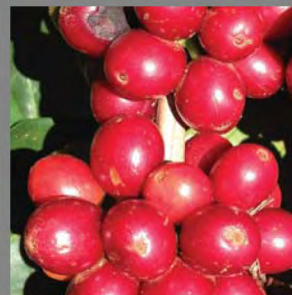
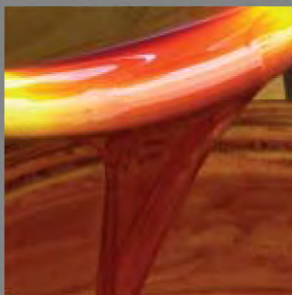




Strengthening Protections Against Trafficking in Persons in Federal and Corporate Supply Chains

Research on Risk in 43 Commodities Worldwide



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Strengthening Protections Against Trafficking in Persons in Federal and Corporate Supply Chains

Phase I: Research

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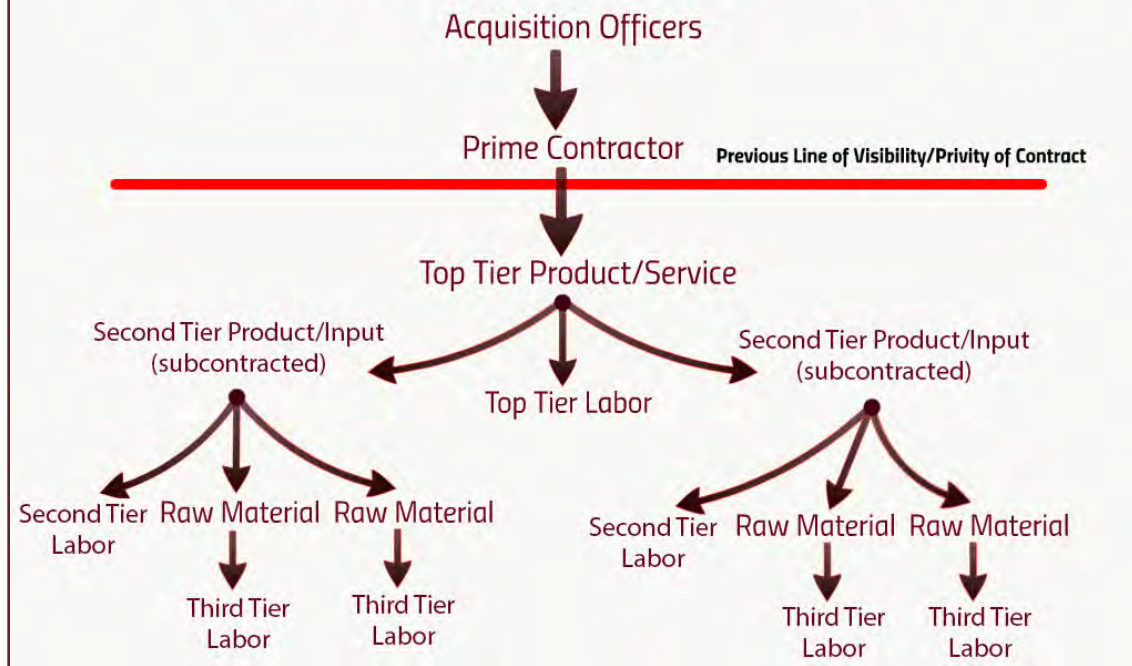
I. Introduction and Project Background

More than twenty million men, women and children around the world are currently believed to be victims of human trafficking, a global criminal industry estimated to be worth \$150.2 billion annually.¹ As defined in the US Department of State's *2014 Trafficking in Persons Report (TIP Report)*, the terms "trafficking in persons" and "human trafficking" refer broadly to "the act of recruiting, harboring, transporting, providing, or obtaining a person for compelled labor or commercial sex acts through the use of force, fraud, or coercion," irrespective of whether the person has been moved from one location to another.² Trafficking in persons includes practices such as coerced sex work by adults or children, forced labor, bonded labor or debt bondage, involuntary domestic servitude, forced child labor, and the recruitment and use of child soldiers.³ Many different factors indicate that an individual may be in a situation of trafficking. Among the most clear-cut indicators are the experience of coercive or deceptive recruitment, restricted freedom of movement, retention of identity documents by employers, withholding of wages, debt bondage, abusive working and living conditions, forced overtime, isolation, and physical or sexual violence.⁴

The United States Government is broadly committed to combating trafficking in persons, as guided by the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA) of 2000,¹ and the UN Palermo Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime. In September 2012, the United States took an unprecedented step in the fight against human trafficking with the release of a presidential executive order (EO) entitled "Strengthening Protections Against Trafficking in Persons in Federal Contracts." In issuing this EO, the White House acknowledged that "as the largest single purchaser of goods and services in the world, the US Government has a responsibility to combat human trafficking at home and abroad, and to ensure American tax dollars do not contribute to this affront to human dignity."⁵ The EO prohibits human trafficking activities not just by federal prime contractors, but also by their employees, subcontractors, and subcontractor employees. Subsequent amendments to the Federal Acquisition Regulation (FAR) and the Defense Acquisition Regulations System (DFARS) in the wake of the EO will affect a broad range of federal contracts, and will require scrutiny by prime contractors of subcontractor labor practices to a degree that has not previously been commonplace. Top level contractors will now need to look actively at the labor practices of their subcontractors and suppliers, and to consider the labor involved in production of inputs even at the lowest tiers of their supply chains.

¹ As amended and reauthorized in the Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Acts of 2003, 2005, 2008, and 2013

Shedding Light on Human Trafficking Risk in Federal Supply Chains



The EO additionally requires prime contractors providing large overseas contracts to develop and maintain detailed anti-trafficking compliance programs and provide annual certification of their anti-trafficking efforts.

To assist United States Government agencies and the federal contracting community to prepare for implementation of the EO and new FAR rules, the United States Department of State's Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons (DOS/J/TIP) asked Verité to investigate and map out the risk of trafficking in global supply chains generally, and in federal supply chains in particular. As part of this initiative, Verité has collected comprehensive data about global industries with a significant history or current evidence of human trafficking or trafficking-related activity, and has analyzed the overlap between global supply chains deemed to be at risk for human trafficking and patterns of United States federal procurement. The results of Verité's research are presented below. Detailed sector and country-specific findings will also be fed into an interactive, web-based resource for use by companies, acquisitions officers, contractors, NGOs, and consumers as they evaluate the risk of human trafficking in their supply chains.

This report is not intended to provide specific guidance on EO compliance, but it does provide the framework and resources necessary to understand the risk of human trafficking in global supply chains, and can help readers begin to assess the risk of human trafficking in particular federal supply chains. There is no way for any consumer or employer to anticipate all instances of human trafficking, but supply chain risk analysis can narrow down where to look to identify and mitigate the risks associated with the problem as much as possible.

The following section provides an overview of the main factors that contribute to the risk of human trafficking in global supply chains. Later sections examine eleven economic sectors found to be at particularly high risk for trafficking. Sections to be released in the future will analyze the supply chains and risks of trafficking for forty-eight of the world's most important commodities. Data on variables relevant to trafficking risk in specific countries (information on market activity, migration patterns, human rights indicators, socio-political factors, etc.) has also been collected in spreadsheet form, and will be developed further in the coming months in the course of creating the web-based risk assessment tool. For more information on this ongoing country-specific supply chain research, please contact Verité.

