resulted in increased academic interest in reviewing and studying all aspects of human trafficking. The Protocol presented concerns on human trafficking that extended past the sex industry, and called for academics to focus their attention

on all areas of trafficking in order to remove it entirely (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2000).

Equally, one element that was not included in the Protocol but has since become a consideration in the study of human trafficking is the training of law enforcement, or rather the lack of training provided (Jannetta, McCoy and Leitson, 2018). Whilst the mention of the need for training remains a key discussion point (Clawson, Dutch and Cummings, 2006), investigations into the effect of training has only been done by a few (Renzetti *et al*, 2015; Wilson, Walsh and Kleuber, 2006). Most published reports on human trafficking training exist only to mention that it occurs, such as the United Kingdom's Home Office (2011) report which mentions the importance of training, but lacks any analysis of why and how the training should be provided.

However, the effectiveness of law enforcement training in general has been discussed in literature before. Marion (1998) analysed the effectiveness of a police training school by attending it as a new recruit, but specific insight into human trafficking training is minimal. There is no indication that academics or governmental agencies are going to start focusing more heavily on measuring the effectiveness of training. Many of the studies that focused on training are outdated due to the rapid changes in human trafficking understanding, with seemingly little interest from more academics to continue researching this topic.

This study focuses on the training received by police officers in their initial training period for Kent Police, a South-Eastern police force in England, UK. The county of Kent remains a key location in the UK's fight against human trafficking, with its easy access to Europe through the channel tunnel, as well as being directly connected to the city of London which has seen a growth of reports in all forms of exploitation (Ward, 2011). This study begins by exploring the current themes present in human trafficking literature in order to understand current knowledge and areas of improvement. During the review, three core areas stood out which will be explored further, these are: the ambiguity of defining trafficking, indicators of victims and the importance of training for law enforcement officers.

After the literature review the methodology of the study is presented. A mixed-method approach utilising questionnaires across three stages to collect data from a sample of new recruits within Kent Police. The strengths, as well as limitations and their mitigations, are explored in the methodology chapter, which also includes an overview of the research aims and procedures, which are supplied for transparency throughout.

The findings are then presented in three sections. The first section shows the data from stage one, when participants have yet to complete the training course. The second stage captures any immediate differences between before and after the training session, whilst the third section reviews the data from a subgroup of participants, after a period of six months has passed since the training session.

Important areas of improvement that are flagged in the data are explored further in the discussion chapter, where recommendations for improvements are given, which signpost changes for Kent Police as well as wider human trafficking research.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Training for law enforcement in human trafficking has not been a large topic of interest in academia. The implications of having none or low quality training have rarely been discussed, whilst equally the benefits of receiving training are also under researched. Gallagher and Holmes (2008) make it clear that opportunities to locate victims are often missed because officers lack the skills and knowledge to identify cases of human trafficking. This only continues to question the true number of trafficking victims, when it is believed that so many are missed (Renzetti *et al*, 2015). This literature review explores what is already known on human trafficking so as to provide comparisons for what officers could be expected to learn and understand in the training. Equally, this review also reflects on the most common stereotypes and mistakes made by officers in detecting human trafficking so that these can be identified and challenged within the findings. Importantly, the review explores the current standing of police training within the UK and the significant shift in professionalization seen within recent years, and the impact of this for human trafficking.

The subject of human trafficking is vast; however, there are core themes that are prevalent. The first is the definition of human trafficking, with The Palmero Protocol introducing one clear definition of human trafficking, which would combine the efforts of countries around the world to prevent and detect trafficking together (Heinrich, 2010). However, this review argues that the Protocol definition falls short in areas such as, the blurring between human trafficking and human smuggling and the singular focus on sexual exploitation, which only continues to have detrimental impacts on the growth of knowledge on human trafficking.

The second theme discusses the challenges presented to law enforcement in identifying human trafficking victims which has resulted in many cases of victims being ignored or misclassified (Farrell, McDevitt and Fahy, 2008). The concept of the stereotypical victim (Srikantiah, 2007) will be explored to understand any views held by law enforcement and the impact this has on victims who do not fit into their beliefs. Considering also any physical or psychological barriers that may prevent victims from reporting to the police (Farrell and Pfeffer, 2014).

Finally, this review will also look into the more recent changes within police training in the UK in general. The move towards professionalising the police has introduced university qualifications and evidence-based policing, which provides a focused approach to tackling all

crime. However, this review will consider the implications of the lack of evidence-based research for the development of human trafficking understanding.

2.2. Definition

The first area of discussion concerns definitional issues relating to human trafficking. The Palermo Protocol, published in 2000, is cited as the beginning of research into human trafficking (Dunne, 2012). The definition created within the Protocol is used by many governments and researchers as the building block for moulding their own definitions and laws, to which Dunne (2012) describes the Protocol as acting as an umbrella definition. The definition from the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2000, p.1) is:

"Trafficking in persons shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, or of the giving or receiving of payments of benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another, for the purpose of exploitation."

By breaking down the definition the separate elements that constitute human trafficking become evident.

"Trafficking in persons shall mean the recruitment…"

Recruitment of an individual to be trafficked – the victim – is the first stage. Traditional views believe that those involved in trafficking have been kidnapped and forced against their will (Jones, 2012). Pre- 2000, this area was severely under researched, however it is likely that due to the inclusion of recruitment in the definition of human trafficking, more interest has taken place into how individuals become involved in trafficking. For example, Binetti (2015) discusses how ISIS have taken to social media to influence and recruit women; Jones *et al.* (2011) explores how women already involved in the sex industry in Thailand where encouraged

by their customers to move to Japan and be trafficked; and Volodko, Cockbain and Kleinberg (2020) discuss the characteristics of advertisements that appeal to migrant job-seekers but are actually disguises for trafficking. Once recruited the victim is then moved;

"*…recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring and receipt…"*

Transport has arguably become the core focus of trafficking as without transportation there is no trafficking case; Alvarez and Alessi (2012) describe human trafficking as the encompassment of the transportation of individuals. The focus of transportation tends to be across land borders, however it should be noted that it does not need to be and can be across towns or counties (Stone, 2018).

"*…by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power…"*

Often after the transportation ends, fraud and coercion become apparent in the process. Snajdr (2013) discusses a female victim from Moldova, who was recruited to be a nanny in Germany, but upon arrival was forced into sexual exploitation. Equally, significant studies in the medical field discuss how medical professionals can identify victims of trafficking in hospitals by the physical signs of abuse they face (Becker and Bechtel, 2015).

"…payments of benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another…"

This part of the definition focuses on the reason why offenders get involved in human trafficking. Brunch (2004) estimates that profits of up to $7 billion annually are generated through the human trafficking market, though any figures should be taken with caution as the true amount is hard to gauge considering the hidden nature of the crime (Renzetti *et al*, 2015). Money is often classified as the key motivation behind trafficking (Levi *et al*, 2013), though it is of course possible that some offenders may receive other benefits such as becoming involved

in the sexual abuse or recruiting individuals to work within their house. Which leads to the final part of the definition;

"*…for the purpose of exploitation."*

Within the UK's *Modern Slavery Act 2015* exploitation is defined as forcing another to complete work they otherwise would not wish to do. Examples within human trafficking include sexual exploitation, labour exploitation, forced marriage and organ removal to name a few. The exploitation element of human trafficking has driven trafficking literature into a victim focused mind-set. Studies such as Abas *et al.'s* (2013) look into mental illnesses caused by the exploitation suffered by female victims of trafficking and Brotherton's (2019) later analysis into the rehabilitation of UK based victims of trafficking highlight this. Lopiccolo (2008), who was discussing law enforcement's role in identifying victims over 10 years ago, discusses how exploitation is often ignored by law enforcement officers, resulting in ignored or misclassified victims, a significant area of focus for training and something which this dissertation will focus more on later.

The Protocol, and the various elements of its definition, became the first globally recognised, legally binding document that represented the seriousness of human trafficking as a world-wide issue (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2000). But with the definition now being over 20 years old, Gallagher and Holmes, writing in 2018, note that cooperation across national borders on the issue of human trafficking remains minimal and ineffective. Whilst all countries battle against human trafficking, they all do so in their own individual ways, often causing clashing strategies and aims, resulting in not one country being able to claim they have prevented human trafficking (Gallagher and Holmes, 2018).

Lee (2010) argues that the ever growing increase in crimes related to people movement such as trafficking and smuggling have caused growing concerns for societies around the world but more prominent views calling for tougher migration policies have prevented specific human trafficking strategies from improving. In agreement, Pecoud and Nieuwenhuys (2007) explain that tougher migration policies are set up to target human traffickers but often result in confusion for law enforcement on the difference between human trafficking and human smuggling, with the migration policies leaning more heavily on the latter.

To assist, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2000, p.54) defines smuggling as:

"The procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident"

The focus in this definition is on financial or material gain for those being smuggled as well as those assisting in the smuggling, whereas the definition on human trafficking highlights the coercion and violence faced by the victims. The element of exploitation is completely non-existent when discussing human smuggling.

Carling (2006) provides an example of the shift between smuggling and trafficking. Their research focused on Nigerian women who are trafficked into Italy for sexual exploitation. They describe how victims are recruited by a close friend or even family member to work abroad, often within domestic cleaning roles, and that the victim agrees to do so, handing over money in order to pay for transportation. At this stage, human smuggling has taken place. Carling (2006) explains further that if the victim does not cooperate with the trafficker upon arrival in Italy, they are exposed to force– this is when smuggling has turned into human trafficking.

A report published by the Global Alliance against Trafficking in Women (2011) explores the difference between smuggling and trafficking, and argues that it only becomes apparent after the victim has been exploited, when law enforcement and victims have already passed each other. Often those who are destined for exploitation are identified as illegal immigrants by law enforcement as borders, because there is a lack of force or exploitation at that stage. The complicated nature of consent within human trafficking is discussed by Srikantiah (2007) who states that victims may consent to elements of travel and work but are then forced into situations they have not agreed to, but this is not visible to the officers at the first encounter.

Victim vulnerability and the victim's perceived ability to consent or not to consent often plays a role in a police officer's assessment of victims of human trafficking (Van Dijk, 2008). The Nigerian females' ability to consent to be transported cancels out their vulnerability and hence they are classified as illegal immigrants (Carling, 2006). The misclassification of human trafficking victims as illegal immigrants points to a preconceived notion of vulnerability and consent. The idea that victims may agree to be smuggled does not fit the portrait of a distressed

human trafficking victim (Austin and Farrell, 2017). Moreover, Campbell (2008) also argues that females who are enticed to carry drugs across boarders are often treated as smugglers, despite facing extreme violence and being victims of trafficking, but the fact that they have consented to move the drugs has removed the element of coercion law enforcement are expecting to find within human trafficking. In Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley's 2001 study, officers were shocked to learn that females who had been identified as human trafficking victims, had also agreed to be transported knowing they were going to work in the sex industry. The exploitation suffered by the females whilst working in the industry did not appear relevant for the officers to suspect human trafficking, and hence the victims were ignored (Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley, 2001).

Furthermore, Hyland (2001) argues that the Protocol's definition is too vague on what constitutes a trafficking case, which has allowed agencies to add their own agendas into identifying human trafficking cases. Brunch (2004) highlights how many different laws around the world resonate from an anti-prostitution viewpoint and focus purely on the trafficking of women for sexual exploitation only. For example, The United States of America's State Department 2019 report found that Mexico was not achieving the minimum levels of prevention of human trafficking as their laws focus on arresting prostitutes and removing brothels only, leading to little consideration for victim identification and other forms of exploitation. The importance of an internationally recognised definition is expressed by many, however Bales (2007) continues to explore how mutual understanding is only the first step and that all countries must be willing to tackle human trafficking in the same manner in order to completely irradiate it.

For the UK the *Modern Slavery Act 2015,* defines human trafficking as:

"A person commits an offence (of human trafficking) *if the person arranges or facilitates the travel of another person with a view to that person being exploited. It is irrelevant whether that person has consented to the travel".*

The UK's legal definition of trafficking does not include elements of fraud, coercion or benefit as in the Palermo Protocol, but a consensus that travel and exploitation are vital is seen. The addition of the irrelevance of consent should remove any question UK police services may

have around victim consent. Perhaps with the Protocol not including consent in their definition has allowed the confusion between smuggling and trafficking to continue.

One reason why there may be difficulty in defining human trafficking is due to the hidden nature of the crime, as suggested by Winterdyk, Perrin and Reichel (2011). Almost all literature written on human trafficking discusses the concept of a hidden nature so it is difficult to state where this began; it is, however, strongly supported by research as the key barrier in identifying victims. The global number of victims involved in human trafficking has never been settled, however, a strong attempt was made by the Netherlands, with the Dutch National Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings (Aronowitz and Hageman, 2019) which created the first reliable source of data on trafficking in the Netherlands. Using multiple systems, such as visa applications numbers, employment records in the sex industry and police crime reports, they were able to produce findings that showed the number of suspected trafficking victims in the Netherlands as being almost five times the average number located in one year.

On behalf of the UK's Office for National Statistics, Stripe (2020) conducted a similar multi-system approach that estimated there were between 10,000 – 13,000 victims of trafficking in the UK in 2013, compared to the 1,186 victims that were identified and referred to the National Referral Mechanical in 2012 (Secretary of State, 2013). Stripe (2020) comments in their report that the Global Slavery Index (2018) estimated that the UK had approximately 136,000 human trafficking victims in 2018. Whilst these figures were calculated 5 years apart, the significant growth of trafficking victims in the UK raises concerns as to whether either figure is accurate and why such a rapid difference has occurred. Even Stripes' (2020) report argues that there is not one source of data that can be reliable when reporting on human trafficking numbers, even declaring this against their own findings.

However, Stripe (2020) does consider the possible cause for this increase. Greater public awareness, as well as better police identification and reporting all may have contributed to the increased volume of victim identification (Stripe, 2020). Equally, The National Crime Agency's (NCA) National Referral Mechanism introduced in 2008 aimed to streamline reporting and improve access to victim support networks, which may have improved the victim experience (Home Office, 2020).

Stripe (2020) considers some of these facts in support for the UK but considers other reasons for the lack of consistency across the world. One example includes poor data management which means that, even if they wanted to, many governments do not have the capacity to collect

and analyse data on human trafficking. A core reason for this is down to lack of funding (Putt, 2007). Therefore, because of this, there is a lack of standardisation on how data are collected. The previously mentioned Netherlands and UK attempts use a multi-system approach to gather intelligence on trafficking, whilst others may not have the ability to do so, which would therefore produces estimates that under report figures, whether the agency is aware or not. Finally, Stripe (2020) argues that even when agencies are able to produce data they are often reluctant to share their findings with others, limiting the ability to learn and understand the effect of preventive strategies. All these points and the lack of clarity on defining human trafficking contribute to the wide range of reporting figures seen in literature.

Overall, the Protocol introduced a globally recognised definition of human trafficking which has started a renewed interest in the topic. Still, interest in human trafficking has been developing differently depending on agencies motivations and therefore the union sought by the Protocol to prevent and detect human trafficking across the world has arguably not been achieved. The confusion between smuggling and trafficking continues for many law enforcements agencies, even within the UK, with consent playing a significant role in the misclassification of victims. The lack of a clear definition of human trafficking is arguably a leading cause of underreported figures.

2.3. Indicators

Whilst there is a universal definition to rely on, albeit not used as effectively as possible, another key area in human trafficking literature surrounds indicators. With figures of human trafficking seemingly increasing each year, the ability of law enforcement to identify human trafficking becomes paramount if any attempt at preventing it is to be made (Lacsko and Gramegna, 2003). Kelly and Kelly (2002) argue that the misclassification of victims stems from a lack of understanding of human trafficking indicators and that whilst law enforcement may come into contact with victims of trafficking in their day to day duty (De Baca and Tisi, 2002), they are unlikely to be looking for signs of trafficking (Wilson, Walsh and Kleuber, 2006). Gallagher and Holmes (2008) state that the need for local law enforcement to be responsive in their fight against human trafficking should not be undervalued, as they are the first responders to cases and take critical first steps in an investigation.

There is no set list of what indicators a victim of human trafficking may display, and equally victims may display a variety of indicators; however, it is argued that human trafficking victims tend to share similar signs that may be used to help identify more (Jordan, 2002). Lacsko and Gramegna's (2003) literature review analysed the most common forms of indicators displayed by trafficking victims based on victim statistics collected from various European countries. Their findings focused primarily on qualitative based approaches, with in-depth interviews between victims and law enforcement as the main source. They then supported their work with government published statistics of identified cases. This mixed-method approach provides a strong argument to support their conclusion as statements are supported from various sources. But, it should be noted that their lack of referencing and consideration for biases throughout their work raises concerns for the validity of their findings; however, this should not completely discredit their work. Their findings created a list of the most common forms of indicators which included, but were not limited to: lack of official documents especially passports, no understanding of where they are or where they are going, living in poverty, no set accommodation and limited or no understanding of the native language of the country they are in. These examples are only a small group listed within the study; however, they are vital in helping law enforcement officers begin to understand the common signs of human trafficking victims.

On the other hand, Srikantiah (2007) argue that trying to list indicators of trafficking only encourages stereotypes of victims. They argue that the stereotypical description of a human trafficking victim is a female, who is being trafficked for sexual exploitation and has been located by law enforcement, which encourages a rescue over escape narrative, which supports a proactive law enforcement imagery (Srikantiah, 2007). Srikantiah's report discussed findings gathered from the United States of America (USA); however, similar studies within the UK also reveal preconceived ideas about trafficking victims. For example, Dando, Walsh and Bierley (2016) provided questionnaires to 850 members of the public who lived in the West Midlands, UK. Their sample consisted of random sampling from the street of the local towns, which resulted in an age range between 18 and 64 with an almost 50% divide between males and females, allowing a broad population to study. Their aims focused on understanding if individuals were aware of the psychological harm suffered by victims of human trafficking. They found that a majority of the sample would only classify individuals as victims of trafficking should physical signs of abuse be present, such as bruising or marks. Importantly, the sample would only consider those who were kidnapped a victim of human trafficking. It is

imperative, however, to note that this study was completed in 2016, with more recent reports, such as Stripe in 2020 arguing that there is an ever widening understanding of different indicators, which counteracts older studies of narrower mind-sets. This dissertation looks to explore which narrative still exists within police officers' mind-sets and assess whether training has had any role in influencing a positive change.