¹ United Nations International Labor Office (ILO). *Profits and Poverty: the Economics of Forced Labor*. 2014. <http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/forced-labour/publications/profits-of-forced-labour-2014/lang--en/index.htm>

² US Department of State. *2014 Trafficking in Persons Report*. June 2014. http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2014/?utm_source=NEW+RESOURCE%3A+Trafficking+in+Persons+Report+2014&utm_campaign=2014.07.16+NEW+RESOURCE%3A+Trafficking+in+Persons+Report+2014+&utm_medium=email

³ US Department of State. *2014 Trafficking in Persons Report*. June 2014. http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2014/?utm_source=NEW+RESOURCE%3A+Trafficking+in+Persons+Report+2014&utm_campaign=2014.07.16+NEW+RESOURCE%3A+Trafficking+in+Persons+Report+2014+&utm_medium=email

⁴ International Labour Office. *ILO Indicators of Forced Labour*. Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_203832.pdf; also ILO 2012. *Hard to see, harder to count - Survey guidelines to estimate forced labour of adults and children*. http://www.ilo.org/sapfl/Informationresources/ILOPublications/WCMS_182096/lang--en/index.htm

⁵ Office of the Press Secretary, The White House. "Fact Sheet: Executive Order Strengthening Protections Against Trafficking in Persons in Federal Contracts." September 25, 2012. <http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2012/09/25/fact-sheet-executive-order-strengthening-protections-against-trafficking>

II. Risk Factors for Human Trafficking in Global Supply Chains

A variety of factors contribute to risk of human trafficking in global supply chains. Some risk factors derive from the characteristics of specific economic sectors, reflecting the types of products and industries involved, typical sourcing patterns, types of labor involved in production or supply of the product, and the nature of the workforce in question. Other risk factors derive from conditions within particular, geographically-specific supply chains. Some of these reflect circumstances in the country in which production or service delivery takes place; others reflect conditions in the country supplying the labor (which may or may not be the same as the country of production/service delivery). This overview begins with a discussion of the risk factors associated with specific economic sectors, and then provides a framework for assessing trafficking risks that are associated with particular, geographically-located supply chains, looking both at risks associated with the country of production and/or service delivery, and at the country supplying the labor in question.

Types of Risk Factors for Human Trafficking in Global Supply Chains

- Risk Factors Associated with Specific Sectors
- Risk Factors Associated with Specific Supply Chains
 - *Risks Associated with Country of Production or Service Delivery*
 - *Risks Associated with Country Supplying the Labor*

A. Sector-Specific Risk Factors

1. Risks Deriving from the Characteristics of the Product or Industry

Low-skilled labor and dirty, dangerous, or difficult work: In general, industries that rely heavily on inputs of low-skilled labor are at risk of trafficking in persons. This is particularly true for industries in which low-skilled labor is used to carry out work that is unpleasant, dangerous, or otherwise difficult. Such jobs are often referred to as “3D” jobs, for “dirty, dangerous, and difficult.” Examples of such jobs include those involving dangerous or physically arduous manual labor (mining, farm work, construction), work involving prolonged periods of repetitive motion (factory assembly jobs, meatpacking), and work that is stigmatized or socially devalued (janitorial work, personal care provision). As these jobs are undesirable and low-paying, in many cases they are performed by individuals with a high level of vulnerability, including immigrants, minorities, and other socially marginalized groups.⁶ Recent reports from Japan, for example, have described the trafficking by recruiters linked to organized crime of homeless people forced to do environmental clean-up in the wake of the Fukushima nuclear disaster.⁷ While human trafficking does occur in other kinds of industries, those that rely centrally on 3D jobs are inherently at risk.

Seasonal or short product lifecycles: Industries that are characterized by sharp seasonal or product life-cycle fluctuations in labor demand are also at risk. The time-sensitive nature of harvest cycles for many agricultural crops, for example, can lead to a temporary surge in the need for farm workers in a particular region, only to have the demand for them drop off sharply once the harvest is complete. A similar situation can arise for low-skilled electronics workers when a new cellphone or other top-selling technology is released, as factories staff up quickly to meet the spike in demand, sometimes laying off workers again soon after orders have dropped off. The need for a large number of workers for short periods of time leads many employers to turn to labor brokers for assistance with

recruitment, a practice which Verité research has shown drastically increases the risk of human trafficking.⁸ Even workers who have not been trafficked initially may find themselves vulnerable to such exploitation once the demand for their labor has receded, due to the burden of debt they incurred in the course of their recruitment, or simply because they lack the resources to return home or seek other alternatives. In addition, employers in industries with sharp spikes in labor demand sometimes seek to intensify production by temporarily increasing pressure on their existing workforce through the use of compulsory overtime or other forced labor practices.

Highly competitive industries with low barriers to entry: In general, industries that are highly competitive, with continual downward pressure on prices, may be at risk of trafficking. This is particularly true if costs for inputs other than labor have already been cut as much as possible, leading to strong pressure to reduce labor costs as a main strategy to increase competitiveness. For example, in United States garment manufacturing, where brands have a great deal of leverage over their supplier factories, and labor costs comprise the bulk of input costs, many sewing contractors' only option to retain contracts and become profitable is to pay sub-minimum wages.⁹ Related, trafficking risk is also present in industries with relatively low barriers to entry, making it possible for companies to shift production to new locations in search of lower labor costs. Low wages do not in themselves equate to labor trafficking, of course, but a "race to the bottom" in wages and prices paid to small producers may be associated with increased vulnerability to human trafficking through debt bondage, forced overtime, or other related consequences of low pay to workers and suppliers.

2. Risks Related to Business Processes Involved in Production and/or Supply of the Product

Offshore manufacturing: Industries that rely heavily on overseas production in countries with lower labor standards or limited enforcement capacity are at risk of human trafficking in their supply chains, when offshore production is associated with reduced labor costs and less stringent regulatory environments. Substandard wages for workers and reduced standards for workers' rights and workplace practices increase the likelihood of worker vulnerability to trafficking.

Reliance on labor recruiting: Industries that rely on labor recruiters or other third-party intermediaries to recruit, hire and/or manage their workforce are at increased risk of having trafficking in their supply chains.¹⁰ Labor intermediaries often provide valuable recruitment and migration facilitation services, but there can be significant gaps in regulation, and exploitation and abuse of workers are widespread. Some workers are misinformed or even deceived as to the nature and/or conditions of the job they are ultimately placed in, and many pay substantial fees to cover their recruitment costs. The debt that often results from payment of recruitment fees is a major contributing factor to the vulnerability of workers to human trafficking, as workers are forced to continue working sometimes for a year or more in order to pay off the debt they incurred to get their jobs. Indebted workers have few options and little leverage to advocate for themselves in the workplace, making them vulnerable to other elements of human trafficking as well. Vulnerability is particularly elevated when workers experience multiple dependencies on their brokers or employment agents for their wages, visas, work permits, and/or housing.¹¹

Recruitment Industry

Globalization has created longer and more complex supply chains, which require greater coordination and expertise. As these supply chains generally span across multiple countries and employ workers from a variety of different places, companies are more often than not turning to labor brokers – variously referred

to as labor intermediaries, middlemen, recruiters, and recruitment agents, among other terms – to handle the recruitment, hiring, and/or management of workers.

Labor brokers—middlemen in the recruitment, hiring and/or management of laborers – operate at the core of the global economy. Labor brokerages vary in their scale and levels of formality. In some cases they are large, well-organized companies. In others they are extremely informal operations run by one individual. The services they provide also differ. Many labor brokers take responsibility for visas, medical checkups, travel arrangements, pre-departure orientation and trainings, and even contract negotiation. Some brokers actually manage the migrant contract workers at the job sites. Regardless of the level of formality or involvement in the recruitment, hiring, and management process, the presence of labor brokers increases the risk of human trafficking.

Labor brokers often promise workers high salaries and excellent conditions of work. Labor brokers often charge workers recruitment fees—sometimes legal, sometimes illegal. Fees can cover a variety of costs, including travel, passport and visa processing, and medical exams. They may also include unspecified service charges, which may go directly to the agent. Migrants often encounter more than one labor brokers in the course of migration – one in their country of origin or the sending country and one in the receiving country – and must pay service fees to each intermediary. When migrant workers are required to pay excessive fees as a condition of obtaining employment, they often go into debt to come up with the money, wagering that they will easily be able to repay the debt with the high wages they have been promised. Sometimes, family members and neighbors invest in the recruitment fee as well. Failure to repay can have severe personal and social consequences, particularly if the money is owed to those with connections to criminal elements, or if family assets have been leveraged as collateral. The existence of the debt—and the worker’s urgent need to repay it— mean that the worker may be more easily manipulated by the employer to accept lower wages than were promised, poor working conditions, excessive work hours, or similar abusive practices. Debt-burdened migrant workers are also much more vulnerable to threats of deportation—and consequent loss of their earning potential – than workers with no debt obligations.¹²

Conditions once the worker is on site can exacerbate vulnerability to human trafficking. Worker debt may be compounded by high interest rates and salary deductions, making repayment even more difficult. In some cases, workers may face contract substitution, which occurs when workers agree to one set of payment terms and working conditions, but find themselves presented with substantially different and inferior terms after they have taken on significant debt, or even after they have arrived at the worksite.¹³ The combination of debt, deception in recruitment and coercion at the worksite can create conditions of trafficking.¹⁴

In some cases, worker identification documents and passports are withheld by brokers or employers. The retention – or confiscation – of workers’ identity documents typically affects international migrants, but can also involve vulnerable workers within their own countries, for example when the provision of state social services is made contingent on workers’ possession of identity documents. Loss of control over personal documents can result in restrictions on workers’ freedom of movement, and be used as a means to bind them to a particular job or employer, forcing them to do work that they may not have consented to for fear of losing their documents permanently. Workers who flee exploitative work arrangements without their documents become undocumented workers, without access to protection or services, vulnerable to arrest or deportation, and in many cases to even more abuse by their employers.¹⁵

Example of a Trafficking Scenario Involving Recruitment-Related Vulnerability:



Long, complex, or non-transparent supply chains: Industries with long, complex, or non-transparent supply chains are more likely to be at risk for human trafficking than ones with short, straightforward supply chains. In part this is because longer supply chains involve more contexts in which labor takes place, and hence more possibilities for trafficking to occur. The length and complexity of supply chains also contributes to risk, however, by masking transparency about embedded labor practices, making it difficult for the eventual purchasers of finished goods or services to monitor for human trafficking lower down in their supply chains. Even for consumer-facing companies or individual consumers concerned about human trafficking, lengthy and complex supply chains often make it difficult to perceive abuses that may be taking place at the level of secondary or tertiary inputs to finished products. A number of different business practices contribute to the complexity and non-transparency of supply chains. Offshoring of production is one obvious factor; overseas sourcing of inputs such as raw materials and labor is another. In addition, supply chains are often opaque in industries that rely heavily on subcontractors, and in ones that are characterized by a high degree of informality in contracting at lower tiers in the supply chain, for example when a subcontractor relies on a verbal agreement with an independent supplier in an effort to minimize regulation or taxation.

Lack of participation in multi-stakeholder CSR initiatives: While not itself causal of increased trafficking risk, the absence of industry-level corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives to protect workers from trafficking may be a red flag that labor issues are not closely scrutinized in that sector.

3. Risks Related to the Characteristics of the Workforce Involved

Poor, vulnerable, low-skilled workers: Industries that employ a high proportion of workers who are impoverished, lacking in professional or advanced technical skills, and landless or otherwise dispossessed are inherently at greater risk of human trafficking. Poor, vulnerable, low-skilled workers are easily replaced by others like them, and hence have little leverage with which to advocate for their rights in the face of recruiters or employers seeking to profit from their labor illegally.

Migrant workers: Industries that rely heavily on migrant labor are often also at risk. Verité has found migrant workers, both internal and international migrants, to be vulnerable to human trafficking in a wide variety of sectors and countries.¹⁶ As a recent report by the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants for the United Nations Human Rights Council notes:

“migrants are at heightened risk of exploitation and abuse in the workplace, due to (a) deceptive recruitment practices, both by employers and intermediaries; (b) frequent lack of social support systems; (c) unfamiliarity with the local culture, language, their rights at work and national labour and migration laws in the country of employment; (d) limited or denied access to legal and administrative systems; (e) dependence on the job and employer due to migration-related debt, legal status, or employers restricting their freedom to leave the workplace; and (f) reliance by family members on remittances sent back home by the migrant. These factors are amplified by the discrimination and xenophobia that migrants are increasingly facing everywhere.”¹⁷

Migrants are also often restricted from forming or joining trade unions. Industries employing large numbers of migrants are likely to rely on recruiters or other middlemen, which carries risks of human trafficking, as discussed above.

B. Risk Factors Associated with Particular Supply Chains

1. Risks Related to the Country of Production and/or Service Delivery

Note: The risk factors discussed in this section refer specifically to the country in which goods are produced or services delivered, regardless of whether the worker population in question comes from that country (as is the case for industries relying on a local or national workforce), or from overseas (as with industries dependent on migrants). Risk factors that pertain to the country supplying the labor are discussed in the next section.

a) Political Risk Factors in the Country of Production

Weak legal protection for civil liberties and workers' rights: Supply chains that source goods or services from countries with weak legal protections for civil liberties and workers' rights are at risk for human trafficking. When safeguards for civil liberties such as freedoms of assembly, association, and expression are weak, civil society organizations are less able to monitor government and private sector actors and hold them accountable for unethical labor practices. Lack of formal protection for workers' rights leaves workers with little legal recourse in the face of workplace abuses, and also undermines the potential for labor organizing, reducing the ability of workers' to advocate for themselves in the face of exploitation and abuse. The impacts of such factors on human trafficking risk are exacerbated even further in countries where basic liberties are actively suppressed by repressive state regimes. Risk is also heightened in countries that protect workers' rights for their own citizens, but fail to extend protections to foreign migrants or undocumented foreign migrants, particularly when such migrants make up a significant proportion of the low-wage workforce.¹⁸

Widespread corruption: A high degree of corruption is also associated with a risk of human trafficking. General disregard for the rule of law and lack of adherence to laws by government officials opens the door to trafficking of workers in many ways. Officials may be paid bribes to look the other way when faced with practices associated with human trafficking, such as the retention of migrant workers' passports by employers, compulsory payment of “runaway insurance” fees by workers, or illegally high deductions from workers wages. Labor brokers may also bribe government officials in order to gain access to work permits or factory placements, passing along the cost of kick-back “commissions” to workers who are already being charged high recruitment fees, in this way contributing to vulnerability to debt bondage.¹⁹ In some cases,

government officials may themselves own recruitment agencies or have a vested interest in them through familial or other personal ties.

High level of crime and violence: Workers in countries with a high level of crime and violence are also at risk for trafficking. In particular, the presence of organized crime syndicates is often directly related, as crime rings trafficking in guns, drugs, or other illicit goods may also deal in human beings, facilitating delivery of workers to factories, farms, brothels, mines, or other sites of production. Countries in which organized crime flourishes often also have a high level of general lawlessness and corruption, both of which contribute to trafficking risk in their own right, both because workers may be fearful of leaving their jobs before paying off their debt or completing their contracts, and because they may be unlikely to file complaints with authorities who are perceived to be corrupt.²⁰ More informally, the simple presence of gangs or street thugs in areas where workers live and work can significantly limit the freedom of movement of workers who may be far from home, increasing their dependence on their employers and limiting their ability to seek out resources that could help them resist unethical or abusive employment arrangements.

State persecution: Countries in which some categories of workers – stateless individuals or undocumented migrants, for example – are actively persecuted by the state are also at risk of trafficking, since fear of government surveillance, detention, or deportation can act as a serious constraint on workers’ freedoms of movement and association, and consequently, on their ability to resist or advocate for themselves in the face of illegal labor exploitation.²¹

Political instability or conflict: Supply chains that rely on goods or services provided in countries experiencing political conflict or instability may be at risk due to a general destabilization of society and diminution in the rule of law. Such instability also increases the risk of the local population to being trafficked, a connection discussed below in the section on factors affecting trafficking risk in labor source countries. There are also cases in which certain areas of a country may be outside of government control, leading to an increased risk of trafficking in these regions.²² In some cases, organized crime syndicates or armed groups may rely on human trafficking as a means of financing the conflict or intimidating certain populations.²³ Countries that are active theaters of war or other sites of emergent situations may also require rapid staffing of jobs in construction, housekeeping, security or other low-skilled fields, potentially leading to increased trafficking risk.

b) Socio-Economic Risk Factors in the Country of Production

Level of national economic development: The implications of overall economic development for risk of trafficking in a country vary. In some cases, relatively high GDP per capita and education levels may be associated with supply chain risk, due to the unwillingness of a relatively prosperous and skilled local workforce to do low-paid, unpleasant jobs. In such contexts, migrants and the poorest members of the society are typically relied upon to do such work, people who are structurally at risk of being trafficked due to their general vulnerability, and, in the case of migrants, to their dependence on the international recruitment industry and associated trafficking vulnerabilities.²⁴ Trafficking risk may also correlate with widespread poverty and low levels of social protection in a country, however, particularly if the worker population for “3D” jobs is sourced domestically. Relative degrees of poverty between countries also play a role, for example, when workers from a poor country decide to migrate to a somewhat less poor neighboring country in search of regional economic opportunities.