In addition, the previously mentioned hidden nature of human trafficking is also present within discussions of indicators. Whilst many reports claim that human trafficking is a hidden crime and is therefore hard to identify and estimate, many pieces of research also mention that trafficking victims can be found working in hotels, nail salons and car washes, which are arguably not hidden from sight at all. A precise definition of what is meant by hidden nature is not provided by those who discuss it, however, in relation to human trafficking, the concept implies that the victim may be physically seen, but their victimisation is harder to identify. The hidden nature of trafficking is a concept continuously raised in literature, however, arguably its purpose seems to only be to justify the lack of understanding from law enforcement on human trafficking indicators. This study explores whether a preconceived victim of human trafficking exists in the minds of police officers, and whether they would have the confidence to be able to identify these victims within the hidden nature of human trafficking.

One core area of trafficking that has routinely been hidden from sight is the plight of male victims. Mitchell, Finkelhor and Wolak (2010) highlight statistics from the USA which show that male victims of human trafficking were more likely to be arrested for prostitution or migration related offences than females, and even when males have similar indicators to female victims, they are still more likely to be arrested (Allais, 2013). Goziak and Bump (2008) argue that the main reason for the lack of understanding around male victims is due to the predominant focus on female victims only. This has resulted in assumptions from law enforcement about gender roles within human trafficking, and an assumed notion that males are always criminally involved in trafficking, but never victims (Goziak and Bump, 2008). However, more recent research is starting to explore male victimisation, though arguably this still remains minimal. One such research is Davis (2019) who evaluates the current identification process of trafficking victims in the UK, and the lack of understanding of male victims in comparison to females. Whilst Davis' (2019) work explores areas previously under researched, UK based studies requires much more insight to fully understand male victimisation.

Not only does there need to be an increase in male-focused research, the continued focus away from a sexual exploitation only needs to continue further as well, especially within UK research. A 2018 report from the NCA highlighted that out of 5145 referrals of suspected victims of human trafficking, 35% were linked to sexual exploitation, 46% linked to labour exploitation and 9% to domestic servitude (National Crime Agency, 2018). The fact that labour exploitation remains the most common form of exploitation within the UK stresses the importance of officers being aware of all types of human trafficking, and the importance of not having any preconceived beliefs. Separately, discussions into other forms of exploitation, such as domestic servitude remains almost non-existent within the UK, which only continues the need for further research.

Understanding victim indicators remains law enforcement's more proactive way of detecting human trafficking. However, research highlights preconceived beliefs of officers which prevent them from accurately identifying many types of victims. A UK based study highlighted stereotypical belief around consent and violence, whilst a lack of research into male victims highlights the need for further understanding on why officers fail to identify the same indicators in male and female victims. Taking previous studies into account, this dissertation looks further into the impact of training on preconceived beliefs regarding indicators, including looking at a focus on gender inequality and the focus on sexual exploitation only.

2.4. Training

As the two themes of defining and identifying human trafficking emerged from the research, the most crucial element of all seems to be on the training law enforcement receive on human trafficking (Clawson, Dutch and Cummings, 2006). In order to understand human trafficking training better, this dissertation will also discuss the more recent changes to the UK police training programme in general.

But first it is important to understand what is meant by good training. From a policing perspective Clawson, Dutch and Cummings (2006) advise that training should enable officers to understand their role in dealing with crime, even specialist cases such as trafficking. Therefore, any officer who receives training on human trafficking should be able to take action to detect victims. From educational studies, student achievement is a comprehensible assessment used to measure the quality of a training course (Stronge, Ward and Grant, 2011).

If a student has learnt and understood the training then it has been successful. Arguably, this basic concept could be applied to evaluate Kent Police's human trafficking training. When officers showcase good understanding and are able to implement the training in their duty, even within complex crimes such as trafficking, the training has achieved its aim.

In order to make sure that officers are able to implement their learning into their duties, Neyroud's (2011) review on leadership and training within UK police forces', began the notion of professionalising the police with a lean towards using 'what works best' to inform officers' practice. Practice, including police training, would be led by evidence based research, a concept originally founded in the USA, by Lawrence Sherman (1998). However, a report written by Fyfe in 2013 when changes were still recent in the UK, argued an uncertainty towards how professionalization in the police could work and argued that its impact was likely to be minimal. The lack of understanding on what professionalization actually meant was deemed the underlying cause for the suspected failure (Fyfe, 2013).

Equally, a recent study into research led practices within England and Wales by Hunter, May and Hough (2019) raised mixed reviews on evidence led practice within police services. Positive comments from the police constables showed they were able to discuss research they had implemented in their area and how all ranks were able to contribute to researching best practice. However, it was noted by the officers that there was still a higher value given to knowledge gained by experience than research, which deepened the divide between operational officers and academies pursuing research in policing. Equally, also observed was the lack of oversight into what methodology officers chose, resulting in arguments about 'what works best' for conducting police research. Studies conducted via one method was ignored by others who favoured another, starting arguments between individual officers as well.

However, one core element of extreme importance involved in professionalization, is the College of Policing's Policing Education Qualifications Framework (PEQF). The PEQF is being implemented across all forces in England and Wales with the aim of creating consistent initial recruit training, which encourages best practice in policing (College of Policing, 2016). Whilst force-specific policies and practices are allowed, approved content and assessment is produced by the College to ensure all officers receive high quality training as deemed by the College's own research. In particular, human trafficking is now a fixed part of the policing curriculum taught to all new officers and focuses on improving the detection rates of victims. Alongside the development within the PEQF, human trafficking is also a priority as part of the

England and Wales Policing Vision of 2025 (The National Police Chiefs Council, 2015), a document which showcases key areas of focus to be improved by 2025. The addition of human trafficking within policing curriculum is a positive step towards improving understanding for officers, and asserts the significance of human trafficking in modern British policing.

But, whilst a determination to improve training for human trafficking is covered within the PEQF, there still remains a severe lack of research led practice about human trafficking. This questions the PEQF's ability to implement an evidence-based training course. There are a few pieces of literature that have attempted to understand best practice on human trafficking that can provide initial understanding. Whilst not specific to police officer training, one study completed by Heffernan and Blythe (2014) has come close to introducing evidence led practice to human trafficking. They examined the impact of a New York, USA, based human trafficking victim support programme, with an unique examination on whether the programme is 'what works best' for trafficking victims. They found that victims that engaged with the programme were more likely to feel comfortable talking about their trafficking experience and receive the support they required, than those who did not. Whilst this research does focus on whether the programme provided the best practices for victims, it was not compared to anything else. Therefore, it was always likely that, even if the victims only received minimal support, it would be deemed successful, when the comparison was against victims who received no support at all. An analysis into two programmes with the same aim but different approaches may have shown a better understanding of 'what works best' when assisting human trafficking victims.

There are a few pieces of research that have focused on the impact of training on human trafficking, however, none have used their findings to suggest how to improve the training, as required in evidence-based studies. All the studies report that receiving training is 'what works best' for officers needing to learn about human trafficking, but as all the training sessions are different, it remains unclear what exactly is working best. However, these studies are still important to mention as they provide insight into the impact training can have.

One such study is Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley's (2001) research which conducted 17 interviews with police officers in Canada to learn about their understanding of human trafficking. Their findings showed that officers believe trafficking rarely occurs, and that detection of cases is conducted under planned operations rather than spontaneous discovery. Officers also noted that it is impossible to create a clear picture of what a human trafficking victim looks like and that the same issue also exists for offenders, who were mentioned as

looking "like ordinary citizens" (Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley, 2001, p. 17). Officers did however summarise that victims tend to be poor, female, have little knowledge of Canada and were likely to be already engaged in the sex industry – similar stereotypical findings held by Srikantiah's research (2007). Their conclusion strongly supported the need for law enforcement to undergo human trafficking training in order to be able to identify and respond to trafficking situations. Interestingly, out of the 167 countries investigated by the Global Slavery Index in 2018, Canada ranked 166th as having the lowest number of identified human trafficking victims when compared to the country population, as collected using multi-system analysis. Countries numbered 167 and 165 were reported to have inconsistent or missing data due to their collection methods, whilst Canada was reported to have valid findings. However, it is hard to decide whether this supports Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley's (2001) study further, especially when previous discussions have already explored the inconsistency of any trafficking figures. It is possible that Canada ranks low in identification because officers, such as in the study, do not have the knowledge to be able to identify victims. But, on the other hand, it may instead highlight the age of Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley's (2001) study, which could now be out of date in comparison to Canada's more recent prevention measures. However, recent studies such as Miller, O'Doherty and Roots (2017) report this is not likely, with the efficacy of Canada's prevention measures still being criticised, therefore the need for officers to attend training is paramount.

Oxman-Martinez, Martinez and Hanley's (2001) study provided some of the first insight into the need for training on human trafficking for police officers. However, the age of their study now raises questions on their findings. Nevertheless, their study has highlighted how, without training, officers lack the ability to identify and deal with human trafficking – a potential reason for Canada's low identification figures.

Similarly, another but slightly more recent study, by Renzetti *et al* (2015) also looked to explore the impact of human trafficking training. Like many of the studies discussed, their research was conducted within North America but can be translated to the UK. The aim of their study was to analyse how a training course could raise awareness of trafficking and how officers were able to teach other colleagues about human trafficking. Their research focused on two groups of police officers; those with rank and those without. To do this, they provided the rank holding officers with questionnaires before and after they had attended a human trafficking training course, so as to measure any differences in knowledge. At the same time, they also

provided questionnaires to the non-ranked officers who did not attend a course, to measure what knowledge could be passed down to them by their managers, who had.

Their study has many positive findings that can be implemented into this dissertation. The sample size is recognised as being smaller than hoped by the authors, however it stated as being large enough to provide an overview of understanding, meaning that the results are still significant to be considered. The questions for the study are presented clearly and there is clarity why certain questions were asked and how they link to the overall aim. This means that the research could be completed by others and allows greater transparency, reducing risks of biases.

Their findings suggested that prior to the training course, officers believed that human trafficking was a serious crime, but their lack of understanding in how to identify trafficking meant it was a low priority. However, after the training session, those same officers showed an increased belief that training existed in their area and were even able to highlight current cases. This shows a growth in understanding of what constitutes as human trafficking. Whilst not mentioned by the authors, the longer term effects of this could be an increased detection rate as understanding on the definition of human trafficking increased.

However, these findings were not repeated in the data of the non-ranked officers, who did not attend the training course. When asked if they were aware that their supervisors had been on a course, 80% answered no. The authors correctly imply from this, that relying on rank holding officers to pass information down is not possible, and that all officers must attend a training session to learn about trafficking. The study concluded that for 'what works best', each officer should attend a training session and that each course should be designed around the role of the officer's rank.

Whilst learning about the immediate impact of training is a good way to understand differences, Powell, Dickins and Stoklosa (2017) argued that it is also important to consider retention rates. There are no significant pieces of research that have looked into memory retention of police officers, however education-based research has commented that the most difficult aspect for any student – such as student police officers – was transferring knowledge they had learnt in a classroom to their real-life duties (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). This may explain why many officers incorrectly identify human trafficking victims as illegal immigrants, even after receiving specialised human trafficking training.

2.5. Human Trafficking Training in Kent

As published in 2018 by Kent Police, their force management document details that human trafficking is one of the six main challenges being tackled by Kent Police officers (Kent Police, 2018). The document describes the busy road networks that lead Kent into larger cities such as London and Essex, as well as the Port of Dover which manages approximately 16 million travellers each year, mainly from Europe (Kent Police, 2018), all of which enable human trafficking to thrive within Kent borders. Kent Police (2018) focus not only on foreign victims of trafficking but also cross-county border trafficking that links Kent and London together in organised criminality. Academic mentions such as Bonning and Cleaver (2020) discuss the use of children in county drug trafficking, as currently taking place between London and Kent.

In addition, whilst media reports may exaggerate data, the attention given to Kent Police investigated human trafficking cases sees national recognition (Brown, 2019; MacDougall, 2019). As a result, the importance of Kent Police delivering good training to enable their officers to tackle the growing phenomenon happening in their jurisdiction is vital. Important to mention again, Clawson, Dutch and Cummings (2006) explain that training should enable officers to take action in any crime, even in complex cases. This becomes important for Kent Police officers who may be dealing with human trafficking on a regular basis. The fact that Kent Police is situated in a geographical hotspot for human trafficking places their training on an important pedestal, which only encourages the need to examine its effectiveness more.

Overall, police training in the UK has undergone transformation to professionalise with a national policing curriculum introduced in order to ensure best practice across England and Wales. Evidence into ‘what works best’ for human trafficking is minimal, however research into evaluating training as a whole is starting to grow in interest. The importance of the focus on Kent is emphasised by their significant location to Europe and the rest of the UK, which reassures the need to examine their training further.

2.6. Literature Review Summary

In conclusion, this literature review focused on three main areas of human trafficking. The first being the definition of trafficking, as introduced by the Palermo Protocol in 2000. The five core elements of human trafficking have been internationally recognised, but this has done little to assist countries in working in unison to prevent and detect human trafficking. This has bled into officers being unable to accurately identify victims of trafficking, with preconceived beliefs hindering acceptance of all victim types. Finally, the importance of training has been reflected with the growing consensus that officers need specialised human trafficking training in order to be able to define and identify victims. Research into training remains minimal and there is currently little evidence-based practice for the UK to draw from. Therefore understanding into good human trafficking training remains non-existent.

This dissertation aims to fill in the gap of missing literature by examining Kent Police's human trafficking training and providing recommendations, to introduce a 'what works best' approach to human trafficking training in the UK.

3. Methodology

This methodology chapter provides understanding into the design choices of the study, allowing transparency for replication. This chapter also details the appropriate ethical considerations given to the study, and justifies the methods used to produce the results.

3.1. Research Aims

The aim of this study is to examine the human trafficking training delivered to Kent Police officers during their initial training period. To do this, the study has three core aims:

1) To assess officer satisfaction of the course,

2) To measure any differences in knowledge between officers' immediate understanding before and after the training session and

3) To understand retention of the knowledge from the training session after six months has passed.

The first area of assessing satisfaction of the course comes as a benefit for Kent Police in supporting this study, as it enables them to have an evaluation of their lesson from an external source. Further research into education shows a link between enjoying a class and absorbing the information being provided (Montalvo, Mansfield and Miller, 2008), therefore, having parts of the questionnaire focused on measuring levels of satisfaction is beneficial.

The second core aim is to measure any knowledge difference before and after the training session. By having a questionnaire immediately before and after allows any data differences between the two stages to be linked directly back to the training course. The questionnaire revolves around core concepts participants learn in the training session, as well as ideas that are reflected from the literature review. The idea to immediately compare results was drawn from Renzetti *et al's* (2015) work who completed their study in a similar fashion and helped trace any results directly back to the training session.

The third core aim is to measure the retention of the knowledge from the training course after a period of time has passed. This period of time was six months to allow officers to completely finish their initial training and begin their regular duties. Current research on human trafficking training shows that immediate gain from training sessions are strong, however this study wishes to explore any effect a period of time has on officers' knowledge as well.

3.2. Research Approach

This study chose a pragmatic approach. A pragmatic approach focuses on evaluating real-world events which produces data that can provide evidence for constructive criticism of the experience studied (Salkind, 2010). This approach focuses on the "what works" model, rather than trying to determine if something is wrong or right (Weaver, 2018) and in doing so can provide justifications for improvements of what is being studied. In this study, the research is looking at whether the training session works well in teaching officers about human trafficking, rather than questioning if the training course is wrong or right to be delivered.

The pragmatic approach also emphasises the use of paradigms. A paradigm is a theoretical framework that lay out existing beliefs and values from which understanding and knowledge is influenced (Morgan, 2017). As seen in the literature review, paradigms are often formed by the more dominant beliefs of the research field, so it is important that when conducting studies researchers are open to disagreeing with existing views, especially if that is what their data are revealing, without doing so may be detrimental to the research (Rahman, 2016). For example, within human trafficking, the focus on female victims has ignored the increase of male victims (Hebert, 2016). By analysing data with a balanced approach, new paradigms may be created which provide accurate understanding of a topic.

In addition, this dissertation adopts a case study approach. The focus on Kent Police allows the in-depth analysis found only minimally in human trafficking research, especially UK based studies. It is important that the early-stage training is explored so that any other factors – such as experience – can be eliminated, and the focus remains on the impact of the training. Equally, though discussing the topic of police culture and not human trafficking, Constable and Smith (2015) highlight the significance of the initial training period in how police officers later interact with the public. Their findings that an officer's beliefs and values are created during the initial training period support the notion that this phase of training should be the first area

to be examined when studying officers' understanding towards any topic. Though the limitations of one case means that this study is not representive wider than Kent Police (Creswell, 1998), it will help explore the missing gaps in human trafficking research and lessons can be learned beyond Kent Police.

Another research approach that could be considered for this study is the experimental approach. This approach looks to measure participant's knowledge before and after an event, such as what is being done here (McLeod, 2017). The added measurement of the retention period conducted in this study would only increase this understanding more. However, importantly, experimental research designs requires a control group. This study has no control group of officers who did not take part in the session, as it is a compulsory part of their initial training, therefore there could be ethical implications when asking officers not to take part in a training which would result in them missing vital information required for their duty. There was a consideration to measure the differences between a group that had not yet completed the training and one which had, however accessibility to participants outside of the trafficking classroom was limited. Equally, this study also aimed to measure how much knowledge officers gain from training, therefore following the same group throughout the process was deemed the best option. Moreover, because human trafficking training research is minimal any form of research approach would enhance understanding, this study wishes to gain a much broader understanding of the impact on training, before any further research continues exploring the topic. To achieve this wider understanding, the case study approach suits best.

3.3. Research Design

It is argued by those who most support the pragmatic approach to research that using only one form of methodology cannot produce results that can examine the impact of an event (Weaver, 2018). The limitations of both qualitative and quantitative can be over-come to a degree by using each style together. This study relies heavily in gathering understanding from the qualitative data, and using the quantitative data as supplementary to support the overall findings. Wisdom and Creswell (2013) support this by arguing that a mixed method approach produces more in-depth understanding of the data as it allows the participants' points of views to be expressed through both methods and therefore provides stronger understanding of their experiences. Arguably, the qualitative questions will provide the depth, whilst the quantitative

data will examine the wider understanding of the sample, and so when used together results show a representative and detailed answer (Queiros, Faria and Almeida, 2017).