High degree of gender inequality: Supply chains that source goods or services from countries with a high degree of gender inequality are at risk of human trafficking. In such contexts, women

workers may find themselves subject to discrimination and harassment in the workplace in ways that their male counterparts are not, and this may undermine their capacity to resist or advocate for themselves in the face of employers seeking to exploit their labor illegally. Women may also be paid lower wages than men in such contexts, increasing the burden of recruitment debt for them, and consequently also their chances of experiencing debt bondage and multiple dependency on their employers. A recent ILO study of the economics of labor trafficking found that female-headed households are generally at greater risk of trafficking than male-headed ones, and that trafficking is more frequent in the unskilled occupations and informal sectors in which female workers often concentrate in gender-unequal societies.²⁵ The same study found that a high level of maternal education (indicating a greater degree of gender equality) was strongly inversely correlated with risk of human trafficking.²⁶

Use of “Export Processing Zones” (EPZs; also referred to as Free Trade Zones, Free Industrial Zones, Special Economic Zones, and other similar synonyms): Countries that have actively created economic zones designed to cater to export-oriented foreign manufacturers may be at risk of having trafficking in the supply chains that source from them, especially if those zones have lowered labor standards or relaxed other regulations in order to attract foreign investment. Because such EPZs facilitate global outsourcing of production, and because they often offer workers inside them fewer workplace protections and freedoms than workers enjoy outside, they can be associated with human trafficking risk.

c) Policy-Related Risk Factors in the Country of Production

Immigration policies limiting the employment options or movement of migrants: Countries with immigration policy frameworks that restrict the employment options or movements of migrant workers may pose a risk for human trafficking in the supply chains that source from them. Policies that tie guestworkers’ visas to particular employers, for example, may prevent workers from leaving exploitative or abusive employment situations for fear of losing their legal immigration status. Immigration policies that restrict settlement or movement by migrants similarly increase the vulnerability of migrant workers to human trafficking, by increasing the likelihood that they will experience multiple dependency on their employers, and be constrained in their ability to terminate their employment if they wish.²⁷

Guestworker Visas

A number of countries have “guestworker” visa programs that increase vulnerability to human trafficking among documented temporary immigrant workers. Some guestworker visa programs are extremely expensive and do not mandate that employers cover all recruitment, visa, and transportation costs. In many cases, these costs are passed on from employers to labor brokers to workers, many of whom have to take out high-interest loans or sign over deeds to their land in order to cover these costs. Some guestworker visas tie workers to particular employers and enshrine in law the penalty of deportation for leaving their employment, even if their employer is abusive or fails to abide by the terms of the contract.²⁸ Some countries’ immigration policies restrict the areas in which migrant workers may work, live, or travel, which increases their vulnerability to human trafficking by limiting their freedom of movement.²⁹ Finally, many countries fail in practice to monitor conditions of work adequately among guestworkers, further exacerbating their vulnerability.³⁰

In Gulf countries such as Qatar, the *kafala* guestworker system creates vulnerability to human trafficking among the large population of foreign workers. According to Human Rights Watch, there were 1.2 million migrant workers in Qatar in 2012, accounting for 94 percent of the country’s workforce,³¹ and 99 percent of the private sector workforce.³² According to the United States Department of State, cases of withholding of wages, hazardous working conditions, poor living conditions, and passport confiscation

were prevalent among guestworkers in Qatar. These exploitative practices, coupled with the *kafala* sponsorship system that tied workers to a specific employer and gave employers inordinate control over workers, created a high level of vulnerability of migrant workers to human trafficking.³³ In Qatar, provisions of the *kafala* or sponsorship system legally bind migrant laborers to their sponsor (*kafeel*). The sponsor reserves the right to dictate working conditions, the recruitment process, and workers' ability to leave their job. As a result, workers' labor mobility was significantly restricted, as workers were unable to legally change employers or leave their job without the permission of their sponsor.³⁴ The *kafala* system has been widely criticized for facilitating trafficking, including by the ILO, which stated that the *kafala* system "may be conducive to the exaction of forced labor."³⁵

Verité research on forced labor in the Malaysian electronics sector found that approximately one-third of the 438 foreign workers interviewed were in situations of forced labor. One of the factors that increased foreign workers' vulnerability to human trafficking was Malaysia's guestworker program. Under Malaysian law, a foreign worker is required to have a temporary employment visa, issued by the government. The employer must apply for the permit on behalf of the worker, and the foreign workers must already have an employer-sponsor before they can enter Malaysia on a temporary employment visa. Malaysian law thus channels recruitment through labor brokers, ties workers to their employers, and allows for the deportation of workers who leave their employment with their sponsor. It also establishes a levy that foreign workers must pay, increasing their debt. Additionally, foreign workers in Malaysia were monitored in part by the People's Volunteer Corps (RELA), a civilian organization empowered to assist the government in enforcing immigration law, which has been the subject of numerous allegations of abuse of foreign workers.³⁶

In 2010, Verité carried out in-depth research on human trafficking among agricultural workers in the United States. That research determined that guestworkers were even more vulnerable to labor trafficking than undocumented workers, primarily due to their high level of fees and indebtedness and the fact that these workers were legally bound to one employer. These workers were brought in on H-2A visas (for temporary agricultural workers) and H-2B visas (for unskilled, temporary work outside of the agricultural sector), for which they had to pay \$3,000-27,000, leading many to take out loans. Interest rates could be usurious, reaching up to 20 percent monthly, and moneylenders affiliated with brokers sometimes held workers' titles to land or other valuables as collateral. Once in the United States, workers were threatened with deportation, blacklisting, confiscation of land, and violence against themselves and their families if they complained.³⁷

Under current regulations, H-2B visas are subject to significantly less protections than H-2A visas. The United States Department of Labor's attempts to change the regulations for this visa program to include increased protections for workers have been stymied by legal challenges, and abuses continue. Verité research confirms that some workers have been brought in on these more lenient H-2B visas and then illegally forced to work in agriculture.³⁸ H-2B visa holders may face especially egregious labor rights violations, including in some cases, huge salary deductions. In one documented case, a worker's salary was reduced to 13 cents per hour, making it virtually impossible to pay back loans, and perpetuating the cycle of debt bondage.³⁹ In July 2014, a legal complaint was filed against a Christmas tree company that brought workers in from Mexico to work in California's Sierra Nevada mountains. The suit claims that workers were deceived about their pay, working hours, and reimbursement of transport costs; their passports were confiscated upon arrival; they were subjected to long working hours under dangerous conditions for approximately \$50 per week after deductions; and they were isolated and threatened with injury or death if they failed to work fast enough or attempted to flee.⁴⁰ In this case, no complaint was brought to DOL's WHD, though action could have been taken under the current regulations and FLSA, if the Department had been made aware of the situation.

Lack of (or weak) bilateral agreements with migrant-sending countries: Countries that lack robust bilateral agreements about migrants' rights with the countries that send migrants to them pose a risk for trafficking. In the absence of such agreements, migrant workers' home country governments are in a weak position to enforce reasonable limits on recruitment fees or advocate for their citizens' rights in the migrant-receiving country. When these agreements are conducted in a nontransparent and non-consultative way, they may not adequately reflect concrete worker rights protections and therefore, may not effectively meet their objective of protecting workers. The lack of a bilateral regulatory framework for migration may also enable unethical recruiters and employers in the receiving country to exploit workers illegally, for example by emboldening the employers or recruiters to retain migrants' passports, or to compel workers to work overtime. Even when bilateral agreements do exist, if they are not created in a nontransparent and consultative way, they may not adequately reflect concrete worker rights issues, and therefore may not effectively meet their objective of protecting workers.

Failure to ratify ILO conventions related to human trafficking or rights of workers and migrants: Countries that have not ratified key International Labor Organization conventions prohibiting forced labor, and guaranteeing the rights of workers and migrants, can be at greater risk of having human trafficking in supply chains that source from them. While not in itself causal, the lack of governmental commitment suggested by failure to sign on to such conventions is likely reflected in other structural vulnerabilities to trafficking at the national level, as well as of a lack of political will to combat human trafficking. In addition, the review mechanisms associated with these conventions are often effective tools to support grassroots advocacy for government accountability; they are not accessible to civil society organizations in countries that are not parties to them. In addition, the review mechanisms associated with these conventions – that are often effective tools to support grassroots advocacy for government accountability – are not accessible to civil society organizations in countries that are not parties to that convention.

d) Environmental Factors in the Country of Production

Post-natural disaster contexts: Countries in which major natural disasters have recently taken place may pose an increased risk for human trafficking, due to the need for rapid staffing of low-skilled positions in environmental clean-up and construction.⁴¹ In the immediate aftermath of an emergency, normal procedures meant to check the potential for trafficking may be temporarily suspended, as strapped government agencies and private contractors scramble to meet immediate needs. Such contexts represent opportunities for unethical recruitment and human trafficking to flourish.

2. Risks Related to the Country Supplying the Labor

Note: The country supplying the labor may or may not be the same as the country of production/service delivery, depending on whether the industry in question relies predominantly on a local/national workforce or a migrant one. In either case, the following factors related to labor supply are associated with increased risk for human trafficking.

a) Political Factors in the Country Supplying the Labor

Political instability or conflict: Workers in countries experiencing political upheaval or open conflict are at heightened risk for being trafficked due both to a decrease in the overall rule of law, and to increased general and personal insecurity, including increased likelihood of dislocation and dispossession. People in contexts experiencing profound political upheaval may lack options that enable them to resist exploitation by unethical recruiters or employers. Human trafficking vulnerability is often particularly acute for refugees.

High level of crime and violence: Workers in countries with high levels of crime and violence are often at increased risk for being trafficked, due to the increased vulnerability associated with individual economic or physical insecurity. In some cases, high levels of criminality and violence can also spawn forced migration.⁴² Trafficking risk may be particularly high in contexts controlled by organized crime syndicates, as these may be engaged directly in human trafficking as part of their broader criminal activities. High levels of crime and violence are also associated with low rule of law, suggesting that enforcement of protections for workers may also be relatively lax.

b) Socio-Economic Factors in the Country Supplying the Labor

Widespread poverty: The level and extent of poverty in a country is known to be a “push” factor for human trafficking. A recent UN ILO study of the economics of labor trafficking found that household food insecurity and the occurrence of income shocks that push people deeper into poverty are both strongly correlated with increased likelihood of being trafficked.⁴³ People suffering from extreme poverty generally have few options, and may take risks or make choices that increase their risk of being trafficked or caught in situations of forced labor. Impoverished migrants often rely on brokers to find them jobs overseas and facilitate their migration, and in the process incur debts that lock them into those jobs, even if they turn out to be different in nature, working conditions, or even location than had initially been promised. People who have had to put up title to the family farm as collateral on a loan to pay recruitment fees, or who have made the difficult decision to leave children or other family members behind in the hopes of earning enough to support them through work overseas, are not well-positioned to advocate for themselves in the face of unethical recruiters or employers seeking to exploit their labor illegally.⁴⁴

Widespread landlessness and dispossession: Countries in which large segments of the population have experienced loss of land or other property due to land grabs, political conflict, crime, natural disasters, forced resettlement, or economic policies resulting in dispossession are also at risk of human trafficking. When rural farmers are driven off their land by rebels, government officials, investors, environmental degradation, land fragmentation, or simple poverty, they become part of a landless underclass that has few economic options, and hence increased vulnerability to being trafficked.⁴⁵

High degree of gender inequality: A high degree of gender inequality in a country supplying labor may also be associated with risk of trafficking. In such contexts, women often have fewer rights and legal protections than men, and less access to the education necessary to obtain high-skilled jobs. Women may also be subject to discrimination in terms of wages, or in the kinds of jobs open to them. Women in gender unequal societies are often structurally dependent on men for financial security, leading women who lack access to male protection or wealth (for example, widows, unmarried women, and girls from poor families), with few resources of their own with which they might resist unethical recruiters and employers wishing to exploit their bodies or labor illegally.

c) Policy-Related Factors in the Country Supplying the Labor

Promotion of emigration/remittance economy: Countries that actively promote emigration of their citizens in anticipation of remittances may be at increased risk of trafficking, although this varies depending on the regulatory regime put in place to manage out-migration. When remittances from abroad represent a key element of national development strategies and GDP, governments have an incentive to encourage their citizens to accept overseas employment arrangements, whether or not they are in their best interests. State-facilitated emigration has the potential to protect migrants from exploitation and trafficking, particularly if government programs include training,

job placement and reintegration assistance, and a legal framework controlling and standardizing costs for migrants. When such programs are inadequately developed and supported in migrant-sending countries, however, the door is left open for unregulated flows of emigrants who are vulnerable to trafficking risks such as deceptive recruitment, payment of excessive recruitment fees, and debt bondage.

Lack of (or weak) bilateral agreements governing treatment of emigrant workers: Countries that lack robust bilateral agreements about immigrants' rights with the countries to which they send migrants pose an increased risk for trafficking. In the absence of such agreements, home country governments are in a weak position to enforce reasonable limits on recruitment fees or advocate for their citizens' rights once they arrive in the migrant-receiving country. The lack of a bilateral regulatory framework for migration may also enable unethical recruiters and employers within the receiving country to exploit their emigrants illegally, for example by emboldening them to retain migrants' passports, or to compel them to work overtime. Even when bilateral agreements do exist, if they are not created in a nontransparent and consultative way, they may not adequately reflect concrete worker rights protections, and therefore may not effectively meet their objective of protecting workers.

Failure to ratify ILO conventions related to forced labor or rights of migrant workers: Labor source countries that have not ratified key International Labor Organization conventions prohibiting forced labor and guaranteeing the rights of workers and migrants may be at greater risk of having problems with human trafficking. While not in itself causal, failure to sign on to such conventions is a red flag, due both to the absence of international scrutiny and to the lack of commitment to address the problem it suggests on the part of government.

d) Environmental Factors in the Country Supplying the Labor

Post natural disaster contexts: Countries that have recently experienced natural disasters may be at increased risk for trafficking, due to the dislocation and sudden impoverishment that often characterize the experience of survivors of environmental catastrophes. People directly harmed in disasters have often lost all or most of their personal resources, and may be physically or emotionally traumatized as well. Such people are at increased risk of vulnerability to human trafficking.⁴⁶

Ongoing contexts of environmental hardship: Countries with ongoing environmental challenges such as deforestation, fisheries collapse, recurring drought, or diseases affecting staple crops are also at greater risk for trafficking, due to the association of such hardships with pervasive poverty and insecurity. Trafficking risk caused by such environmental factors is likely to increase over time as a result of ongoing climate change.

Summary of Key Risk Factors for Human Trafficking in Global Supply Chains:

1. Hazardous/undesirable work
2. Vulnerable, low-skilled, easily replaced workforce
3. Migrant workforce
4. Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents, or other middlemen in labor supply chains
5. Long, complex, and/or non-transparent product supply chains
6. Substantial sourcing or subcontracting in high risk countries.

⁶ UN Human Rights Council. *Report of the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants, François Crépeau*. April 3, 2014. <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/SRMigrants/A.HRC.26.35.pdf>

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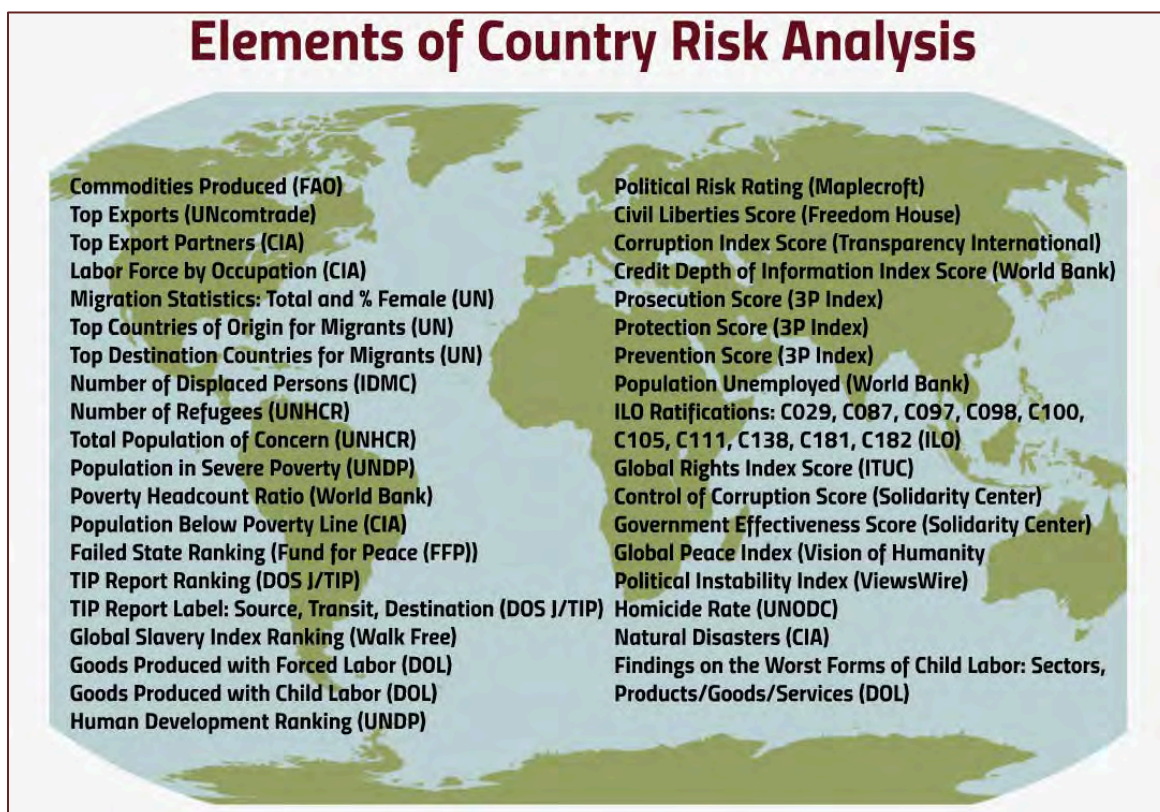
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III. Methods/Process for Supply Chain Research

Verité undertook four different kinds of broad research in order to gather the data for this report: research on specific countries, research on specific commodities, research on key economic sectors, and research on federal procurement patterns.