To help explore the qualitative data this study chose the phenomenological approach to help understand the experience from a participant's point of view (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). Smith, Jarman and Osborn (1999) write that the collection and then analysis of the data does not seek to answer any hypothesis but rather examines the results as they are, producing findings that accurately reflect what the sample is trying to convey.

Moreover, within the quantitative approach, a combination of descriptive and correlational designs was utilised. Within quantitative data, a null hypothesis is connected to whether there have been any changes in the participant's views. This study is measuring various aspects where this is important. In stage one of the study, a descriptive approach to quantitative data is taken. In stage two, a comparative approach is taken where the null hypothesis is accepted if there is no difference between officers' understanding of human trafficking before or after the training session. Finally, within stage three, the null hypothesis is accepted when the results from stage two and three show no significant difference, as determined by the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test. The Test will highlight any statistically significant changes but further analysis is required into whether these changes reflect positively on the training course or not. This is where the qualitative findings become important to analyse further.

Within this study:

Null Hypothesis = There has been no significant change in response by the participants.

Alternative Hypothesis = There has been a significant change in response by the participants.

A significance level of $p < .05$ will be accepted for the purpose of this study, as so commonly accepted within social science research (McLeod, 2019).

3.4. Participants

Forty-five individuals agreed to take part in stage one and two of this study, all of whom matched the criteria of being a Kent Police officer and who were going through their initial training period at the time of the study. The findings were collected over five different days

when the human trafficking training course was delivered, with each session containing approximately 15 individuals each time, with 45 individuals agreeing to take part. The same teacher delivered the same session, in the same building, each time.

Initially the study focused on a cluster sample of Kent Police officers in their initial training, then by attending five training courses the research produced a sample of convenience, meaning that officers who were available at the training that day were asked to take part.

The following tables show the demographics of the sample, with an almost 50:50 divide between male and female participants, and a significant number aged 18-25. For the purpose of this study, no other demographic variables were collected.

Table A – Age frequency of the participant sample

Age Category	Frequency
18-25	28
26-40	14
41 +	2
Prefer not to say	1

Table B – Gender frequency of the participant sample

Gender Category	Frequency
Male	23
Female	22
Prefer not to say	0

Fifteen participants agreed and undertook stage three, however only nine met the criteria. The criteria for stage three was that they were still a Kent Police officer, had completed initial training, had taken part in the human trafficking training course, and had completed stages one and two of the study. Those participants who were not included in the analysis did not qualify as their participant codes did not align to any codes from stages one and two, meaning it could not be certain that they had taken part. This was likely down to human error, as the requirement of the code did not change.

The demographics for stage three were similar to that of stages one and two. Fifty-five per cent (n=5/9) were male and 66% (n=6/9) were aged between 18-25 years old. The period of time

was chosen as six months as this ensured that all officers had left the initial training period and were working on their regular duties.

3.5. Measures

A questionnaire was prepared for participants which included qualitative, as well as quantitative questions. In terms of the quantitative questions, participants were asked to rate their opinion on a nine-point Likert Scale. A Likert Scale is used to measure a participants' attitude towards a certain statement (McLeod, 2019). One immediate concern of the Likert Scale is that each participant may value the space between the numbers differently, meaning that the same result may produce two different viewpoints. One way to increase the weight of each point is to provide a scale which has a middle number, so that participants can base their opinions on a neutral middle ground. In addition, Joshi *et al.* (2015) state that larger scales are more effective as participants can provide more detail to their answer when given a wider range of numbers. This is why a nine point scale was chosen for this study over other options such as seven or five points. The findings of the quantitative data can be used to reflect understanding but also to support the greater knowledge gained through the qualitative analysis.

The qualitative questions for all three stages were generated using existing literature as well as being formulated from the aims. It is clear from the literature review that certain themes appear relevant within human trafficking discussion, for example a qualitative question, as seen in appendix five (page 113), six (page 118) and seven (page 123) asked the participants:

"What forms of exploitation occurs under human trafficking"

This question comes directly from the discussions regarding the focus on sexual exploitation, and hopes to examine whether the training may have any impact on the participants knowledge of different forms of exploitation.

Equally,

"*Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential victims of human trafficking may display?*

Explores further the research started by Lacsko and Gramegna (2003) and Dando, Walsh and Bierley (2016) on trafficking identifiers. Moreover, there were additional questions included that were added in for the specific interest in this study and its focus on Kent Police. For example,

"*I believe that a Kent Police officer will encounter a human trafficking victim in the next 12 months"*

"Can you list any other agencies who may work with Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking?"

Equally, in stage two, further evaluation questions directly related to the satisfaction of the course were also included, in order to achieve the first aim. Such questions included:

"*I enjoyed the training session on human trafficking"*

"Was there any area of human trafficking that you believed was going to be covered, but was not?"

The questions of stage three mirrored that of stage one and two to once again measure differences across areas easily. The only additional question was whether, if given the opportunity, participants would be interested in attending another training session. This was included to gauge confidence levels of participants after the retention period had passed and whether they self-declared the need for further training.

3.6. Quantitative Data

This study consists of non-experimental quantitative data. This is because the research questions the effects of a training session – the independent variable – without having a comparable group of participants who have not gone through the training session. Each participant in the study has completed the same training course and the results compare their data before, immediately after and after a retention period.

To make claims from the quantitative data, descriptive statistics were utilised and data were placed through the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, often shorted to the Wilcoxon Test. This is a nonparametric test that was chosen due to its focus on the mode and median data rather than the mean. Often due to the sample size, the distribution of the data means that one or two results that are higher than others would cause the average to appear higher than the actual consensus. Sullivan (2017) explains that parametric tests should be considered when the data is distributed in a way that the mean would truly reflect the average rating, whilst a non-parametric test should be used when the mode better reflects the distribution, even when, such as in this study, the sample size is large enough for a parametric test.

3.7. Qualitative Data

This study uses thematic analysis, which allows the sample to be studied as a whole, and codes are identified to produce key findings or observations about the event the participants have gone through (Clarke *et al.,* 2019). Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) and thematic analysis are often deemed very similar, however IPA's focus on the individual participant as well as the group, means that it works best for this study (Clarke, *et al.*, 2019). By better understanding what the sample as a whole is conveying, the results may be more representative of the wider Kent Police population.

Within thematic analysis the researcher creates codes which creates patterns seen across multiple participant answers, which can reflect a majority opinion on an experience (Smith, 2009). This analysis can take time in order to become familiar with the data, however provides the deep understanding of the participant experience (Alase, 2017). Whilst the literature review raised some potential examples of codes that may appear, such as a focus on sexual exploitation or certain indicators, these are not actively searched for when first approaching the data, and

are only created if they are present. This allows only relevant codes to become apparent and does not force patterns that are not there. The findings are then supported by the quantitative results to strength findings further.

3.8. Procedure

All participants involved in this study were undertaking their compulsory initial training to become police constables for Kent Police. At the beginning of the study, all participants were police officers in training, and had not yet begun their duties. At stage three, all participants were still officers of Kent Police but had since left the training school.

The researcher attended a total of five training sessions, all of which were held at the Kent Police training school, led by a specialist in human trafficking for the force. Each session covered the same topic and was taught in a classroom environment, lasting approximately five hours each time.

All participation was voluntary, and though the researcher was in the room during the training session, they did not engage and only spoke to the participants about the study. All participants were handed an information sheet as seen in appendix two (page 107), which contained details on the purpose of the study, the criteria and how to remove their data if they wished. Participants were asked to keep the information sheet after the study to ensure they had the contact details for the researcher. One information sheet was relevant for stages one and two as the sample would not move location between the two stages, but a stage three information sheet, seen in appendix three (page 110), would be sent at the later date to remind the participants of the study. Equally, the participants were asked to sign a consent form agreeing to take part (Appendix Four, page 112). Unlike the information sheet, the participants signed a consent form at every stage, this was to ensure consent was constant and allowed participants the opportunity to remove their data at any time, though the content of the form remained the same.

For stages one and two, paper questionnaires were given by hand from the researcher to the participants. In stage three, as the officers were now out on duty across Kent, an electronical questionnaire was dispersed to the participant's emails, via the trainer who taught the session.

The first questionnaire as seen in appendix five (page 113) was completed prior to taking part in the training session. This measured their prior understanding on human trafficking. Stage two produced a comparison by being completed directly after the training session had finished. The design of the second questionnaire (Appendix Six, page 118) is identical to the first, bar the brief inclusion of the evaluation questions to measure satisfaction. It was completed straight after the training session so that no other influences could affect the results.

Stage three occurred six months after stage two and was dispersed via an electronical qualitative questionnaire (Appendix Seven, page 123). Due to the decrease in eligible participants more focus was placed on qualitative findings. This is because qualitative findings tend to support smaller sample sizes but still allows deeper analysis. Sandelowski (1995) argues sample sizes should be large enough to provide information to understand the event being studied, but what is defined as a large enough sample should depend on the methodology chosen and practical issues of the study. By focusing on a qualitative questionnaire for stage three, the method allowed for a meaningful analysis based on data collected from the nine participants whilst also taking into account limited resources and time. The move to an electronical questionnaire was chosen due to the fact that all the participants had now left the initial training period and were located across Kent. It was not possible, nor required, to gather all the participants in the same classroom environment in order to complete the study.

3.9. Ethics

This study was approved by the University's Faculty Ethics Committee on the fact that the participants are not harmed physically or emotionally and all procedures in relation to anonymity and consent were upheld as seen in appendix one (page 105).

To keep participants anonymous, they were asked to create an individual code that cannot identify them but can be traced across all three stages. This meaning was made clear to all participants. The codes were created using information only the participant would know and followed the structure:

- The first two letters of the participant's surname

- The month the participant was born in, in the following format 01 for January, 12 for December
- The last two numbers of the year the participant was born in -

The participants were asked to sign their full name on the consent forms; however, this is not used to identify participants and the forms were stored securely away from the data to make sure that no consent form could be lined up with any participant code. Saunders, Kitzinger and Kitzinger, (2015) argue that complete anonymity can never be granted in such studies, as the researcher has come face to face with the participant, and in doing so can identify them; however to minimise this, the codes were created to ensure the data remained confidential.

Participants were provided with an information sheet which included the study's aims, methods, confidentiality and anonymity procedures and how to remove their data should they wish to. Information surrounding GDPR compliance was also provided. For stages one and two the same information sheet was used, as participants did not move away from their desks between the stages (Appendix Two, page 107), however was introduced again at stage three due to the period of time away from the study (Appendix Three, page 110). Especially due to the nature of the participants as police officers, information on the confidentiality and security of their data was important and their ability to remove themselves from the study was uncomplicated. As the information sheet explained how the data would be stored securely both physically and electronically and also included contact details should they wish to remove their data, the officers were comfortable agreeing to take part.

3.10. Research Reflections

There are some reflections to this study that should be noted, as some decisions taken and possibly results may be influenced by these events; however, any effect that has occurred has been minimal.

Firstly, during the data collection stage, the virus COVID-19 impacted on the officer's ability to take time to complete the study, on top of their now heightened duties. This came most into effect when stage three was being completed, and may explain the lower response rate. However, COVID-19 should not have affected the results in any way considering the subject

matter was not focused on this. COVID-19 did not affect the data collection of stages one and two which was completed beforehand.

The researcher is also a working professional and so resources, especially time, were limited. This did put restrictions on collecting a larger sample size; however, what was collected provided sufficient data for this study. Equally, when starting this study, the researcher did work for Kent Police as a staff member; however, left early on into the research before data collection began and was cautious in making sure that any bias had been removed from the analysis. This is important because Rabe (2003) discusses the influence held by the researcher when they are part of or have been part of the organisation they are studying. They explain that as they collect data the researcher has the power to represent the findings in any way, be it positive or negative. This is less likely to happen when the researcher has no prior connection to the organisation or body (Rabe, 2003). However, there are strengths to being connected to the participant's experience. Bonner and Tolhurst (2002) review that the researcher may feel more natural to the participants if they have a shared experience, and especially in regards to policing may speak the 'language' of the participants which may be unknown to a researcher who previously has not worked in the police (Cetkovic, 2017). However, this may result in the researcher loosing objectivity, but arguably this can be controlled by awareness with support from peer-reviewed assessment. To this end, themes were discussed with the researcher's supervisor.

The research also required assistance from those still working in Kent Police to gain access to the participants. This was predominately the trainer of the lesson who works for Kent Police. This access was smooth throughout the stages as the individual was very open to the research. Whilst this was helpful in gaining access to participants it is important that there is no pressure from Kent Police in pursuing a certain finding. Whilst this study is on Kent Police and was completed with their approval, Kent Police nor any specific individual within Kent Police has viewed the research or data at any point in order to manipulate it or remove any aspect. Therefore, no independence was lost due to this access connection.

Finally, it is important to consider how far along the initial training the officers were, as this may impact the findings. For example, one class was two weeks into their initial training, whilst another was ten weeks. This may mean that some officers have encountered mentions of human trafficking in other training modules, therefore when considering any findings in the data this should be taken into account, especially if there is any divide in the sample. Whilst human

trafficking is a compulsory part of the curriculum, it does not always have to be delivered at the same time in the training, therefore it was not possible to control this for the research. But remains a point to be considered when evaluating results.

4. Findings

This chapter begins with a comparative analysis between the results of stage one and two, looking at the immediate differences and questioning whether any change can be directly reflected back the training course. The results draw out individual qualitative examples to provide an understanding of the thoughts of the participants but the quantitative data provide the overall group findings. After the comparison of the immediate affects, stage three data are presented, comparing not just the difference between stages two and three, but following participant answers throughout all three stages to highlight any developing beliefs of the participants long-term. There is more focus on the qualitative short-answer questions in stage three, to provide the depth required in the smaller sample size.

4.1. Stage One and Stage Two

Forty-five participants completed stage one which was taken immediately before the training session on human trafficking began. All individuals then agreed to take part in stage two which took place immediately after the training course had finished to prevent any other factors from influencing answers. The questionnaires were identical in order to highlight clear differences or similarities between the two stages. There is a greater focus on the qualitative answers so these are represented first in the findings, however the quantitative data provide the evidential support and interest of the group consensus to the individual qualitative statements and is therefore included for supplementary support.

4.1.1. Definition of Human Trafficking

Kent Police's definition on human trafficking focused on the wider terminology of modern slavery (Craig, 2017), that does not include all elements of human trafficking as provided by the internationally recognised Palermo Protocol. References to modern slavery may exclude understanding of exploitation or human trafficking (Craig, 2017), therefore, the participant's definition in this study are compared against the Palermo Protocol and its five distinct elements, with only a few connections to the Kent Police definition.

4.1.1.1. Before Training

Despite not having received the training yet, many participants made good attempts at defining human trafficking when compared alongside the Protocol. Though almost all definitions lacked one or more element of the process, 47% (n = 21/45) of participants were able to include at least three of the five elements. Some good definitions that contain basic knowledge included:

"The organised movement of people across countries/counties in order for them to be exploited, usually sexually" (Participant 27)

"People without liberty forced to be transported to other countries for various reasons" (Participant 41)

"Illegal movement of humans from one country to another for criminal offences such as fraud or slave labour" (Participant 2)

There were a few definitions that, when compared alongside Kent Police's definition, suited well, such as

"An individual who is required to work for very little or no money. They are controlled either by a person or larger organisation" (Participant 39)

"Someone who is brought or sold for work or other reasons" (Participant 28)

However, in general, the definitions included the most common mistakes made by law enforcement officers as explored in the literature review. One error found is that participants often confused human trafficking and human smuggling together, for example:

Being moved to a different country and across borders undetected" (Participant 37)

This definition better describes human smuggling as it misses core elements of human trafficking, such as the recruitment and exploitation of the victim. One individual even wrote that human trafficking was defined as "*human smuggling"* (Participant 4). This provides a notable example of the confusion displayed by most participants. Other definitions that also better describe human smuggling are:

"Moving a number of people from one country to another illegally" (Participant 4)

"A person being illegally transported from one country to another" (Participant 13)

Whilst some elements of human trafficking, such as the transportation of individuals, are present in the participant's definitions, a majority fail to mention other vital elements. The Protocol makes the five elements required for trafficking clear and the above definitions better generate understanding similar to a definition of human smuggling. It is, however, unsurprising that the data from stage one would raise such a theme, as previous studies have also pointed out this confusion amongst law enforcement. It is therefore imperative that the training helps the participants understand this difference.

One key area that is attributed in separating trafficking from smuggling is the use of deception and force against a trafficking victim. In their definitions, many participants do display this understanding and importantly this is seen in the definitions that better reflect human trafficking. Some examples include:

"The sale or provision of a person working in a capacity against their will" (Participant 16)

"When a person is forced to change location (usually country) under duress" (Participant 34)

A couple participants also used emotive language to describe the exploitation, such as by saying that human trafficking is the "*abduction of individuals against their will"* (Participant 11) , or that victims of trafficking are *"brought and sold for work"* (Participant 28), conjuring powerful images of the exploitation of victims. Whilst most participants create this image through their language, one participant defines human trafficking as:

"People who are shipped about from place to place by a person who has paid money and brought that person at auction". (Participant 5)

Whilst being emotive the participant also gives off a sense of drama, with the idea of auctions and being shipped, mirroring movie style imagery that creates a heightened sense of suffering. Whilst the participants seem to have an understanding of the exploitation of human trafficking victims, on occasion some of the definitions appear dramatic; however, by reflecting on the exploitation of the victims, these definitions do define human trafficking better than those who do not.

It seems that the definitions of the sample split into two groups, those who better define human smuggling due to missing core elements of the process, and those who have included, specifically exploitation and force, within their definition and in doing so better describe human trafficking. The split is almost exactly 50:50 within the sample, with 23 out of 45 of the participants mentioning exploitation and force in their definitions.

On the other hand, no participant mentioned consent of the victim in their definitions, despite it being a crucial part of human trafficking law in the UK, though it should be noted some definitions did imply a lack of consent by mentioning the use of force or coercion. The study wanted to explore participant belief in regards to the consent of human trafficking victims so included a quantitative question that asked participants to rate how much they believed that human trafficking victims can play a role in their situation. The higher the rating the more the participant believes the victim has consented to their situation. Table C shows the breakdown of the participant's answers.