A. Country Research

The project began with research on each of the world's 235 countries and territories. An extensive spreadsheet was created collecting publicly available data on any variables that might be correlated with a country's likelihood of enabling or being at risk for human trafficking. The data points collected for each country included data on trade patterns; labor markets; migration and refugee flows; poverty and economic development levels; incidents of forced labor and child labor; political stability and instability; extent of rule of law; corruption levels; protections for civil liberties and human rights; participation in International Labor Organization labor rights conventions; and occurrence of natural disasters. A complete list of data collected is presented below:



Verité analyzed these and other data points and collaborated with Made in a Free World to develop a web-based tool for using them to evaluate the risk of trafficking associated with particular countries and supply chains. In some cases, preliminary analysis of trafficking risk in the major supply chains for specific sectors and commodities is incorporated into the sector and commodity reports below.

The key risk factors for human trafficking associated with specific geographic supply chains are summarized in the following two figures, one that addresses key risks associated with the country of production or service delivery, and the other risk factors associated with the country supplying the labor. Verité anticipates that these risk factors will form the analytic basis for the eventual web-based tool to be developed for evaluating human trafficking risk in specific supply chains.

Key Risk Factors Associated with the Country of Production or Service Delivery

- Low level of legal protections for civil liberties or workers' rights
- High level of corruption, lawlessness, and/or violence
- Emergent or crisis contexts requiring rapid labor deployment
- Policy environment encouraging immigrant labor without safeguarding migrants' rights

Key Risk Factors Associated with the Country Supplying the Labor

- High degree of poverty
- Widespread landlessness/dispossession
- Political instability and lawlessness (especially organized crime)
- Policy environment promoting emigration/remittance economy, without adequately safeguarding emigrants' rights
- Widespread vulnerability due to natural disaster, drought or other environmental hardships

B. Sector Research

To identify the sectors in the global economy most likely to be at risk for human trafficking, Verité first developed the analytic framework for evaluating risk factors for human trafficking presented in Section II of this report. To identify a comprehensive list of global economic sectors, Verité took the sector list offered by the UN International Labor Office as a starting point,⁴⁷ and evaluated each sector against the matrix of key risk factors developed in Section II. Based on this analysis, eleven sectors or industries were found to be most at risk. Reflecting Verité's accumulated understanding of the association of trafficking risk with certain kinds of economic activities, some of the ILO sectors were combined into umbrella categories, and others were disaggregated into subsectors, to allow for as targeted a discussion of human trafficking patterns as possible.

The eleven most at-risk sectors identified through this analysis are discussed in depth in the sector reports in Section IV below. Each report provides a macroeconomic overview of the global sector in question, discusses the key risk factors for human trafficking unique to it, describes specific case studies where examples of trafficking in persons have been uncovered within the sector, and, to the extent possible at this preliminary stage, discusses the geography of trafficking risk within the sector's main supply chains.

C. Federal Procurement Research

In addition to carrying out research on countries, commodities, and sectors, Verité also undertook research designed to identify overlap between federal procurement patterns and global supply chains at risk for trafficking in persons. Toward this end, Verité carried out an extensive analysis of the federal spend, examining both spending by individual federal agencies, and federal spending on particular kinds of goods and services. Using publicly available data from the Federal Procurement Data System (www.fpds.gov) and USASpending (www.usaspending.gov), as well as information garnered in interviews with key federal acquisitions officers, Verité examined federal procurement patterns for their intersection with the global economic sectors identified as being at heightened risk for human trafficking. The analysis documented the amount spent directly by the United States Government in key at-risk sectors, and in some cases also identified the scale of primary inputs from at-risk sectors lower down in key federal supply chains.

To the extent possible, Verité procurement research also sought to uncover relevant industry patterns in the supply of key federal purchases, for example the highly consolidated provision of military foodstuffs through central suppliers overseas, reliance on large-scale facilities and logistics management contractors, and the sourcing of uniforms and other manufactured goods from UNICOR/Federal Prison Industries.

Federal procurement within the key at-risk sectors is discussed at the conclusion of each sector report below.

D. Commodity Research

A second major area of Verité research has involved collection of information on 43 of the world's most important primary commodities. A master commodity spreadsheet was assembled of data points for each primary commodity on global production and trade patterns (main countries of production and consumption, and export-import data for key producers, importers, and for the United States), reports of forced labor or child labor associated with the commodity, and the names of any countries in which trafficking-related problems have been reported in associated with the commodity.

Using the general information assembled in this spreadsheet as a starting point, each key commodity was then researched in depth, with the findings compiled into a set of comprehensive commodity analyses. The individual commodity reports provide background on the production patterns and labor practices involved in the specific industry in question. They also describe the association of the commodity with forced labor or child labor, provide case studies of documented instances of human trafficking in the industry, describe the structure of the commodity supply chain and any links to other supply chains for which the commodity is a key input, and review examples of government or industry initiatives that exist to reduce human trafficking in conjunction with the commodity in question.

IV. Sectors with Significant Federal Procurement and Significant Risk of Human Trafficking

Agriculture

This sector report covers labor in agriculture and meat production and processing. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with particular agricultural commodities, see the commodity reports: [Bananas](#), [Beans and Pulses](#), [Cattle](#), [Citrus](#), [Cocoa](#), [Coffee](#), [Corn](#), [Cotton](#), [Flowers](#), [Melons](#), [Nuts](#), [Palm Oil](#), [Pineapple](#), [Rice](#), [Strawberries](#), [Sugar](#), [Sunflowers](#), [Tea](#), [Tobacco](#), [Tomatoes](#), and [Wheat](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Agriculture Sector:

Agriculture is used here to refer to the production of crops and livestock and animal products for both consumption and other uses. Key agricultural products include: cereals/grains, vegetables, roots/tubers, milk, fruit, meat, oil crops, eggs, and grain legumes.⁴⁸ The amount of labor needed varies depending on the type of crop. Labor intensive crops, particularly those that are hand-picked, may be more likely than mechanically harvested crops to engender labor rights abuses. These include: lettuce/greens, berries, oranges/citrus, apples, stone fruits, melons, tobacco, cotton, and greenhouses/nurseries. Workers are involved in a variety of tasks including preparation, planting, weed and pest removal, harvesting and initial processing/packing. Livestock production includes animal husbandry as well as meat processing and packing. Animal husbandry includes both small-scale and intensive factory farming.

Economy:

Over one billion people are employed in the agricultural sector worldwide. In 2009, 35 percent of global employment was in agriculture. Although agricultural growth is declining worldwide, it remains an important source of income and food security in many economies. Agriculture accounts for approximately 59 percent of employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, 44 percent in South East Asia and the Pacific, and 16 percent in Latin America.⁴⁹ Agricultural participation is lower in the European Union, at about five percent,⁵⁰ and approximately two percent in the United States.⁵¹

Although agriculture generates a relatively small part of its GDP (less than two percent), the United States is the world's leading exporter of agricultural products, in addition to being a strong market for domestic consumption.⁵² While the majority of farms in the United States are small operations ("rural residence farms"), the majority of production comes from a relatively small number of commercial farming operations. The United States Government supports the domestic agricultural sector primarily through a range of subsidy programs.

Globally, agriculture's contribution to GDP is approximately 3.2 percent.⁵³ However it plays a larger role in the economies of developing regions, especially in Africa. According to the World Bank, "agriculture accounts for 30 to 40 percent of Africa's total gross domestic product (GDP), and almost 60 percent of its total export earnings."⁵⁴

The meat and poultry industry is the largest segment of agriculture in the United States, and industrial farming operations constitute the vast majority of producers. Total meat and poultry production in 2011

reached more than 92.3 billion pounds, an increase of 200 million pounds from 2010. Worldwide, approximately 74 percent of poultry, 43 percent of beef, 50 percent of pork, and 68 percent of eggs are produced in industrial farms.⁵⁵

Workforce:

Multinational companies that trade and market commodities are increasing their share of the agricultural sector. As large companies use land previously used by farmers for subsistence farming, indigenous peasants engaged in subsistence agriculture are driven into paid work on larger farms or plantations. Large farms and plantations with considerable staffing needs are also more likely to rely on labor contractors, brokers, and recruiters to provide labor. Small-scale farms are more likely to operate informally. For example, those that hire only a few workers on a temporary basis may rely on verbal agreements in place of contracts.

There are two primary groups of farm workers: subsistence farmers and their families who work on their own land, and waged workers. Over 40 percent of agricultural workers are waged.⁵⁶ Waged workers do not own or rent the land on which they work or the tools and equipment that they use. There are many agricultural employment arrangements, including, “permanent agricultural workers; temporary agricultural workers; seasonal/casual agricultural workers; migrant agricultural workers; piece rate workers; or workers receiving some kind of in-kind payment.” Small-scale farmers may also work seasonally or part-time as waged agricultural workers to supplement their incomes from subsistence agriculture.⁵⁷

Agricultural workers generally earn low wages and earn less than workers in industrial settings. The wide variety of employment arrangements and the high levels of informal agreements lead to low levels of organization and unionization. Further, agricultural workers are often excluded from legal protections, including on wages, hours, and working conditions.

Processed Foods

“Processed food” refers to foodstuffs that have been processed, converted, prepared, preserved and/or packaged.⁵⁸ This sector also includes beverage production. Processing can be mechanized, or done by hand in a more labor intensive form. Types of labor include production workers (skilled precision workers, machine operators, line workers), graders, sorters, packagers, transporters/drivers, supervisors, and managerial and professional workers.⁵⁹ Processed foods include highly processed foods, such as snack foods with many ingredients, as well as items such as bread and cheese.

The growth of the world’s food market has largely been attributed to the growth of processed foods and drinks, and the sector represents one of the largest manufacturing sectors in the United States.⁶⁰ The majority of the growth in the sector, however, has been in developing countries, such as Brazil and China. Despite the growth of the sector, employment has grown at a slower pace due to increased mechanization.

The workforce is generally low-skilled, with the majority of production or line positions requiring little formal education.⁶¹ Due to the low-skilled nature of work and low barriers to entry, many jobs in the sector are held by vulnerable populations including minority and migrant workers.⁶² As in other sectors, including agriculture more broadly, migrant workers are vulnerable to a constellation of indicators of trafficking. They may have debt linked to their recruitment process, or their visa status may tie them to a single employer.⁶³ Undocumented migrants may be susceptible to intimidation and threats of deportation.

While specific data is not disaggregated from broader data on workers in all types of manufacturing, many jobs in the food processing sector are temporary, casual, part-time, or contracted, and workers often lack social protections afforded to workers in other sectors.⁶⁴ Many of these “temporary” workers are

hired through third-party staffing agencies, and thus often lack a direct employment relationship with their worksite.⁶⁵ In the United States, 42 percent of temporary workers were in light industry, which encompasses most food processing workers.⁶⁶ According to the National Employment Law Project, these workers face vulnerabilities including greater health and safety risks, wage theft, and discrimination.⁶⁷ Further, workers may be classified as “temporary” even if they have been engaged at the same workplace for years.⁶⁸ Migrant and minority workers are also overrepresented among temporary and contracted workers in the United States.⁶⁹ The food processing sector in the UK has been similarly linked to temporary, subcontracted workers and migrant workers.⁷⁰ Demand for many processed foods ebbs and flows on a seasonal basis,⁷¹ so food manufacturers may prefer temporary work arrangements for seasonal flexibility.

Like other forms of manufacturing, global food processing may take place in Export Processing Zones (EPZs), where labor protections are weaker and governments have lower levels of oversight.⁷² Another potential risk area is small, informal food processing plants in developing countries, where workers are more likely to have unfavorable conditions of work than workers in more formal work settings, according to the ILO.⁷³

Food processing work is one of the most hazardous sub-sectors in manufacturing. Hazards include extreme temperatures and noise, repetitive motions, and slips and falls.⁷⁴ Workers also operate heavy machinery that can be hazardous without adequate protective mechanisms. In 2012, workers in the food processing sector in the United States were injured at a greater rate than workers in manufacturing more broadly.⁷⁵ In New York City alone, a recent study found that over 40 percent of food processing workers had been injured on the job.⁷⁶ Additional examples include a Guatemalan migrant worker who died in 2011 after falling into an industrial dough mixer at a tortilla production plant in Brooklyn, New York⁷⁷ and in that same year, a worker died after being crushed in a hummus grinder in Massachusetts.⁷⁸

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State’s 2014 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted evidence of human trafficking in the agriculture sector in the following countries: Afghanistan, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Barbados, Benin, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Comoros, Costa Rica, Cote d’Ivoire, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Eritrea, Fiji, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Hungary, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mexico, Mongolia, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, North Korea, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Slovakia, Somalia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, St. Vincent and the Grenadine, Syria, Swaziland, Switzerland, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Uganda, Ukraine, United Kingdom, Uruguay, United States, Uzbekistan, Vietnam, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.⁷⁹

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

According to the ILO, agriculture is one of the most hazardous sectors in the world, accounting for approximately half of all fatal accidents. The ILO notes that rates of accidents have stayed relatively steady in agriculture, even as they have fallen in other fields. Further, because of the casual nature of much of the agricultural sector, actual rates are likely to be much higher due to a lack of monitoring and the fact that many accidents go unreported.⁸⁰ Although specific risks vary depending on the crop or sector, general risks include physically demanding work, exposure to extreme weather, carrying heavy loads, repetitive motions, use of dangerous tools and equipment, exposure to pesticides and agrochemicals, animal attacks, and working at heights. Because of the hazardous nature of some of the

work in the agricultural sector, child labor in the sector sometimes falls under the worst forms of child labor. It is important to note that not all child work in agriculture constitutes child labor or worst form of child labor – this is particularly the case on farms where work is light, tasks are age-appropriate, and work does not interfere with educational opportunities. In many cases, light agricultural work is culturally viewed as an opportunity for the child to gain livelihood skills and contribute to the family’s food security. However, because of the hazardous nature of many agricultural tasks, the appropriateness of the task is critical.

Heatstroke is a leading cause of farmworker death. Farmworkers are at great risk for heatstroke and other heat-related illnesses because of the amount of time they spend in the direct sun, particularly during warmer months. Heavy clothing required for some jobs can exacerbate the problem. Further, many workers do not have access to potable water and are not afforded breaks or shade.⁸¹

Some risks are crop-specific, such as green tobacco sickness (GTS) in tobacco harvesting. GTS is a result of nicotine absorbed through the skin and can cause nausea, vomiting, headaches, muscle weakness, and dizziness.⁸²

According to the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), “the meat slaughtering, processing, and packaging industry has long been associated with a high rate of accidents, injuries, and illnesses.”⁸³ As described by Human Rights Watch, workers in these plants must work on lines that move far too quickly for worker safety. Repetitive motion injuries are particularly common. Workers may also be required to work long overtime hours, under threat of dismissal for refusing to do so.⁸⁴

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Due to the extent of smallholder farms in global agriculture, much of agricultural labor takes place in the informal economy, which tends to be less regulated. Even on commercial farms, agricultural labor is often excluded from labor protections afforded to other sectors.⁸⁵ Wages are often lower than in other sectors, and are often paid on a piece-rate or quota basis. Piece-rate wages (paid by volume, weight or number of product harvested) create a risk that workers will be paid extremely low wages, possibly under the legal minimum wage. Further, piece-rate wage structures create disincentives to take breaks, increasing the risk of heat-related illnesses. Quotas may lead to financial penalties for workers who fail to meet them. In the Liberian rubber sector, tappers are paid by production and have a quota of the number of trees they must tap per day. Those who do not reach the quota are subject to financial penalties. Additionally, wages may vary from month-to-month as paycheck deductions are made for food, school fees, and savings.⁸⁶ Both piece-rate and quota wage structures also encourage workers to use family labor or informal sub-contracted workers, including children.