Table C – Participant rating their belief that victims can play a role in their situation

Likert Scale	Frequency
1	8
2	11
3	5
4	5
5	10
6	1

7	5
8	0
9	0

Whilst the table shows a mixed response from the sample, it can be argued that the majority only have minimal belief that victims play any role in their situation, this finding links to the majority of definitions that focused on coercion, slavery and abduction.

In addition, as findings show that the mention of exploitation is imperative to a definition of human trafficking, another significant code that is seen within stage one is a focus on sexual exploitation. This narrow focus was reflected in a handful of definitions of human trafficking, with examples such as:

"Taking someone's freedom, involve sexual favours, victims being sold normally for sex" (Participant 38)

"Illegal activity of moving human for sexual activities…" (Participant 20)

Some participants did include a list amongst their definitions to showcase the various forms of exploitation that they knew, highlighting an understanding of other types of exploitation than just sexual, such as,

"The forced movement of people for the purpose of exploiting them physically, manually, labour and sexually". (Participant 8)

Labour exploitation appeared as the second most common form of exploitation mentioned; however, knowledge on other forms appear scarcely and highlights a lack of knowledge. The following quantitative data may provide some insight as to why so many participants have a narrow perception that focuses only on sexual exploitation. Table D shows the mode and frequency calculations for participants in their understanding of various forms of exploitation prelisted for them in their stage one questionnaire:

Table D – Mode and Frequency Calculations of knowledge of various forms of exploitation

Item	Mode	Frequencies	Description
Labour Exploitation	1	1 – n = 10 2 – n = 7 3 – n = 8 4 – n = 7 5 – n = 8 6 – n = 1 7 – n = 3 8 – n = 1 9 – n = 0	Participants showed little knowledge with major variability in their responses
Sexual Exploitation	6,7	1 – n = 1 2 – n = 5 3 – n = 7 4 – n = 7 5 – n = 7 6 – n = 8 7 – n = 8 8 – n = 1 9 – n = 1	Participants showed little to moderate knowledge with major variability in their responses
Forced Marriage	5	1 – n = 4 2 – n = 7 3 – n = 7 4 – n = 7 5 – n = 9 6 – n = 6 7 – n =2 8 – n = 1 9 – n = 1	Participants showed mixed (unsure) levels of knowledge with major variability in their responses
Domestic Servitude	1	1 – n = 15 2 – n = 4 3 – n = 12 4 – n = 7	Participants showed minimal knowledge with minor

		5 – n = 0 6 – n = 2 7 – n = 4 8 – n = 0 9 – n = 0	variability in their responses
Definition of Human Trafficking	2	1 – n = 9 2 – n = 13 3 – n = 10 4 – n = 1 5 – n = 9 6 – n = 3 7 – n = 0 8 – n = 0 9 – n = 0	Participants showed minor confidence with minor variability in their responses

NB: 1 signifies no knowledge at all and 9 signifies complete knowledge.

There is a vast difference within the sample of knowledge between labour and sexual exploitation, and a similarly large difference between those that know what sexual exploitation is and those that feel confident defining human trafficking. Consequently, it is not surprising to see that sexual exploitation is present in many of the definitions of stage one, when the sample appears to have a greater knowledge on this prior to the training course.

However, almost all elements had a large variability in the sample, bar domestic servitude where it was noticed that the sample did not know what it was. As the results were collected over five classes it is possible that certain classes had already received training that assisted in their understanding on certain elements. For example, one class had undertaken training in child sexual exploitation compared to another which had not and therefore may be more likely to grade their understanding in sexual exploitation higher than others. This may also be a leading cause as to why many participants listed sexual exploitation in their definitions but still lack understanding as to what human trafficking is.

Equally, as well as being asked to rate their understanding against a pre-determined list of exploitation types, participants were later asked in the qualitative portion of the questionnaire to list examples of exploitation they were aware of, with no prompts available. This question

was very similar and produced aligning results, with sexual exploitation being listed by 80% (n=36/45) of the sample. Table E showcases other types of exploitations that were included, with participants being encouraged to list more than one.

Table E: Frequency of mentions of different types of exploitations.

Type of Exploitation	Number of Participants who mentioned it
Child Exploitation	10
Sexual Exploitation	36
Labour Exploitation	17
Drug Exploitation / County Lines	5
Slavery	11
Domestic Exploitation	9
Forced Marriage	3
Smuggling	2
Organ Removal	1
Unsure of any type of exploitation	7

The question which asked them to list any forms of exploitation they knew was designed to appear after the question which provided them with ready-made examples of exploitation, however, it appears that many participants did not recognise that the previous list included forms of exploitation to consider as some examples were seldom mentioned. Table E continues to highlight the fact that sexual exploitation, is by far, the most understood form of exploitation by the officers prior to taking part in the training course. The importance of training in expanding this knowledge becomes apparent.

The participants had a stronger start to defining human trafficking than originally believed, based on previous studies. Over half the sample were able to identify at least three out of the five elements of human trafficking, and many definitions mirrored the one provided by Kent Police on modern slavery. The lack of the mention of exploitation meant that many definitions better described human smuggling than human trafficking, with a large divide occurring between the sample of those who included exploitation and those that did not. The findings also show a focus on sexual exploitation, with limited knowledge on other forms.

4.1.1.2. After Training

After the training session, there was a notable change in understanding amongst the participant answers. Whereas before the sample was divided in half between those who defined smuggling and those who defined trafficking, now 68% (n=31/45) better define human trafficking by make specific mention of exploitation in their definitions. Participant 15 for example, defined trafficking by, "*The transportation of people for exploitation",* and whilst this definition is not a good example of a full understanding of human trafficking, it does help distinguish trafficking from smuggling, due to the mention of exploitation. Some common examples from stage two, that reflect this also include:

"The movement of persons for the purpose of exploiting them" (Participant 8)

"Moving people to a different location with the intention of exploiting them" (Participant 21)

"Moving people from A to B to exploit them in criminal activities" (Participant 3)

Because of the focus on exploitation and force, their definitions lean away from human smuggling. The element of recruitment is not mentioned in any participant definitions in stage two; however, this was not covered in the training course, therefore, this is an area which needs further focus on to form a stronger understanding. Nevertheless, the growth in understanding of other elements, such as transportation, exploitation and for the benefit of another is clear and helps focus the participants away from human smuggling. Further research into how understanding into recruitment can be implemented is required.

Moving on, the theme of consent rises strongly in stage two when it did not exist at all in stage one. Fifteen participants (33%) consider the idea that victims of human trafficking may have consented to their situation, or at least to parts of the process that ended in trafficking. Participant 9 mentions that trafficking is *"people doing jobs in the UK, from another country with/without knowledge",* whilst another described trafficking as the "*illegal movement of humans who have the knowledge that they are going to be exploited whether consented or not"* (Participant 2).

Participant 2's definition emphasises the belief that victims are aware of the situation they are in, and that they may have agreed to be transported for exploitation. The participants try to explain the difference between a consenting human trafficking victim and an illegal immigrant by discussing core differences. One participant suggests that a lack of payment for work is likely to be the difference between those who are smuggled or trafficked, whilst another mentioned that the restriction of an individual's movement is the key to identifying a human trafficking victim over a human smuggling case. Whether or not the participants are correct should be explored further in the discussion chapter, but it is important to mention that the UK law specifically states that consent is not important when considering if someone is a victim of human trafficking. The participant's definitions accurately reflect this.

Because consent in trafficking is an existing debate within literature already, this study wanted to explore this further, even when unaware that it would arise in the results. Stage one showed a minor belief that victims could consent or play a role in their situation and this continued into stage two, with the exact same results, showing 11% (n=5/45) rating 7 or above in their belief that victims could play a role in being trafficked, with no participant rating the maximum 9. Because the results appear the same, Table F breaks this down even further, highlighting how many individuals rated which number and the difference between the two stages:

Table F. Frequency of each rating and the difference between stages

Likert Scale	Stage One Results	Stage Two Results	Difference
1	8	5	>3
2	11	7	>4
3	5	4	>1
4	5	5	=
5	10	11	<1
6	1	8	<7
7	5	3	>2
8	0	2	<2
9	0	0	=

NB: > signifies decrease between stages, < signifies increase between stages, = signifies no change.

When analysing the data, it is important to note that the question asked the participants to rate their belief that a victim can play a role in causing their human trafficking situation. The question does not specifically ask the participant about consent in trafficking, but rather if the victim may have willingly agreed to any element. As seen in the literature review, trafficking victims may agree to be smuggled but upon arrival are deceived into trafficking, therefore these findings do not make it clear whether participants believe human trafficking victims consent or whether more participants understand that individuals may consent to be smuggled, inadvertently arranging to be trafficked. What is evident is that a small minority of approximately 10 participants increased their belief that victims may play a role in causing their trafficking situation. Whether this is via consent to be smuggled or consent to be trafficked continues to be argued.

Combined with the qualitative data, consent remains a challenging area of human trafficking. The training appears to have provided some increase in understanding through the qualitative results as more participants explain the use of force and mention exploitation in their definitions, however the quantitative data shows a general increase in the belief that victims may somehow play a role in causing a human trafficking situation. Whether consent is possible to give in a human trafficking situation requires further discussion, as well as a deeper look into whether consent can start and stop for an individual at different times and importantly how this may affect officers' ability to identify human trafficking.

Whilst discussions on consent need to continue, other areas that arose amongst the definitions was the focus on sexual exploitation, which is completely removed from the sample's definitions in stage two. All participants now include general mention of exploitation without naming specific examples, such as:

"It's the moving of people to exploit them in various different ways" (Participant 41)

"Trafficking a person with the intent of criminal exploitation" (Participant 44)

Not only has there been a shift away from the focus on sexual exploitation the results also show no mention of any other form. From these data alone it is hard to say whether this shines a positive or negative light. Whilst the training has removed the focus that existed on sexual exploitation, a general mention of exploitation may show a lack of understanding of the

different types, as participants are not highlighting specific examples. Whilst there should be a drive towards removing the focus away from sexual exploitation, it is possible that by doing so, understanding on different forms may be lost, especially if participants do not recall them in their definitions. However, it could instead highlight a new understanding that there are many examples of exploitation and therefore to mention one would not be sufficient. Therefore the more general type of 'exploitation' encapsulates human trafficking better. It should be noted that neither the Palermo Protocol, UK law or Kent Police definition actively mentions any example of exploitation in their definition, therefore it is possible that participants, instead of focusing on a few examples, understand the wider picture of exploitation within trafficking better after the training session.

Furthermore, participants were asked again to list examples of exploitation they knew. Table G showcases their answers:

Table G. Frequency of different exploitations mentioned during stage two.

Type of Exploitation	Number of participants who listed it
Sexual Exploitation	38
Labour Exploitation	30
Domestic Exploitation	3
Drug Exploitation / County Lines	10
Child Exploitation	7
Slavery	2
Smuggling	2
Unsure	6

The mention of labour exploitation has now risen from 17 to 30 participants, minimising the gap between labour and sexual exploitation. Understanding regarding county drug trafficking also increased after the training session, which becomes important when considering the location of Kent Police, and its history of drug trafficking (Kent Police, 2020; Williams and Finlay, 2019), though interestingly this was not mentioned in the training session. This could highlight a growing understanding of what constitutes as human trafficking and the new ability to identify it within pre-existing examples. This links back to Renzetti, *et al* (2015) study which showed that after attending a training course, officers were able to identify more existing cases of trafficking in their area.

The definitions highlight a shift away from any mention of sexual exploitation, but in doing so also removes any other form, with participants adopting more generic terminology. However, when asked to list different types of exploitation, there were more consensus of the various forms, with minor improvement in understanding of other types of exploitation. Consent still remains an interesting area of discussion within human trafficking, as the participants' belief that victims could play a role in causing a trafficking situation did increase, however still remained low. Some participants mentioned that victims may or may not consent to be trafficked, however in general the understanding around coercion and force led the discussion more into forced trafficking.

4.1.1.3. Summary of definitions findings

Overall, the participants' definitions of human trafficking have improved after the training session. Participants mention more of the elements of the Palermo Protocol, with recruitment remaining the only element missing from their definitions. The increase in the mention of force and violence helped many participants distinguish their definitions from human smuggling; however this lead more to question victim consent. Participants moved away from a sexual exploitation focus and now include a more generic understanding in their definitions, with less of a divide between their sexual exploitation and other forms. All of these differences were directly impacted by the training session.

4.1.2. Indicators

A dominant area of research into human trafficking is law enforcement's ability to identify victims. It is believed that a significant number of victims are overlooked or misclassified because law enforcement fail to spot signs of trafficking. The following section presents findings relating to the officers' knowledge on indicators before and after the training.

4.1.2.1. Before Training

Participants were asked to list different types of indicators that may be present in victims of human trafficking. Participants were asked to list as many as they knew and Table H highlights the results, on occasion the meaning of what the participants are saying have been grouped together as they are similar. For example, scared and frightened.

Table H. Frequency of different indicators mentioned during stage one.

Indicator	Frequency
Victim is shy	11
Victim is alone	3
Victim is scared	22
Victim is malnourished	7
Victim is dirty	5
Victim has no money	5
Victim is lost / unsure on location	5
Victim is foreign (for this study not British)	7
Victim has no official documents	5
Victim has physical signs of abuse (marks)	6
Victim is young	3
Participant is not sure on any indicators	12

A victim being shy and scared were deemed the most common form of indicators known to the participants, however 12 participants, constituting 27% of the sample, were unable to list any form of indicator at all. Though other forms of indicators, such as the victim having no documentation or money, were listed by a couple of participants, most signs of victimisation were in regards to more emotional indicators than physical signs. Participants believed that an individual being scared was more likely to be a victim of human trafficking than someone who had no passport. However, overall, the participants list of indicators does not differ greatly from the previous literature's understanding. One participant's answer encapsulates well the previous discussions on trafficking indicators,

"Poor condition, malnourished, injuries, clothing, no or little English, fear, no knowledge of whereabouts, distress, lack of eye contact, fading into the background" (Participant 26)

Individually, some participants have a strong understanding of indicators, however many remain unsure and the indicators mentioned by the majority are not necessarily easy to spot for police officers. Nevertheless, the list is supported by previous studies which produced similar results.

Moreover, participants were asked a series of quantitative questions that were designed to measure their confidence levels in identifying victims of human trafficking. First they were asked to rate their confidence in being able to identify a victim using indicators only, secondly, the participants were asked to rate their belief that training is vital for police officers in improving their detection rates and thirdly, they were asked whether they believed that the specific training they were about to undertake would raise their confidence.

Table I shows the results from stage one of these three questions.

Table I. Percentage rating of the number of participants who rated 7 or above.

Item	Mode	Frequencies	Description
Confidence in using indicators to identify victims	2	1 – n = 7 2 – n = 13 3 – n = 11 4 – n = 4 5 – n = 4 6 – n = 3 7 – n = 2 8 – n = 1 9 – n = 0	Participants show little confidence with major variability in their responses
Belief that training is vital to detect trafficking	9	1 – n = 0 2 – n = 0 3 – n = 0 4 – n = 0 5 – n = 0 6 – n = 0 7 – n = 1 8 – n = 8 9 – n = 36	Participants show significant belief with minor variability in their responses

Confidence will rise after training	9	1 – n = 0 2 – n = 0 3 – n = 1 4 – n = 0 5 – n = 1 6 – n = 2 7 – n = 13 8 – n = 13 9 – n = 15	Participant show significant belief with moderate variability in their responses.

NB: 1 signifies no confidence at all and 9 signifies complete confidence.

The table shows that participants have a significant lack of confidence in their ability to identify victims of trafficking, despite being able to successful list examples of indicators. Participants do however, have a strong belief that training can assist law enforcement in detecting human trafficking, and though their belief decreased for the specific training they were about to receive, the high result should not be diminished.

4.1.2.2. After Training Results

After the training the list of examples provided by the participants turned into more physical indicators. A common answer was, for example, *"not speaking, no money, don't know language and lack of food"* (Participant 1). However, as a whole, the indicators for stage two had not varied greatly from stage one, with only a minor increase in the mention of more physical signs. However, as the participant's understanding was strong prior to the training course, the potential impact was always going to be minimal. The data from this study, even in stage one, was producing similar indicators to other previous studies, highlighting a growing trend in what indicators may be present in a human trafficking victim. It could be argued that with significant similarities coming forward amongst many studies, a more structured and official list could be created in order to assist law enforcement in focusing their attention in identifying human trafficking. It is possible that with a list of indicators, created with the support from academic evidence, officers may be more able to identify more human trafficking victims. This will be explored further in the discussion chapter.

4.1.2.3. Confidence Levels

However, even with a good level of knowledge of indicators, it is important that officers feel confident in stepping forward to identify trafficking. Stage one showed that officers were not, with only 4% (n= 2/45) rating a 7 or above in their confidence of identifying an indicator. Table J shows the comparison across stages one and two of the three questions explored on confidence;

Table J: Percentage of participants who rated 7 or above comparison across stages one and two.

Question	Stage One percentage who rated 7 or above	Stage Two percentage who rated 7 or above	Difference
Participant confidence in identifying a victim of human trafficking using only indicators present	4%	82%	<78%
Participant belief that training is vital in helping police officers detect human trafficking	100%	91%	>9%
Participants belief that the training they will receive will raise their confidence in dealing with human trafficking	89%	98%	<9%

NB: > signifies decrease between stages, < signifies increase between stages, = signifies no change.

It is evident that the sample experienced a significant increase in confidence in being able to identify victims of trafficking through indicators. The Wilcoxon Test showed that the results were statically significant (Z = -5.707 P = 1.152E-8) to imply that the training caused this impact. Additionally, the participant's belief that the Kent Police training they received had also increased their confidence reflects positively on Kent Police.

The only decrease from the data came from when participants were asked if training is vital in helping officers detect human trafficking. This may be a reflection on how the training allowed participants to cement the ideas they already had, rather than teach them something new, which would involve an increase in confidence in their own ability but less confidence in the requirement of a training session to teach them about indicators. To explore this further, one question asked in stage two in the evaluation phase of the training may be able to assist. Participants were asked whether they felt that they has gained new knowledge about human trafficking from the training session – however, it should be noted that the new knowledge is not necessarily just about indicators but includes all areas of the training. Nevertheless, 91% of the sample (n=39/43) rated a 7 or above in their belief that they had learnt something new from the training, with 49% (n=21/45) rating the maximum 9. The data causes confliction with participants presenting a slight decrease in their belief that training is vital in helping police officers learn about indicators, however rating highly that the Kent Police training had improved their knowledge - however the quantitative data is unable to show whether this was a specific increase in indicators or not. Therefore, the impact of the training on teaching indicators is arguably minimal due to the pre-existing knowledge the officers had, however the impact of the training on the confidence of the officers to use their knowledge on indicators was significant.

4.1.2.4. The Stereotypical Victim

Whilst being able to understand indicators victims of human trafficking may display is important for law enforcement to know, previous studies have highlighted how officers may

focus their attention on stereotype images of victims. This study wanted to explore whether officers were only considering indicators in certain individuals that they most expected to be victims of human trafficking, and whether they were then also ignoring the same indicators in those that did not fit into that belief. It has already been shown that participants have a strong understanding of indicators and how after the training have the confidence to identify them as well, however if the officers are only looking for indicators in certain individuals this may provide insight into why some human trafficking victims are missed.

4.1.2.5. Before Training

In stage one answers revolved around three types of people who were deemed most likely to become a victim of human trafficking, these were: "*female, children and being poor."* (Participant 2)

These three areas were included in a majority of answers, with other participants listing similar characteristics:

"People from poor backgrounds" (Participant 35)

"Children" (Participant 20)

"Vulnerable people such as those with lack of money, shelter and no family" (Participant 14)

The data provides a clear base line of what participants believed prior the training course.

4.1.2.6. After Training

In stage two, answers altered significantly. There was less focus on listing specific characteristics such as being female or being poor and a more generalised approach appeared, such as:

"Vulnerable adults. Vulnerable children". (Participant 6)

This answer does not provide precise examples of indicators but instead uses the term '*vulnerable'* which could be used to classify anyone – or leaves the classification open to the individual officer. Whilst this could be a positive step in preventing stereotyping of victims, this also raises other issues if officers have preconceived thoughts on who can be vulnerable. It could be argued that by answering with just the words '*vulnerable'* the officers provide little reassurance on their ability to not stereotype, as they may preconceive who can be vulnerable. However, these are officers of Kent Police, and Kent Police (2020) define an individual as vulnerable if they fall under one (or more) of the following three categories:

1) They need care and support
2) They are experiencing, or are at risk of, abuse or neglect
3) They are unable to protect themselves

There is no argument that human trafficking victim's fall under all three of Kent Police's vulnerable categories, and therefore with the participants answering with '*vulnerable'*, they do cover the requirements from Kent Police of being able to identify a human trafficking victim. However, this still does not prevent stereotypes from occurring, and therefore cannot guarantee that participants would only classify, females, children and those in poverty as vulnerable. It does not remove the possibility that the officers would miss a male victim of crime if they did not fit into one of the categories.

However, some participants mentioned examples. The possibility that both "*foreign nationals"* (Participant 44) but also "*British nationals"* (Participant 24) can be victims of human trafficking appeared in stage two, whereas before internal trafficking was not mentioned by any participant. In addition, many participants commented that "*anyone"* (Participant 37) or more specifically *"anyone who has vulnerabilities"* (Participant 39), may become a victim of human trafficking, with arguably the first answer removing any stereotypes of human trafficking victims and the second answer removing stereotypes that only certain individuals

could be vulnerable. As these types of answers did not exist in stage one but do in stage two, it is possible to determine that this change has been brought about by the training course educating the participants that anyone can be a victim of human trafficking.

Whilst participants identified vulnerability as an indicator in stage two, this was again something that was pre-planned to be explored in this study, due to previous literature highlighting the importance of understanding consent and vulnerability in victims. Therefore, participants were asked to rate their belief that victims of human trafficking are vulnerable. Commonly reference vulnerabilities by the participants include victims being a female or a child. These are not factors that people can generally influence, therefore the vulnerability question was followed immediately by another which looked to determine if the participants felt that victims are forced into trafficking due to circumstances outside of their control. The follow up question was worded: *"I believe that victims are forced into human trafficking due to circumstances outside of their control".* Therefore, the higher the rating the stronger the belief that victims can control their circumstances. These two questions are very closely linked to measure the participant's belief that victims are vulnerable, but also whether they believe this vulnerability can be changed, and therefore individuals can control their chances of becoming a victim of human trafficking. Table K shows the comparison between stages one and two for each question, represented by the number of individuals who rated each number.

Table K showing a comparison between stages one and two on whether victims are vulnerable or forced

Item	Frequencies for Stage One	Frequencies for Stage Two	Difference and Description
Victims of human trafficking are vulnerable	1 = 0 2 = 0 3 = 0 4 = 0 5 = 0 6 = 1 7 = 7 8 = 7 9 = 30	1 = 0 2 = 0 3 = 0 4 = 0 5 = 0 6 = 0 7 = 4 8 = 5 9 = 36	< 2% of those that rated 7 or above. Participants show significant belief with minor variability in their responses.

Victims of human trafficking are forced due to circumstances they cannot control	1 = 0 2 = 0 3 = 1 4 = 0 5 = 5 6 = 12 7 = 7 8 = 15 9 = 5	1 = 0 2 = 0 3 = 0 4 = 0 5 = 1 6 = 3 7 = 9 8 = 13 9 = 18	< 29% of those that rated 7 or above. Participants have significance belief with moderate variability in their responses.

NB: > decrease in belief between stages, < increase in belief between stages, = no change between stages.

From stage one participants rated victims of human trafficking as highly vulnerable. This only increased slightly after the training course, and whilst the Wilcoxon Test showed this as a significant increase (Z = 2.121, P = 0.034) between the two stages, this should not diminish the high ratings from stage one. However, prior to the training course, there was a wide range of beliefs in whether victims could influence their circumstances. This meant the consensus of the sample believe that victims of trafficking are vulnerable, but the degree to which they can change these circumstances is undecided. However, after the training course this changed greatly. There was a greater consensus that victims could not change their circumstances, though it should be noted that a minor group still remained undecided. The Wilcoxon Test showed that the change in belief can be directly related to the influence of the training course (Z = -4.211, P = .025). These results still raise questions as to whether victims can consent to be trafficked – it questions where victims can provide consent as they feel the need to change their situation and so consent to be trafficked, or does it diminish consent further, as victims find themselves with no other choice but to be trafficked in order to change their circumstances. One participant's definition of human trafficking suggests:

"A way in which an alpha (offender) *brings people over from another country to work for them for little or no wage in order to cover a circumstance that has led the victim to believe that this is their only way out".* (Participant 36)

Participants believe that victims of trafficking are vulnerable, after the training course they also believe that victims are less able to control the circumstances they may led them to be trafficked. The analysis behind this shows an altered form of consent where victims provide consent when no other choice is available – arguably, not a form of consent at all. This shows a need to better define consent in terms of human trafficking.

Overall within the analysis of indicators, stereotypes of victims becomes dispelled by the training course delivered by Kent Police. Participants no longer believe that only certain individuals can be victims of trafficking, and now approach victimisation with a more generalised '*vulnerable'* mind-set. Whilst this does raise some concern, the participant's belief now more closely aligns with their employer's policy, highlighting the influential nature of the training course. Equally, participants have always believed that victims of trafficking are vulnerable, however the training course influenced the participants understanding on the control a victim has over a trafficking situation. This continues to raises questions on defining consent within human trafficking.

4.1.2.7. Barriers to Reporting

In any crime victims may face barriers that prevent them from reporting to the police. Within human trafficking, these are often in relation to the threat of violence, kidnap or fear of the police, which is only enhanced by the trafficker.

4.1.2.8. Before Training

When asked what barriers they believed victims faced to reporting, participant 25 provides an answer that encapsulates what many other participants also believe:

"Fear from perpetrators, fear of deportation, not being believed and not getting justice".

The participants understanding of barriers to reporting matches much of what current literature reports, however it could be argued that the reporting of any crime has similar barriers and

these are not always specific to human trafficking, therefore it should be noted that this knowledge may have come from previous training sessions. For example, "*fear of perpetrator"* and *"fear of not getting justice",* are similar barriers faced by victims of domestic abuse, a training topic covered prior to their human trafficking session (Cleaver *et al.* 2019).

Importantly, how officers would react in trying to overcome these barriers was explored both in the training session and then in the questionnaires. Participants were asked what their initial actions would be if they identified a victim of human trafficking. In stage one, there was a concerning theme that arose, with a majority of participant's answering:

"Contact the police" (Participant 36)

Potential this answer shows a lack of understanding to the purpose of the study, with the participants being involved as police officers not civilians. It does however, highlight that participants do believe that the police service are the most appropriate organisation to deal with human trafficking, but that the participant lacks confidence in their own ability, as an officer, to deal with a case. In addition, some participants wrote similar answers such as, *"call for support"* (Participant 14) and "*call someone more senior"* (Participant 27), highlighting a lack of confidence on what actions to take.

4.1.2.9. After Training

After the training, there is little impact on the participants understanding of barriers to reporting. In fact, there are no new barriers listed in stage two. However, as the participant's knowledge on barriers was high prior to the training course, the impact was always likely to be minimal. This is most likely due to previous training sessions on other forms of crime which share similar barriers to human trafficking.

What is seen within the results is the change of what actions the participants would do upon locating a potential victim of human trafficking. During the training session, the participants are advised that their initial actions should be to gain the trust of the victim through conversation and gather evidence of trafficking, to then hand over to a specialised officer. This advice is reflected in the stage two answers:

"Look to safeguard the person as quickly as possible and enquire about their situation" (Participant 43)

"Talk to them, let them know I want to help them" (Participant 19)

"Question and try to assess whether it is human trafficking or not" (Participant 20)

There was no participant in stage two who answered along the lines of seeking support or calling the police, and the three answers highlight how influential the training course is. The officers discuss sympathy towards victims but also show an increase in understanding what actions they need to take, especially in comparison to stage one. However, their answers do not necessarily provide any detail. For example, participants know how to start a conversation with the victim, but no participant mentions the type of questions to ask – despite this being covered in the training session. Equally, no participant mentions calling the specialist officer, and instead try and solve the issue themselves. Interestingly, no participant considers seeking medical help for the victim. The training has improved this area significantly, however the answers arguably fall short in providing confidence that the officers have understood the training, as details are missing on the exact actions they would take. Participants have provided answers such as, building trust, but not how they would go about building this trust, therefore there is no evidence to prove that they could do so.

Overall, participants had a strong understanding of barriers to reporting before stage one, likely due to similar training sessions beforehand. The impact of the training on barriers is therefore minimal, with no change to report. However, the participant's answers in relation to their initial actions saw a significant shift from stage one to stage two, with a move towards a better understanding. Participants become more considerate of victims but also understood the need to gather evidence of the crime. However, the lack of detail in their answers continues to raise concern on whether the participants fully understood, and could take, the initial actions in a human trafficking case.

4.1.3. Officers Evaluate Their Training

Many are calling training the starting point for improving the prevention and detection of human trafficking. Whilst the knowledge the participants in this study have gained from the training session has been discussed and the influence of the training has been noted, it is also important to look at how officers evaluate their own training to further measure its effectiveness.

4.1.3.1. Before Training

Prior to taking part in the training session the participants were asked what they believed the session should include, some results included:

"How to stop a victim and offender" (Participant 9)

"Teach me how to identify and help those in need" (Participant 14)

"To be able to define human trafficking and identify victims, and how to deal with them" (Participant 21)

The participant's requirements of the training mirror the main themes of human trafficking literature, the core themes of this study, but more importantly the training's curriculum.

4.1.3.2. After Training

When asked if the training met their expectations participants agreed that they "*had gained a lot of information"* (Participant 37), and that the training "*covered a variety of topics in regards to human trafficking"* (Participant 43). However, when prompt for any further areas they believed the training should have covered, some participants mentioned:

"Maybe some more on refugees" (Participant 27)

"Expected more legalisation and force policy but enjoyed the teaching" (Participant 44)

There was less than 10 participants who mentioned something they considered to be missing from the training course, with legalisation being represented by over half. Participant 44's answer is interesting as the indicators analysis showed that the participants are aligning to their forces' policies well, despite potentially not realising it. This showed that whilst the training was effective in this area, more transparency to the links with force related policy would be required. The quantitative results support the overwhelming majority of positive qualitative comments regarding the training. Table L shows the mode and frequencies of the seven questions that were asked to evaluate the session.

Table L – Mode and Frequency calculations of the training evaluation.

Item	Mode	Frequency	Description
I enjoyed the training session	8, 9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0 n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 0 n - 6 = 3 n - 7 = 8 n - 8 = 16 n - 9 = 16	Participations showed significant enjoyment with minor variability in their responses
I feel that I have gained new knowledge	9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0 n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 0 n - 6 = 5 n - 7 = 9 n - 8 = 9 n - 9 = 20	Participants showed significant belief with moderate variability in their responses.
The session lasted a good length of time	9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0	Participants showed significant belief with minor

		n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 0 n - 6 = 0 n - 7 = 0 n - 8 = 6 n - 9 = 37	variability in their responses
The delivery of the session was appropriate	9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0 n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 2 n - 6 = 1 n - 7 = 7 n - 8 = 12 n - 9 = 23	Participants showed significant belief with moderate variability in their responses
Those running the session were knowledgably	9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0 n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 0 n - 6 = 2 n - 7 = 7 n - 8= 14 n - 9 = 20	Participants showed significant belief with moderate variability in their responses
The training covered everything	9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0 n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 0 n - 6 = 0 n - 7 = 3 n - 8 = 13 n - 9 = 27	Participants showed significant belief with minor variability in their responses

Training raised my confidence	9	n - 1 = 0 n - 2 = 0 n - 3 = 0 n - 4 = 0 n - 5 = 0 n - 6 = 0 n - 7 = 3 n - 8 = 13 n - 9 = 27	Participants showed signification belief with minor variability in their responses.

NB: 1 significant no belief at all and 9 signifies complete belief.

For all areas, the participants rated highly, reflecting positively on the training course, importantly, in many areas the sample rated the maximum nine. This shows a strong support of the training session from the participants.

Whilst the evaluation of the training was a smaller aim compared to understanding the knowledge the participants had gained, the data highlights how the participants have enjoyed the training session, which helps support the influential nature of the training, as reflected in many of the stage two commentary.

4.1.4. Conclusion of Stages One and Two

In finalising the analysis of stage one and two, the findings in all areas discussed how the training had a positive influence on the police officers' understanding of human trafficking. Though in some areas this influence was minimal, this often was due to pre-existing strong understanding, rather than a reflection on a weak training session. The confusion around human trafficking and human smuggling continued to exist, though did decrease after the training session and so remains a key topic for further research. Equally, the data surrounding the officers' initial actions discovered that despite being able to quote the training course well, their answers lacked detail, which raises questions on their understanding. However, this was not supported by the participants themselves who noted a significant increase in their confidence to deal with a human trafficking incident after the training session. The participants leave stage two with high levels of understanding of human trafficking.

4.2. Stage Three Results

In order to achieve core aim three, all participants who took part in stages one and two were invited to take part in stage three. Due to circumstances such as the COVID-19 pandemic and an increased volume of work for all emergency workers, only nine individuals consented to take part, so the decision was made to focus on a short-answer qualitative based questionnaire to help understand retention rates.

4.2.1. Definitions

From both current literature and stages one and two of this study, the participant's ability to correctly define human trafficking was seen as a fundamental part to their understanding. In stage one the majority of definitions missed at least two core elements of human trafficking, however this was improved after the training session, with stage two's data showing how the majority of participants were able to accurately define human trafficking. In stage three, no participant mentioned all the required elements, and many of their definitions mirror those from stage one.

For example, one participant included two elements, by defining trafficking as "*the movement of people for the benefit of others"* (Participant 7), which includes movement and benefit but not exploitation, whilst another participant did include exploitation but excluded transportation – "*the exploitation of vulnerable persons done for a means"* (Participant 12). The second definition, does however reflect similar to Kent Police's definition of modern slavery rather than the Palermo Protocol's, so arguably fits well within the knowledge required of a Kent Police officer. As a collective group all elements of human trafficking are mentioned across multiple definitions, however there appears to be a difficulty in each individual remembering all the elements.

This becomes especially significant as three out of the nine definitions resort back to defining human smuggling than human trafficking, with the main cause being the lack of exploitation in their definitions:

"The moving of people both internationally and nationally with or without their consent" (Participant 32)

"The transportation of people from one location to another" (Participant 34)

"Organised crime groups that deal with the illegal transportation of a person" (Participant 40)

The concern of trafficking versus smuggling was still found in the stage two results, though a general decrease in mixing the two together was noted when participants included exploitation and force within their definitions. However, the stage three data is highlighting that the percentage of participants who are still unclear on the differences may have been higher than originally anticipated after stage two, as 33% (n=3/9) participants in stage three incorrectly defined human trafficking as human smuggling.

Moreover, comparable with the stage two answers, some of the participants' stage three definition debates with the idea of consent, especially seen above in participant 32. It is possible that by including, *"with or without consent"* to their definition, the participant is trying to convey the understanding that human trafficking victims may display consent and therefore officers should be aware of this, which takes a different approach to previous analysis of consent within the participant's definitions. It implies that the participant is fully aware of the complexity of consent within a victim of human trafficking. However, by not including the other elements of trafficking, such as exploitation, the participant's definition better resembles definitions of smuggling, even if this was not the intention. It is impossible to say whether these officers would overlook or misclassify a victim of trafficking based solely on their definitions, however, the results do highlight the continued struggle of police officers to understand the different elements of trafficking and continues to show how many incorrectly define human trafficking as human smuggling.

Despite, some participants missing exploitation from their definitions, a few did include a list of the different forms of exploitations within human trafficking, a theme that was noted in stage one but disappeared in stage two. It should be noted that a complete return to naming just sexual exploitation has not occurred, however sexual exploitation does appear in every list,

"Moving humans around for a purpose – labour, sexual" (Participant 31)

"Illegally transporting people from one country or area to another for the purpose of forced labour or of sexual exploitation." (Participant 30)

It could be argued that the stage two answers better reflected the wider understanding of exploitation, compared to these stage three definitions which limit human trafficking within sexual and labour exploitation. Originally, a concern that participants maybe forgetting different forms of exploitation was raised in stage two, but whilst stage three does shows that participants are still aware, their knowledge has become limited to the two forms most commonly found in literature and the media (Austin, 2016). Within Kent Police, drug trafficking remains the most critical (Kent Police, 2020), yet is missing from the participants definitions. Stage three has seen a significant dip in knowledge from some participants defining human smuggling and others limiting their knowledge to stereotypical examples. This has meant that areas, such as organ removal, domestic servitude and forced marriage are excluded even further.

The literature review highlights how often the police focus on sexual exploitation. This was seen in the participants of this study in stage one, but was completely removed in stage two; and whilst a slight focus on only some exploitations has appeared in stage three – including sexual exploitation – a complete focus only on the sex industry is not apparent. The participants show awareness of other forms of exploitation outside of sexual exploitation, even six months after the training session, highlighting the positive and long-term impact of the training course on improving this area.

4.2.2. Indicators

Whilst the definitions of stage three continue to raise concern of officers' understanding of human trafficking, the participants in this study have never struggled to identify indicators of trafficking victims, even aligning closely with previous studies. The training did have minimal impact in teaching the participants about indicators but did confirm their pre-existing understanding. This understanding has continued into stage three where indicators remain similar to the previous stages. Some answers of stage three include:

"Reserved, not speaking the language of the country they are in" (Participant 34)

"Bad clothing, avoiding eye contact, not engaging in conversation" (Participant 29)

Interestingly, the nine participants also listed answers that have not been previously seen within any stage of this study before. Such as, *"living in shared, minimally equipped housing and a third party making decisions on their behalf"* (Participant 12). These indicators are mentioned during the training course, however they did not appear in stage two. It is possible that over time different indicators may be remembered, or perhaps become more important to the officers in their duty away from a training environment. Participants have found that certain indicators they previously did not think important to include, were now essential to highlight six months later. When analysing what indicators the participants mention in stage three, examples such as *"bad clothing"* still exists from the previous stages, but *"living in shared, minimally equipped housing"* is new, but arguably more definable to human trafficking only. The stage three indicators continue to show a strong understanding by the participants, in fact their knowledge on identifying very specific human trafficking indicators may be growing. If the stage three sample had been slightly bigger, this may have become more apparent, though already this can be argued.

On the other hand, there are some new areas of concern in relation to indictors; two of the participants had conflicting answers which is not something that has previously occurred in stages one or two. One participant stated that victims were likely to have "*bank accounts under different names"* (Participant 7), whilst another mentioned that victims "*do not have a bank account*" (Participant 32). During the training course, participants were advised that offenders often open multiple bank accounts using the victim's name in order to process money, however the participants have understood this differently which has produced two conflicting ideas. There were no other conflicts amongst the participant's answers, however five of the nine participants mentioned that the victim would be foreign or at least "*not speak the native language of the country they are in"* (Participant 17). This does ignore the growing trend of county drug trafficking being experienced in Kent Police (Kent Police, 2020), where British nationals are used to traffic drugs across the UK. This continues to create a barrier to what the officers may identify as human trafficking and the reality of what human trafficking victims may look like. The two examples of conflicting answers do stress the importance of a clear

understanding of the indicators of human trafficking, and most importantly which ones are vital for officers in their areas of work.

4.2.3. The ideal victim and the ideal offender

In stage one there was a large emphasis from the participant's answers that women and children were most likely to become a victim of human trafficking, which was dispelled after the training session as seen in the stage two data, this understanding remains into stage three, with almost every answer stated that *"anyone"* (Participant 7), could become a victim of human trafficking. Much like stage two, the stage three answers show a lack of any preconceived ideas of who may be a victim of human trafficking and therefore decreases the chances of participants missing victims. The stereotypical victim was discouraged during the training session and has remained with the participants, even after a period of time has passed since the training.

To understand more into human trafficking stereotypes the participants were asked in stage three to provide examples of indicators that suspects of human trafficking may display. The answers to this question were all very similar amongst the nine participants, which words such as, *"dominant"* (Participant 34), and "*male"* (Participant 7), appearing often. The answers arguably portray a stereotypical image of what a suspect may look like, though evidence on offender indicators is minimal in comparison to victim indicators. Whilst there is a lack of data on suspects in trafficking, it is likely, that like victims, they do not all fit into one category of person. For example, Douglass, D'Auganno and Jones (2020) explore female offenders of sexual assault, most commonly believed to be a male offender only crime. Equally almost all participants answered that offenders would look like *"alphas"* (Participant 7). The term alpha was used during the training session and is used within other UK police forces as a specific term to define an offender of human trafficking. Debatably, the word it not appropriate as an indicator, as the meaning of what an alpha looks like can be taken differently. Therefore, understanding of offender indicators is almost non-existent.

What stage three has highlighted for the understanding of indicators is that, victim identification remains strong outside after the training environment but suspect identification is non-existent. The influence of the training session in altering the participants understanding on victims, leads to the strong belief that if more focus on suspect identification was given, a similar shift would likely occur.

4.2.4. Barriers to reporting

Previous understanding of barriers to reporting exhibited in stages one and two showed good levels of knowledge, though arguably the barriers in human trafficking are similar to barriers of other types of crime. A period of time after the training session has seemingly not affected the nine participant's understanding of this topic. In fact, many of the answers were arguably better than stage two, perhaps indicating the influence of experience doing their duties post training course. In early stages, participants would give only one or two word answers, whereas in stage three, answers were lengthy and gave depth. For example, one participant wrote:

"Barriers include: that the victim will not be believed, that no action will be taken against their offenders and that they will be harmed because of it, that by reporting it the other victims may be harmed, and that they may have committed crimes whilst being exploited and are worried they will be prosecuted for those crimes". (Participant 31)

Equally, this answer focuses on human trafficking barriers as exploitation is mentioned, something that was beginning to appear in stage two. This continues to highlight the importance of including exploitation in definitions and learning about all types of exploitations, as it links within all aspects of human trafficking. Another interesting answer from one participant was:

"Don't have access to a phone, been told not to trust the police, the police in their home country aren't like here and aren't supportive, they don't know that the situation they are in is abnormal". (Participant 32)

The last section of the victim not knowing that *"the situation they are in is abnormal",* links back to the idea of consent – this is most noticeable in situations of debt bondage (Chaung, 2017). By showing that they understand that victim consent is complex, provides confidence that the officers would be able to investigate and identify human trafficking cases, especially in situations that may have been previously overlooked. Equally, another new concept

mentioned by this participant, is that the police *"in their home country… aren't supportive".* This discussion highlights how the participant understandings the different cultures victims may be coming from and how this may affect their experience of the police and their willingness to engage. As this was not seen in either stage one or stage two results, it is likely that this understanding has developed during the participants duties after the training has taken place. The questionnaire did not ask the participant whether they have dealt with a case of trafficking since the training, but the maintained level of confidence in their ability to identify and deal with a case shows a continued strong understanding of human trafficking within the participants, which mostly likely has come around from experience in their work. Whilst the findings in stages two were correct, in comparison to stage three now appear limited in evidence of deeper understanding on the indicators of human trafficking. In stage three, all participants were able to list multiple different examples of barriers and the repercussions of not reporting, it is therefore possible to conclude that the training only provided a starting point for participants to understand indicators, which has continued to expand with experience.

Finally, the nine participants were asked what their initial actions would be if they identified a case of potential human trafficking. In stage one many answers requested assistance from higher ranking officers as their low confidence levels meant they did not feel ready to deal with a trafficking case, however this shifted in stage two which saw a large increase in confidence and knowledge. However, in stage three the results are more mixed. Some participants reflect similar views from stage two, perhaps even more improved, for example:

"Separate from offender, show empathy, get interpreter, try to get as much information as you can get, create safe place". (Participant 29)

Participant 29's answers has similar findings from stage two with "*try to get as much information as you can get",* reflecting back to many other participants answers. But this answer also provides more detail, such as *"separate from offender"* and "*get interpreter",* which was lacking from stage two. These more solid points of action arguably reflect on experience the officers now have which has only improved their knowledge after the training session. On the other hand, other participant's answers were not as detailed such as:

"Take an initial account" (Participant 7)

"Safeguard the victim" (Participant 17)

Both of these answers contain correct actions, as per the training course, but are only small steps in the advice they were given and are not detailed actions on how the officer would go about taking "*an initial account".* As the stage two results were majority better, it is likely that these results have been due to the interval away from the training session which may have resulted in memory loss of what was taught. However, more concerning is the fact that other participants answered:

"Don't know" (Participant 32)

"Call the police" (Participant 40)

A direct reflection on similar answers provided in stage one. These participants were not one of the participants who answered this way in stage one, which represents a worrying sign of digression in their understanding of their role. Equally, their self-rated confidence levels in their ability to deal with a case of trafficking had decreased significantly in stage three. Table M shows the difference between Participant 32 and 40 throughout all three stages.

Table M the self-reported rates of confidence of two participants across three stages.

Confidence Levels	Stage One	Stage Two	Stage Three
Participant 32	1	8	4
Participant 40	4	6	1

Much like the rest of the sample, these two participants increased in confidence shortly after the training session. But in stage three, their confidence ratings have decreased alongside their understanding, and arguably this can be put down to the interval away from the training environment. There may be other factors contributing to their lack of confidence in their ability, as it is highly likely that the participants realise they have forgotten the content.

As the results regarding their initial actions differ between the nine participants it may have been possible to learn why. However, the design of the study only allows speculation at this point. A future learning would be to ask questions on the experiences the participants had faced after the training session, specifically if they had dealt with a human trafficking incident, as this may have provided some insight into the different quality of answers. There are a couple of participants which highlight the link between confidence levels and knowledge, however this does not explain the sudden memory loss after six months away from the training. Ways to improve memory and sustain confidence over periods of time need to be considered further so as to improve the training for all.

4.2.5. Training

The focus on stage three was to highlight the retention of knowledge, with stage two holding the larger evaluation piece, however as a final quantitative question for stage three, the participants were asked whether they would agree to take part in another training module on human trafficking if the opportunity arose.

78% (n=7/9) answered "yes" they would attend another training, implying a further want for more knowledge and understanding from the majority. This further training should not just focus on recapping information but also look to improving the officers' long-term memory as the stage three data highlighted how forgetfulness had overcome many officers' previous strong understanding. If a focus on improving long-term memory could be implemented into the initial training session, another full length training period may not be required and officers would be able to retain information after the training sessions for longer.

In some areas, such as definitions and initial actions, further training would be supported, however there are many elements of human trafficking where the training provided by Kent police has been sufficient. In core areas such as barriers and victim identification there has been significant improvement after the training session that has been retained, and even improved, over a period of time. In this areas the impact of the training appears to be long-lasting with the nine participants still displaying ideas and concepts learnt from the training session. Areas of improvement are clear from the stage three results and can be tackled with recap-style training sessions or improved focus on retention in the initial training session. This will be discussed further now in the discussion chapter.

5. Discussion

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of training on police officers' knowledge on human trafficking. When training is explored understanding into areas of struggle for law enforcement become more apparent, and this enables future training courses to become more attentive and further research to be more focused in areas where knowledge needs expanding.

This study has three core aims all created to help explore the impact of the training. Core aim two looked to analyse the immediate before and after effect of the training. The data discovered the strong impact a training session can have in teaching participants about human trafficking. However, core aim three wanted to explore the impact further. To do this stage three was added into the study to examine the participant's knowledge six months after the training session had passed. The purpose of this aim was to look into the long-term impact of the training course and whether knowledge was retained. Significant findings were discovered under this aim which saw understanding limit down to the participant's pre training knowledge and conflicting answers creating confusion.

The importance of the final core aims evaluation into the training became more apparent after stage three's data was analysed. Whilst initially included in the study to provide external evaluation to the training for Kent Police, there are key findings from stage three that highlight a need for changes to the training. Whilst it is evident that participants enjoyed the course greatly, memory loss and confusion was substantial in stage three. The evaluation of the training showed a need to focus, not on the information being provided, but ways in which this information can be retained once the training has finished.

This discussion chapter covers the three core areas from the data that need further analysis. Discussions on the debate between human trafficking and human smuggling need to continue, with a deeper examination on the topic of victim consent, as when understanding is improved in this area, officers will be able to detect and prevent human trafficking easier and earlier. In regards to identification, the data shows that participants understand indicators well. However, stage three saw some conflicting answers. Therefore, consideration will be given to whether a standardised list of indicators would assist officers after the training. Finally, this chapter will recommend ways the training course can change to improve long term memory and allow participants to draw from their training into their work place.

5.1. Definitions

5.1.1. Human Trafficking versus Human Smuggling

During the literature review it was understood that human trafficking had two distinct differences from human smuggling. The first being that consent was only found within smuggling (Srikantiah, 2007) and the second being that exploitation was only found within trafficking (Pecoud and Nieuwenhuys, 2007).

Initially, the participants' results from stage one saw no mention of consent, however this changed after the training, with many officers now including consent within their definitions. Even so, participants often included a caveat that consent could be forced, with victims often seeing trafficking as *"the only way out"* of their situations. (Participant 34), and escaping circumstances such as war or poverty that left victims feeling they had no other choice. This was further supported by the 29% increase after the training in the sample's belief that victims are forced due to circumstances they cannot control. Other academics have also discussed what consent means for trafficking victims. Doezema (2002) for example, debates whether consent can even be classified as consent if it is forced and Kleemans (2011) explores how the relationship between the offender and the victim means consent can be given through means of coercion, deception or manipulation, and the fact that victims of trafficking may provide consent is often difficult for officers to believe when they lack understanding of this relationship.

During the training consent is raised, however understanding is only reflected in five participant's definitions. Equally, when asked if they believe victims may play a role in causing their situation the majority of the sample remain unsure.

One significant piece of research that describes the complexity of consent well is Jones (2012), whose research into whether consent should matter when identifying trafficking, should be implemented into the training session. Jones (2012) argues that officers automatically place a level of blame onto victims and this classifies them either as an illegal immigrant or a trafficking victim. However, Jones (2012, p 4) believes these classifications should be broken down further into five distinct categories:

1) Those who are forced against their freedom
2) Those who agree to be smuggled
3) Those that agree to be smuggled but then face unexpected situations
4) Those that agree to be exploited as payment for being smuggled
5) Those that agree to be exploited because it is their only alternative

Officers' belief that individuals either fall into category one or two ignores the complexity of consent within trafficking and often results in misclassification of victims. This may cause trafficking victims to be seen as illegal immigrants, but also may result in keen officers identifying trafficking when there is no evidence present (Jones, 2012).

What Jones' (2012) research does well is highlight how the consent level of the individual does not determine their victimisation. All categories require assistance, and their work also supports the UK's trafficking laws which state that consent is irrelevant to identify a case, therefore this could be used within the training from a legal standpoint.

Should Kent Police intertwine Jones' (2012) five categories of consent into their training participants would develop a wider knowledge on different levels of consent, and this may decrease the likelihood of misclassification. The strong positives behind Jones' (2012) study is that it focuses on the exploitation of the victim. Many older studies have only focused on the transportation element of trafficking, and some participants in this study also do so. Participants that focus on transportation always defined human smuggling compared to those that focused on exploitation who better described human trafficking. Arguably, the focus on transportation does not help separate trafficking from smuggling, as this element occurs in both. To understand why participants are so invested in the transport side of trafficking, Hoyle, Bosworth and Dempsey (2011) explain that the medias portrayal of trafficking has focused heavily on the illegal entry of smugglers, with political agendas fuelling negative reactions towards smuggling, whilst campaigns also advertise the need to focus on trafficking in the same narrative (Lee, 2010). This has blurred the lines between trafficking and smuggling and has resulted in continued confusion between the differences – this is clearly seen in the participant's stage one answers.

As the data shows how adding exploitation into a definition helps define it closer to human trafficking, the requirement of the training to focus on exploitation over transport is evident. This becomes even more important for Kent Police as drug trafficking within county borders

continues to increase in their area (Kent Police, 2020). This type of exploitation which forces individuals, often children to carry drugs, does not travel across land borders but occurs within one country (Ward, 2011). This does not fit into the media's portrayal of individuals arriving illegally at borders (Lee, 2010). Therefore, in order to identify trafficking, participants need to focus on the exploitation occurring rather than the distance travelled.

If Kent Police's training focused on the different types of consent and utilised Jones' (2012) five categories to do so, participants may move away from wanting to define human smuggling. This would put more confidence in their ability to identify human trafficking correctly and decrease the number of misclassified victims of trafficking.

On the other hand, there are other points of view that should be considered. Whilst there are many discussions on the differences between human trafficking and human smuggling, and this study has focused on the requirement to divide the two, for some the split is not as clearly defined. Many authors discuss trafficking and smuggling alongside each other as similar crimes. There is no argument against the importance of also understanding the suffering faced by those who choose to be smuggled, and research has shown that often the reasons for consenting to be smuggled are similar to the reasons provided by identified victims of trafficking on why they agreed to be transported (Elliot, 2014). Much like literature on human trafficking, and by the participants in this study, Bhabha (2005) questions how true consent is within smuggling. Like trafficking victims, those being smuggled are trying to escape a circumstance they cannot control, but unlike trafficking victims, they do not continue into exploitation upon arrival (Bhabha, 2005). This should not, however, diminish any exploitation they may have suffered already.

The negative connections attached to those that arrival illegally to the UK have influenced police officers, often persuaded by the public, to criminalise those who they locate (Sanchez, 2014). However, more recent studies continue to draw human smuggling and human trafficking closer together, with the argument that the reasoning behind and the exploitation suffered by the two crimes are more similar than previously believed. Whilst Bhabha (2005) is now an older study, more recent ones such as Stoyanova (2020) continue to show the union academics are taking when discussing smuggling and trafficking. This study argues that the focus on travelling, as seen within the participant's stage one definitions, only continues to highlight the criminal narrative of those arriving at the borders. But the shift towards a focus on exploitation, as seen by the data in stage two, better reflects the suffering faced by both refugees and human

trafficking victims. Furthermore, literature continues to show us that many individuals who have been criminalised for smuggling have actually been victims of human trafficking (Farrell, McDevitt and Fahy, 2010; Newton, Mulcahy and Martin, 2008), therefore if all criminal stigma was removed, it is possible that any unidentified trafficking victims would also be treated as a victim straight away. By providing assistance to all, it is possible that more individuals who were destined to be exploited under trafficking would be revealed.

Whilst a greater focus on consent has been encouraged for Kent Police's training in order to assist officers in defining human trafficking better, the larger picture of understanding the suffering faced by anyone who travels into the UK illegally may increase the detection rates of human trafficking victims.

5.1.2. Different forms of exploitation

Another key highlight from the findings was the removal of the focus from sexual exploitation. Immediately after the training the officers preferred to not mention any form of exploitation directly in their definitions. Importantly, participants were still able to provide examples of different forms of exploitation when asked later, as seen in Table D, where participants provided more accurate examples of exploitation than they had prior to the training course.

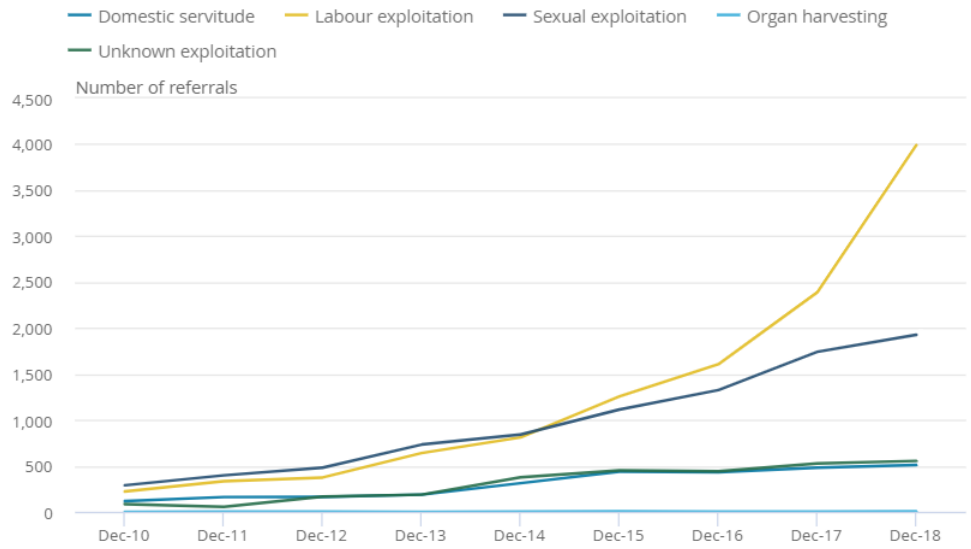
Interestingly, the training does not cover county drug trafficking in any detail despite it being a growing trend within Kent (Kent Police, 2020), however participants were still able to identify it as human trafficking. This finding is very similar to Renzetti *et al's* (2015) study which saw how after a training course, their officers were more aware of existing cases of trafficking. Debatably, the overall purpose of the training is not to teach officers about every type of exploitation, but allow them to gain the skills to identify cases. Thereby, by highlighting forms of exploitation within Kent that they now recognise without having direct mention to it, shows how Kent Police's training has provided the officers with the knowledge to identify human trafficking.

Moreover, whilst interest in human trafficking began in discussions around prostitution and sexual exploitation, academic literature has since moved on to discuss other forms of exploitation as well. There is now a considerable amount of study devoted to labour exploitation, such as Davies' (2019) focus on labour in the UK food industry and whilst organ removal is not commonly found within the UK, there are many non-UK based studies that

discuss this (Budiani-Seberi *et al*, 2014; Gawronska, Claes and Van Assche, 2020). Arguably, the participants, by not filtering down to any form of exploitation in their definitions, but still being aware of the different forms possible, outreach the current understanding explored in literature. Whilst Table D in stage two, does show that participants are still more aware of sexual and labour exploitation than other types, this should not minimise their increased knowledge of other forms. However, it should be noted that some of the other less common forms of exploitation, such as domestic servitude still remain under-researched and did not receive as much attention from the participants. Whilst there are some Kent specific documents, such as the Kent County Council's (2018) focus on adults at risk of exploitation that do mention domestic servitude, it is never the main focus of the article and other forms of exploitation continue to receive higher attention.

To counter act this argument, there are significant trends in the UK which support the greater focus on the likes of sexual or labour exploitation. Stripe (2020) published the following table representing the number of identified human trafficking victims in the UK between 2010 and 2018.

Number of referrals to the National Referral Mechanism by exploitation type, UK, year ending December 2010 to year ending December 2018



Their findings show that labour exploitation is the highest identified form of exploitation in the UK, with 2,398 victims identified. Other figures show 1,741 sexual exploitation cases, with 481 victims related to domestic servitude, three related to organ harvesting and 526 connected

to other forms of exploitation, such as forced marriage. Arguably, the officers' level of understanding after the training course parallels the current trends in the UK, with their weaker focus on domestic servitude reflecting the slow growth of it within the UK. The officers do however display knowledge on being able to recognise other forms of exploitation, such as county drug trafficking which is not mentioned by the Office of National Statistics at all. The consequences of being aware of all forms of exploitation, but still understanding the current trends in the UK and Kent is likely to increase the number of victims identified (Clawson, Dutch and Cummings, 2006). For example, whilst the officers may find labour exploitation more common in their area, their understanding of drug trafficking raises the confidence in their ability to identify a case should they eventually come across one. The idea that focusing on exploitation as a whole, with no narrow mind-sets, would increase the likelihood of identifying victims once again support the shift of focus away from transportation onto exploitation as the key indicator of detecting human trafficking.

In conclusion of the discussion on definitions, for those that agree that human trafficking and human smuggling should be viewed differently, would recognise the officers' improved ability to do this after the training course. Their definitions that focus on exploitation instead of transportation support previous academic findings that show the importance of this (Srikantiah, 2007). However, more recent trends in academic writings show that smuggling and trafficking are more similar that previously believed and the focus on exploitation should be on the suffering faced both by those who choose to consent and those that do not. If all individuals were treated as victims the likelihood of identifying a potential case of human trafficking before the exploitation occurs may increase. Equally, the participant's shift away from focusing on sexual exploitation, arguably expands their knowledge to be able to identify any type of human trafficking victim. The training has provided the police officers the skills to be able to define human trafficking and has decreased preconceived beliefs, this is in order to expand their understanding of exploitation which would led to an increased chance of identifying more human trafficking victims. Their improved understanding of county drug trafficking, despite not being mentioned in the training course, highlights this.

5.2. Indicators

After the training course the participants have a better understanding of what constitutes as human trafficking and similarly their understanding of indicators was strengthened by the

training, though it should be noted their knowledge was strong prior. The indicators provided in this study by the officers throughout all three stages are very similar to previous studies as well. The continuous mention of certain indicators starts to encourage the possibility of a list being generated that could be used by law enforcement to assist them in identifying a case of trafficking. In addition, the results of stage three question whether certain indicators were more noticeably linked to human trafficking than others. This part of the discussions will consider whether an official list of indicators for officers to use when investigating trafficking could improve identification.

5.2.1. Form of Indicators

Lacsko and Gramegna's (2003) study is one of the earliest pieces of research into indicators of human trafficking. Their research has often been replicated with similar results produced, with this study continuing to support their findings. For example, no official documentation, being scared and not knowing the native language are a couple of examples of indicators that continue to appear across multiple studies.

The idea of creating an official list is copied from the risk assessment form used by British police forces to understand if domestic abuse is present. Referred to as the DASH, it is a standardised risk assessment in the style of a questionnaire which asks victims about their situation in order to equate this to a risk level (Turner, Medina and Brown, 2019). Officers would then take the appropriate action depending on the risk identified. Ariza, Robinson and Myhill (2016) explain that the risk assessment was introduced in order to increase detection rates and improve the quality of support victims would receive once a specialised assessment was completed. The report was also introduced to help with the increasing resources spent on domestic abuse cases. Whilst human trafficking may not be as prevalent in an officer's duty as domestic abuse, the ability to detect and provide assistance is similar.

Arguably, this type of form for human trafficking could prevent misclassification of victims as it would alert officers to the possibility of trafficking being present. Equally, a standardised form may be a solution to help the memory loss clearly seen by the officers in stage three of this study. Likewise, stage three also saw two participants understanding an indicator differently, which may be prevented if a form details the information.

On the other hand, research into the use of the DASH form do not covey positive findings of its use which may affect the success rate if such a form was used for trafficking. Robinson *et al* (2016) observed that officers interpret the form differently, resulting in different levels of risk identified for the same case. This research highlights the possibility that similar concerns would happen within human trafficking investigations. Further, Robinson *et al* (2016) continue to criticise, highlighting that the form does not help officers understand what coercive behaviour means within domestic abuse. Considering that coercive behaviour also exists within human trafficking, it is possible that a trafficking assessment form would also fall short here. On the other hand, Robinson *et al* (2019) continue to point out that officers focus too much attention on the physical nature of domestic abuse and how this alters the risk finding. A previously mentioned study by Dando, Walsh and Bierley (2016) becomes relevant again as they also found that individuals expect victims of trafficking to be presenting physical injuries in order for them to be classified. However, the use of training to overcome these concerns should not be dismissed as a possible solution to solving these issues within a human trafficking context.

This is because the concerns of Robinson *et al* (2016) on the domestic abuse risk assessment are very similar to previous issues raised around human trafficking. Arguably, the training provided by Kent Police can overcome these issues, as seen within the data of this study and with some improvements they may not be present at all should officers use such a form for human trafficking. Importantly, Robinson *et al's* (2016) recommendations also focused on improving training, with similar recommendations that this study has for Kent Police on their human trafficking training, therefore their criticisms of the DASH form may not be relevant for a potential human trafficking risk assessment should recommendations for improving the human trafficking training be taken into account.

Whilst the negative reviews of the DASH form is troubling for the potential success of a form to identify human trafficking, training is continuously highlighted as a system for improvement. Interestingly, Robinson *et al's* (2016) research was completed on behalf of the College of Policing who encourage the use of the 'what works' model, therefore once Kent Police's training has focused on improving the recommendations, the best way to know if a human trafficking risk assessment form could work is by installing in into practice and conducting a similar piece of research as Robinson *et al* (2016) to evaluate.

However, there may be certain elements of the form that could be considered before its creation in order to prevent concerns. For example, stage three saw the possibility that certain indicators are more likely to represent a presence of trafficking than others. An individual living in a mutli-occupancy house with minimal equipment appeared in a couple of participant's indicators, and which arguably raise more suspicion for a case of human trafficking than indicators such as the victim being shy or nervous, which may be interpreted differently. To assist, Hemmings *et al* (2016) conducted research into health care nurses ability's to identify and respond to human trafficking victims. Their results showed that when nurses did suspect trafficking, they were often hesitant to raise their concern due to embarrassment if they got it wrong. This led to Hemmings *et al* (2016) recommending that future research focus on producing empirical evidence in order to create a standard list of human trafficking indicators. Whilst their study focused on health care, their work can directly translate to the needs of police officers as well.

There have been in the past considerations of a standard list of indicators however the idea is often dismissed. Lacsko and Gramegna (2003) argue that the reliability of the data used to create such a list would affect its potential. Whilst there is no capacity to accurately record trafficking victims, biases such as gender or age would be inaccurately represented based on officers' preconceived notions on who to identify as a victim (Berk *et al,* 2018). But despite their arguments, this study has shown the influencing nature training can have on removing these beliefs. To support Renzetti *et al's* (2015) study which also saw officers undertake training, produced similar results of the successful removal of biases. However, criticisms of a standard list do consider other important aspects. For example, Walklate (2018) argues how the 'one size fits all' approach would not work within human trafficking as victims so often display different indicators from each other, this was a similar concern raised by Robinson *et al* (2016) in their evaluation of the DASH form. However, with the continued understanding of the range of victims possible, such a list could consider all aspects. As an example, participants in this study understand that "*males"* and "*British nationals"* have an equal chance of becoming a victim than the more stereotyped foreign female.

But, this raises questions about how many indicators would need to be considered on the list in order to include any possible victim. Arguably, this would not need to be the case. To illustrate, current literature highlights that gender is not important when considering if an individual is a victim of human trafficking (Srikantiah, 2007) therefore the form would not need to take this into account. Rather, it would need to consider common examples of trafficking indicators,

such as the individual's living conditions, relationship with other members of the household and the knowledge of the area they are in.

There are strong arguments against a standard list of indicators to identify human trafficking victims. However, there appears to be a continuous cycle of not wanting to implement a potential solution in case previous biases prevent others being identified. Whilst, concerns such as these are important to consider, much trafficking literature is now coming to being 20 years old, when first published in the direct aftermath of the Palermo Protocol. Since the Protocol there have been vast studies on all aspects of human trafficking which look to expanding understanding further. For example, it is possible that the concept of a hidden nature is now preventing being used as an excuse for the lack of victim identification. In this study the participant's ability to identify trafficking cases without direct mention of it during a training session shows that trafficking being hidden as a concept is starting to weaken, victims are no longer hidden, and training can help officers identify them. Equally, the immediate impact of the training cemented the participant's strong understanding of indicators, however the confusion seen in stage three, highlights the need for further support once training has finished. One such solution may exist in a standardised form of indicators, though arguments raised by other academics must be considered when implementing and using the form in order to prevent similar concerns rising during its use.

5.3. Training

The evaluation of the training completed during stage two showed a positive reflection of the participant experience. Equally, the comparison data from stage one to two showed significant growth in knowledge in almost every area. However, stage three saw many of the participant's forget key elements they had learnt from the session, including common mistakes appearing again such as excluding exploitation from their definitions and confusing indicators together. However, stage three's conclusion discovered that the training lacked resources to ensure memory retention, rather than the information being inaccurate. Therefore, the final discussion point looks towards educational theories in order to provide recommendations to Kent Polices to help improve the memory retention of their officers.

Much of the research for education is dated, so caution should be taken to the relevance of the work today, however more recent discussions have evaluated the theories to ensure they remain up to date and relevant despite originally being published earlier.

5.3.1. Case Studies

One key discussion within education is the transfer of knowledge from classroom to working environment. Wexley and Latham (1981) state that positive transfer means participants will be able to effectively apply what they have been taught in the classroom to their duties. Whilst, stage two initially showed a positive application, stage three highlighted that the transfer was short lived.

Barnard *et al* (2001) therefore recommend that case studies should be provided in the training course that are similar to the situations participants may find themselves in. In regards to human trafficking, this may help participants identify more victims if they recognise similar situations to cases they learnt about during their training. The more closely each case relates to Kent Police, the more likely the participant will be able to recall the information (Barnard *et al,* 2001).

Aside from Barnard *et al's* (2001) case study approach, one of the first studies into memory retention was completed by Ebbinghaus in 1885. Their now phrased 'Ebbinghaus forgetting curve' still remains a central theory when wanting to understand retention rates. The theory states that forgetfulness will occur quickly after training, with 100% of the information being retained at the time of the training session, but which would rapidly decrease to approximately 40% retention. After this initial drop, decrease in memory would slow down and the participants would be unlikely to forget further (Shrestha, 2017). The significant drop is seen within stage three, however this study was not completed over a long enough period of time to see whether further memory loss would continue.

What the forgetting curve theory does not consider was the strength of the participant's knowledge ahead of the training course. For example, in this study participants remember barriers to reporting well even in stage three, but they were strong in this area prior to the training, whereas, the new information such as the initial actions to take suffer significantly afterwards. It is possible that the slowing down of memory loss after the initial drop is the participants resorting back to their stage one knowledge rate, which is the information they

knew prior to the training. Arguably, this may have already happened for some participants in stage three as their answers reflect similarly to those in stage one.

Ebbinghaus (1885) but also more recent studies such as Shrestha (2017) point to one solution to prevent the forgetting curve. This is repetition of the training material and it is deemed vital in order to prevent the early-set memory loss. Shrestha (2017) states that shorter training courses would assist officers in remembering the information provided to them in the longer training course, without forcing them to complete the same training again.

Another recent study to further support these claims completed by Swart and Venter (2018) measured the memory retention of school children when they were given online training to complete after the main training course. Their results saw on average the final grade of the students increase by 79%, compared to previous years where no repetition was done. To support police resources, but to also ensure memory retention is strong, Kent Police should consider including human trafficking within an online course that covers the key elements of the training again. This should however, happen regularly and frequently after the training (Shrestha, 2017). This is also important as the human trafficking training provided to the Kent Police officers do not appear in any formal assessment during the training period, so the participants are not required to recall the information at any point. As seen in the research by Swart and Venter (2018) and encouraged by Shrestha (2017), the argument for more frequent, but less formal training such as in an online setting, would greatly prevent the memory loss seen in stage three of this study.

Overall, including Kent specific case studies into the training is likely to increase memory retention as officers can flashback to examples when dealing with cases in their duty. Equally, Kent Police should also consider including human trafficking as part of an online training module, which should be completed by officers after their main training course. This is specifically important for human trafficking as the likelihood of participants encountering a case of trafficking is lower than other crimes and as such memory loss is most at risk for this topic.

6. Conclusion

This study wanted to explore the impact of human trafficking training on police officers' knowledge. Due to access and the importance of their geographical location Kent Police was chosen as the case study to enable this research. It is believed that all three core aims were achieved. Core aim two wanted to explore the immediate effects of the training before and after. This highlighted areas of improvement which can be directly related to the training, but also highlighted further areas of development. Core aim one also showed positive evaluation of the training from the police officers. Finally, memory retention observed for core aim three, showed that memory loss was suffered by almost all participants who took part in stage three, with knowledge on many of the key areas resorting back to their pre-training levels. With the data and discussion produced, this study now have five recommendations for Kent Police.

6.1. Recommendations

Implement Jones' (2012) categories of consent

Jones' (2012) study into the different categories of consent accurately describe each scenario officers may face when dealing with a case of human trafficking. The participants in this study remain unsure at the end of the training session on whether victims can consent and in doing so they confuse trafficking and smuggling together, this is emphaises in the smaller sample of stage three. If taught the officers would gain widen understanding on the topic of victim consent and would decrease the risk of misclassifying human trafficking victims.

Training should have a heavier focus on exploitation

All human trafficking training and research should focus less on the distance travelled and more on the exploitation suffered by human trafficking victims. Specifically within Kent Police there should be more connection to county drug trafficking which sees victims trafficked within one country. The focus on exploitation prevents stereotypes against trafficking victims and decreases the chance of misclassification. The data shows that the training is excellent in removing the officers' stereotypes so implementing more focus on the common forms of trafficking within Kent is likely to achieve this improvement quickly.

Include more case studies in order to improve retention

Kent Police should consider implementing more examples of cases of human trafficking that have been investigated in Kent. This is likely to increase the chances of participants remembering information when they are able to reflect back to specific examples provided to them during their training. Recent media reports on human trafficking in Kent should mean this recommendation can be easily implemented.

Kent Police should introduce online training at regular intervals after the main session has finished

By encouraging their officers to continue to think about human trafficking the chance of them forgetting key facts decreases. Once the training session has finished online training should be made available for officers to remind themselves of the information they have been taught. Whilst some forms of online training do exist in British police forces, ones related to crimes such as human trafficking that occur less often in the officer's duty should be made more regular. The implication that the officers' knowledge on human trafficking is not assessed at the training school means the officers have no reason to revise their understanding. This has resulted in significant memory loss which is likely to continue the misclassification of victims. Regular training to remind participants of key information could prevent this.

Lead the trial period to assess whether a standard form to detect human trafficking would be successful

Similar to the DASH from used across Britain to detect domestic abuse, Kent Police should consider pioneering a human trafficking version. It is recommend that Kent Police lead on this, as this study has already shown that their officers have the knowledge to be able to understand such a form. It would also be important to trial the form initially in a smaller force in order to ensure concerns, such as those seen with the DASH form, are not duplicated.

The final conclusion of this study argues that training can have significant impact on what officers understand about human trafficking. Kent Police's training in particular is successful

in teaching officers correct understanding whilst also dispelling incorrect stereotypes. It is highly recommended that this training continues past the training school to ensure officers do not forget the taught content. Whilst there are some recommendations for Kent Police to improve, the next steps from this study would be to explore further into the memory retention of law enforcement after their training.

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8. Appendices

8.1. Appendix 1 – Canterbury Christ Church University Ethics Form

15 October 2019 Ref: 19/SAS/02C

Emilia Clarke
C/o School of Law, Criminal Justice and Policing
Faculty of Social and Applied Sciences

Dear Emilia,

Confirmation of ethics compliance for your study - *Police officers understanding of human trafficking in Kent: Investigating training and knowledge*

The faculty ethics chair has reviewed your ethics review checklist application and appropriate supporting documentation for the above project. The chair has confirmed that your application complies fully with the requirements for proportionate ethical review, as set out in this university's research ethics and governance procedures.

In confirming compliance for your study, you are reminded that it is your responsibility to follow, as appropriate, the policies and procedures set out in the *Research Governance Framework* (http://www.canterbury.ac.uk/research-and-consultancy/governance-and- ethics/governance-and-ethics.aspx) and any relevant academic or professional guidelines. This includes providing, if appropriate, information sheets and consent forms, and ensuring confidentiality in the storage and use of data.

Any significant change in the question, design or conduct of the study over its course should be notified via email to red.resgov@canterbury.ac.uk and may require a new application for ethics approval.

It is a condition of compliance that you must inform red.resgov@canterbury.ac.uk **once your research has completed.**

Wishing you every success with your research.
Yours sincerely,

Ellen

Ellen Charman

Research Development and Integrity Officer Email:
red.resgov@canterbury.ac.uk

CC Katarina Mozova

8.2. Appendix 2 – Information Sheet for Stages One and Two

Police Officers Understanding of Human Trafficking in Kent: Investigating Training and Knowledge

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

A research study is being conducted at Canterbury Christ Church University (CCCU) by Emilia Clarke, a postgraduate student, supervised by Dr. Katarina Mozova, lecturer in Policing at CCCU.

Background

Human trafficking has recently become a growing epidemic in media, academia and for police forces. A focus on targeting offenders and identifying and protecting victims has now become a priority for many police forces, including Kent Police. However, little evaluation has taken place on the training police officers receive about human trafficking and the knowledge they have on the topic. This means that it is difficult to know how officers understand human trafficking and the effectiveness of the received training. This research aims to fill in this gap in our knowledge.

What will you be required to do?

Participants in this study will be required to complete three questionnaires that will be provided to them at different stages over the course of the study. Each questionnaire will take approximately 15-10 minutes to complete. The questions will be similar over the three stages however this is done deliberately to measure differences between stages.

Stage one will ascertain your pre-existing knowledge of human trafficking before you undertake the training session.

Stage Two will be completed shortly after you have taken the human trafficking training session and will ask information regarding your satisfaction with the course, as well as to determine your new knowledge.

Stage Three will occur 6-months after you have completed the human trafficking training session and will measure retention, differences between those who have undertaken the training session compared to those that have not, and any other differences between individuals.

Participants will also be required to create their own unique code which will be explained at the beginning of each questionnaire. This code allows your data to remain anonymous.

To participate in this research, you must:

To take part in stages one and two you must:

- Be going through initial training for Kent Police
- Be undertaking the training module for human trafficking (Stage One will be conducted before the module, Stage Two after the module).

To take part in stage three you must:

- Be an officer in Kent Police.

Procedures

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire including numerical answers, as well as open ended questions.

Feedback

Feedback will not be provided automatically, however may be requested by contacting ec433@canterbury.ac.uk. The findings will be made available to Kent Police.

Confidentiality and Data Protection

On the legal basis of participant consent all data and personal information will be stored securely within CCCU premises in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the University's own data protection policies. No unrelated or unnecessary personal data will be collected or stored. The following categories of personal data will be processed: Participants names which will be found on the consent forms. Personal data will be used to prove that participants have consented to taking part in the study. Data can only be accessed by Emilia Clarke, their supervisor Katarina Mozova and a currently unknown examiner.

After completion of the study, all data will be made anonymous (i.e. all personal information associated with the data will be removed) and held for a period of 5 years as per University Policy.

Dissemination of Results

At this time, it is known that the results of this study will be published in the Canterbury Christ Church University Library. The findings will also be provided to Kent Police and may be written up for journal publication.

Deciding whether to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about the nature, procedures or requirements for participation do not hesitate to contact me. Should you decide to participate, you will be free to (i) withdraw consent at any time without having to give a reason during the study and up to a month after, (ii), request to see all your personal data held in association with this project, (iii) request that the processing of your personal data is restricted, (iv) request that your personal data is erased and no longer used for processing.

Process for withdrawing consent

You are free to withdraw consent at any time throughout the study and up to one month after participation without having to give a reason. To do this please contact me through email, quoting the unique code you will create for yourself at the beginning of the questionnaire. I can then remove your data from the research.

Any questions?

Please contact

Emilia Clarke on ec433@canterbury.ac.uk or Katarina Mozova on katarina.mozova@canterbury.ac.uk

Alternatively, please contact the Faculty of Social and Applied Sciences on 01227 922852.

8.3. Appendix 3 – Information Sheet for Stage Three

Police Officers Understanding of Human Trafficking in Kent: Investigating Training and Knowledge

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

A research study is being conducted at Canterbury Christ Church University (CCCU) by Emilia Clarke, a postgraduate student, supervised by Dr. Katarina Mozova, lecturer in Policing at CCCU.

Background

Human trafficking has recently become a growing epidemic in media, academia and for police forces. A focus on targeting human trafficking offenders and identifying and protecting victims has now become a priority for many police forces, including Kent Police. However, little evaluation has taken place on the training police officers receive about human trafficking and the knowledge they have on the topic. This means that it is difficult to know how officers understand human trafficking and the effectiveness of the received training. This research aims to fill in this gap in our knowledge.

What will you be required to do?

Participants in this study will be required to complete a questionnaire that will last approximately 10-15 minutes.

This study is measuring differences between those who have undertaken the human trafficking training session run by Kent Police compared to those that have not, the retention of information for those that have and any other key differences.

Participants will be required to create their own unique code which will be explained at the beginning of the questionnaire. This code allows your data to remain anonymous.

To participate in this research, you must:

- Be an officer in Kent Police

Procedures

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire including numerical answers, as well as open ended questions.

Feedback

Feedback will not be provided automatically, however may be requested by contacting ec433@canterbury.ac.uk. The findings will be made available to Kent Police.

Confidentiality and Data Protection

On the legal basis of participant consent all data and personal information will be stored securely within CCCU premises in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the University's own data protection policies. No unrelated or unnecessary personal data will be collected or stored. The following categories of personal data will be

processed: Participants names which will be found on the consent forms. Personal data will be used to prove that participants have consented to taking part in this study. Data can only be accessed by Emilia Clarke, their supervisor Katarina Mozova and a currently unknown examiner.

After completion of the study, all data will be made anonymous (i.e. all personal information associated with the data will be removed) and held for a period of 5 years as per University Policy.

Dissemination of Results

At this time, it is known that the results of this study will be published in the Canterbury Christ Church University Library. The findings will also be provided to Kent Police and may be written up for journal publication.

Deciding whether to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about the nature, procedures or requirements for participation do not hesitate to contact me. Should you decide to participate, you will be free to (i) withdraw consent at any time without having to give a reason during the study and up to a month after, (ii), request to see all your personal data held in association with this project, (iii), request that the processing of your personal data is restricted, (iv), request that your personal data is erased and no longer used for processing.

Process for withdrawing consent

You are free to withdraw consent at any time throughout the study and up to one month after participation without having to give a reason. To do this please contact me through email, quoting the unique code you will create for yourself at the beginning of the questionnaire. I can then remove your data from the research.

Any questions?

Please contact

Emilia Clarke on ec433@canterbury.ac.uk or Katarina Mozova on katarina.mozova@canterbury.ac.uk.

Alternatively, please contact the Faculty of Social and Applied Sciences on 01227 922852.

8.4. Appendix 4 – Participant Consent Form

Consent Form

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.	
I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	
I understand that any personal information that I provide to the researchers will be kept strictly confidential.	
I agree to create my own code knowing that the researcher will use it to trace my results	
I agree to take part in this study	

Name of Participant:	**Date:**	**Signature:**
Researcher: Emilia Clarke	**Date: 15/11/2019**	**Signature:** *Emilia Clarke*

8.5. Appendix 5 – Stage One Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed for participants who are at Stage One of this research.

You must now create a code using the below example as a guide on how to structure your code. The code is used to keep your information anonymous.

Your code must consist of:

- The first two letters of your surname
- The month you were born in, following this format: 01 for January, 02 for February… 12 for December.
- The last two numbers of the year you were born in.

An example:

Joe Blogs, born on 12/06/1993 will have the code: BL0693

Please provide your unique code here ……

Please circle your gender

Male Female Other Prefer Not to Answer

Please circle your age group

18-25 25-40 40+ Prefer Not to Answer

Are you currently going through initial training for Kent Police?

Yes No

Have you ever participated in any training about human trafficking?

Yes No Unsure

If yes, what was it? _____

These next set of questions will ask you to circle the most appropriate number on the scale of how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1 being you definitely disagree with the statement, 5 being that you neither agree or disagree with the statement and 9 being you definitely agree with the statement.

I believe that human trafficking is a serious crime that occurs in Kent

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that a Kent Police Officer will encounter a human trafficking victim in the next 12 months

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that a Kent Police Officer will arrest a suspect in relation to a human trafficking offence in the next 12 months

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the number of human trafficking victims in England and Wales is lower than most other countries

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that I could confidently identify someone if they were a victim of human trafficking without them directly stating so by various other indicators that they may display

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

If I came across a victim of human trafficking, I confidently know how to deal with the situation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims can sometimes play a role in causing their own situation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims can do more to assist the police in catching offenders and identifying other potential victims

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that many victims are forced into human trafficking due to circumstances outside of their control

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims of human trafficking are vulnerable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that training for police officers is vital in helping prevent and detect human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the training I will receive will be sufficient in raising my confidence in dealing with human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the training I will receive will answer any questions I may have about human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that working with other agencies is important for Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

15. On the scale of 1 (*know nothing*) to 9 (*expert*), how much do you think you know about the following areas (*write your number on the line next to each word).*

a) Forced marriage ____

b) Labour exploitation _____

c) Domestic servitude _____

d) Sexual exploitation _____

e) The definition of human trafficking _____

f) Points to prove when dealing with human trafficking cases _____

The next set of questions require you to write a short explanation of your thoughts. There is no right or wrong answer and please write in your own words.

How would you define human trafficking?

What law(s) exist in England and Wales regarding human trafficking?

What forms of exploitation occur under human trafficking? If you are aware of any please write them below.

Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential ***victims*** of human trafficking may display?

Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential ***offenders*** of human trafficking may display?

Who is most likely to become a victim of human trafficking?

What barriers may victims face when deciding whether or not to report to the police?

If you came across a victim of human trafficking what would your initial action be?

Can you list any agencies who may work with Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking?

What are your expectations of the training you are going to undertake?

Are there any areas of human trafficking you believe the training must cover?

Is there anything else that you would like to say?

Thank you, you have completed Stage One of this research. After you have completed the training session on human trafficking you will be asked to complete Stage Two.

8.6. Appendix 6 – Stage Two Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed for participants who are at stage two of the research as described in the information sheet. To match the criteria for stage two you must have taken part in stage one, you must be in the initial training for Kent Police and you must have completed the human trafficking module for Kent Police.

In stage one you were asked to create a code so that your answers could remain anonymous but still be traced throughout each stage.

The code was created by using:

- The first two letters of your surname
- The month you were born in, following this format: 01 for January, 02 for February… 12 for December
- The last two numbers of the year you were born in.

For example: Joe Blogs, born on 12/06/1993 will have the code: BL0693

Please provide your unique code here……

Are you currently going through initial training for Kent Police?

Yes No

Have you completed a training session on human trafficking for Kent Police?

Yes No Unsure

These next set of questions will ask you to circle the most appropriate number on the scale on how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1 being you definitely disagree with the statement, 5 being that you neither agree or disagree with the statement and 9 being you definitely agree with the statement.

I enjoyed the training session on human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I feel that I have gained new knowledge about human trafficking from the training session

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I feel that the session lasted a good length of time

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I feel that the delivery of the session was appropriate (For example: Using power points, team work, and discussion time)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I feel that those running the session were knowledgably on the topic

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I feel that the training covered everything I was expecting from a human trafficking lesson

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the training I received raised my confidence in dealing with human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that human trafficking is a serious crime that occurs in Kent

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that a Kent Police Officer will encounter a human trafficking victim in the next 12 months

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that a Kent Police Officer will arrest a suspect in relation to a human trafficking offence in the next 12 months

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the number of human trafficking victims in England and Wales is lower than most other countries

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that I could confidently identify someone if they were a victim of human trafficking without them directly stating so by various other indicators that they may display

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

If I came across a victim of human trafficking, I confidently know how to deal with the situation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims can sometimes play a role in causing their own situation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims can do more to assist the police in catching offenders and identifying other potential victims

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that many victims are forced into human trafficking due to circumstances outside of their control

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims of human trafficking are vulnerable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that training for police officers is vital in helping prevent and detect human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that working with other agencies is important for Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

When working with other agencies it is important that Kent Police takes the lead in the investigation to help better identify and protect victims and prosecute offenders

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

The next set of questions require you to write a short explanation of your thoughts. There is no right or wrong answer and please write in your own words.

How would you define human trafficking?

What law(s) exist in England and Wales regarding human trafficking?

What forms of exploitation occurs under human trafficking? If you are aware of any please write them below.

Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential ***victims*** of human trafficking may display?

Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential ***offenders*** of human trafficking may display?

Who is most likely to become a victim of human trafficking?

What barriers may victims face when deciding whether or not to report to the police?

If you came across a victim of human trafficking what would your initial action be?

Can you list below any other agencies who may work with Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking?

Did the training match your expectations? Please explain your answer.

Was there any area of human trafficking that you believed was going to be covered, but was not?

Please write below any other additional comments you may have as feedback for the training session.

Thank you, you have completed stage two of this research. In 6-months' time you will be asked to complete stage three.

8.7. Appendix 7 – Stage Three Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to be completed by officers of Kent Police.

Some participants in this study will have completed stage one and two whilst others will only be completing stage three. If you have not completed stage one and two but are being asked to complete stage three, is it because you did not meet the criteria of the previous stages. The only criteria for stage three is that you are an officer of Kent Police.

Each participant must create a unique code so that your answers can remain anonymous.

Your code is created by following the below format:

- The first two letters of your surname
- The month you were born in, following this format: 01 for January, 02 for February … 12 for December.
- The last two numbers of the year you were born in

An example: Joe Blogs, born 12/06/1993 will have the code: BL0693

Please provide your unique code here _____

Please circle your gender

Male Female Other Prefer not to answer.

Please circle your age group

18-25 25-40 40+ prefer not to answer.

During your initial police training did you ever undertake a training session on human trafficking?

Yes No Unsure

Since you completed your initial training have you received any other training on human trafficking?

Yes No Unsure

If yes, what was it and what year did you undertake this training_____

These next set of questions will ask you to circle the most appropriate number on the scale on how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1 being you definitely disagree with the statement, 5 being you neither agree nor disagree with the statement and 9 being you definitely agree with the statement.

My confidence in dealing with cases was created or enhanced by any training that I have received

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the training I have received about human trafficking answered any questions that I may have had

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that human trafficking is a serious crime that occurs in Kent

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that a Kent Police Officer will encounter a human trafficking victim in the next 12 months

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that a Kent Police Officer will arrest a suspect in relation to a human trafficking offence in the next 12 months

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that the number of human trafficking victims in England and Wales is lower than most other countries

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that I could confidently identify someone if they were a victim of human trafficking without them directly stating so by various other indicators that they may display

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

If I came across a victim of human trafficking, I confidently know how to deal with the situation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims can do more to assist the police in catching offenders and identifying other potential victims

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that many victims are forced into human trafficking due to circumstances outside of their control

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims of human trafficking are vulnerable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that victims can sometimes play a role in causing their own situation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that training for police officers is vital in helping prevent and detect human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

I believe that working with other agencies is important for Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

15. On the scale of 1(*no nothing)* to 9 (*expert)*, how much do you think you know about the following areas *(write your number on the line next to each word).*

a) Forced marriage _____

b) Labour exploitation _____

c) Domestic servitude _____

d) Sexual exploitation _____

e) The definition of human trafficking _____

f) Points to prove when dealing with human trafficking cases _____

The next set of questions require you to write a short explanation of your thoughts. There is no right or wrong answer and please write in your own words. This is not a test and please answer based on your current knowledge.

How would you define human trafficking?

What law(s) exist in England and Wales regarding human trafficking?

What forms of exploitation occur under human trafficking? If you are aware of any please write them below.

Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential ***victims*** of human trafficking may display?

Can you list any examples of indicators or signs potential ***offenders*** of human trafficking may display?

Who is more likely to become a victim of human trafficking?

What barriers may victims face when deciding whether or not to report to the police?

If you came across a victim of human trafficking what would your initial action be?

Can you list any agencies who may work with Kent Police to prevent and detect human trafficking?

If an opportunity to attend a training course on human training was presented to you, would you like to attend?

Yes No Unsure

Is there anything else you would like to add?

Thank you, you have completed the questionnaire.