The ILO estimates that 60 percent of all children engaged in child labor work in agriculture.⁸⁷ Most are unpaid family members working on family farms, although some also work alongside their parents in waged agricultural jobs or independently. There is a relatively low age of entry for child labor in agriculture, with some children starting as young as five- to seven-years-old. “Push” factors for child labor in agriculture include poverty, limited access to education, and “traditional attitudes towards children’s participation in agricultural activities.”⁸⁸ Children may be more likely to work on farms during peak labor periods, such as planting and harvesting.⁸⁹ When harvests overlap with the school year, children are likely to leave school at least temporarily. For example, in rice growing regions of Uganda, up to 50 percent of children leave school for the harvest.⁹⁰ Children of migrant farmworkers, who are likely to work on farms themselves, may also be more likely to abandon their education early. Particularly when migrant families move following crop cycles, children do not have an opportunity to stay enrolled in school.⁹¹ In some countries, including the United States, the legal minimum age for employment in the agricultural sector is lower than in other sectors. This reflects traditional attitudes that farm labor provides children with economic and social opportunity.⁹²

Women produce half of the world's food and up to approximately 90 percent of staple crops, primarily as smallholder or subsistence farmers.⁹³ However, most women lack access to credit, inputs, markets, training, and tools.⁹⁴ Further, much of women's labor in agriculture is unpaid. In the case of family labor, even when a woman is responsible for the majority of the planning and labor, she may be required to cede control of the profits to her husband. As hired wage labor on larger farms, women may work towards their husbands' quotas or piece-rates, never receiving their own pay. Further, women in agriculture often face high levels of sexual abuse and harassment. In the United States, there have been documented cases of migrant farm workers facing high rates of abuse at the hands of farm labor contractors, who oversee workers' hours, wages and living arrangements. Often fear of retaliation or deportation strongly discourages women from reporting abuse.⁹⁵

Smallholder farmers also face myriad challenges including lack of access to markets, lack of capital for input purchases, high marketing costs, and limited resources including labor and land.⁹⁶ Further, farmers face price volatility – particularly of commodity crop prices – and in some years, may operate on extremely slim, or even negative profit margins.⁹⁷ Some farmers may face increasing debt as they take out loans – possibly with disadvantageous terms – to finance their operations. The NYU School of Law Center for Human Rights and Global Justice describes how economic reforms and global market forces have led to sharply decreased profits for Indian cotton farmers. These farmers frequently finish a crop cycle without enough money to purchase inputs for the following year, leading them to take on increasing loans with high interest rates. This creates a cycle of debt.⁹⁸ Indebted farmers may be more likely to rely on unpaid family labor, including child labor.⁹⁹

Vulnerability to forced and child labor can be linked to land rights and land share agreements. In Malawi, tobacco farming families make agreements with landowners whereby they receive a portion of the profit from the tobacco harvest in exchange for labor in growing and harvesting the crop.¹⁰⁰ Tenants are generally expected to pay for seeds and other expenses. Because this system rarely results in profit for the tenants, they remain in a situation of debt bondage.¹⁰¹ In Pakistan, over 75 percent of land is owned by about five percent of farmers, leaving over one half of farmers landless.¹⁰² Poor and landless farmers often work in sharecropping agreements and many are indebted to landowners, forcing them to work under debt bondage. In some cases, indebted landless farmers may be sold to other landowners.¹⁰³

Subsistence farmers who have been forced off of their land by land grabs are especially vulnerable to becoming victims of labor exploitation and human trafficking. In the Guatemalan palm oil sector, Verité research found examples of subsistence farmers who sold their land due to coercion and deceit, including false promises of permanent jobs or rumors that their land would be flooded by a hydroelectric dam. These farmers became completely dependent upon the palm plantations for employment, as there were few other jobs in the area and they no longer had land on which to plant their own crops. Permanent jobs did not materialize in palm plantations and they were instead given temporary employment and paid sub-minimum wages. When they complained or protested, they were blacklisted. Therefore, these workers had to either tolerate the substandard conditions or move out of the areas in which they had grown up.¹⁰⁴

In many cases, agricultural workers are housed and fed by their employers, who sometimes make excessive deductions from workers' wages for these services. Employer-provided housing and food are in many cases sub-standard, and workers generally have no other options available if they wish to continue working on the farms. This also creates multiple levels of dependency on their employers, an indicator of labor trafficking. For example, Verité research in Guatemala revealed that most coffee sector workers lived in *galeras*, which are long buildings that generally have roofs but have dirt floors and sometimes lack doors.¹⁰⁵ In the palm oil sector, hundreds of workers are housed in each *galera* and are provided with cots or bunk beds that are located in close proximity to one another and lack privacy or access to safe places in which to store their possessions.¹⁰⁶ Verité interviewed 372 workers employed in Guatemala's

coffee sector, 241 (64.8 percent) of whom reported that they lived in employer-provided housing and only one worker (0.3 percent) reported having alternative housing options. As almost two-thirds of workers depended upon their employer for housing, dismissal from their jobs would inherently mean the loss of shelter, even if eviction were not explicitly threatened. Of the 372 workers interviewed, 46 percent reported that their housing did not provide them with enough space, 34.1 percent reported the housing was unclean, 60 percent reported their housing was unsafe, and 96 percent reported their housing lacked a kitchen. In addition, 165 workers (44.4 percent of the 372 workers interviewed) reported that their employer had provided them with food, and 78 (21 percent) reported being charged for food. Seventy-nine percent of workers interviewed reported not having enough food to eat while they were working on coffee fincas.¹⁰⁷

Migrant Workforce:

There is a high degree of migrant labor in agriculture. In economically developed countries, the migrant worker population tends to be composed of transnational migrants from poorer countries.¹⁰⁸ For example, the majority of migrant workers in the United States are from Latin American countries and migrant workers from sub-Saharan Africa work in agriculture in European countries.¹⁰⁹ In developing economy countries with higher rates of subsistence agriculture, there are lower rates of transnational migrants, but there are large numbers of internal migrants in the agricultural sector. Migrants may settle near a particular farm, “shuttle” between their home and worksite, or follow crop harvesting cycles from farm to farm.¹¹⁰ In some cases, migrant workers may work in subsistence agriculture on their own land during part of the year, and migrate to larger farms or plantations during labor intensive harvesting seasons.

In the United States, migrant workers in agriculture come primarily from Mexico, Guatemala, and other Latin American countries. These migrant workers are employed in crop agriculture, animal husbandry, and meat processing. Migrant agricultural workers may enter the United States on a visa or they may be undocumented. Migrants may be provided with H-2A visas for most low-skilled agricultural work, but forestry workers may be employed under H-2B visas. The H-2 program is widely criticized by worker advocates for lacking adequate protections for work, health, and housing; legalizing the payment of subminimum wages; and – because workers are, for practical purposes, bound to work for one or more employers – entrapping workers at specified worksites for the duration of their stay in the United States.¹¹¹ Many H-2B visa holders face especially egregious violations, including in some cases, huge salary deductions. This in turn often makes it virtually impossible to pay back loans taken out to secure jobs, thereby perpetuating the cycle of debt bondage (see the [Guestworker Visas](#) pullout box for more information).¹¹² Because of the lack of protections, there have been cases of workers entering the United States on H-2B visas and then being forced to work in agriculture.

Undocumented workers are also vulnerable to human trafficking in agriculture in the United States. These workers, the vast majority of whom are from Latin America, are typically smuggled or trafficked over the border with Mexico by “coyotes,” who are, in some cases, also their labor brokers or employers. Because of their undocumented status, these workers are by nature more vulnerable to abusive labor practices and human trafficking. In some egregious cases, coyotes hold workers hostage either until their families pay additional money or until they provide a certain amount of labor.¹¹³ Agricultural jobs, which are generally undesirable in the United States, may be the only viable livelihood option for these workers. A Human Rights Watch report on workers in meat processing quoted a worker who said “they have us under threat all the time. They know most of us are undocumented – probably two-thirds. All they care about is getting bodies into the plant. My supervisor said they’ll call the INS if we make trouble.”¹¹⁴

Migrant workers in the United States working in agriculture tend to continue their movement once in the country. Most workers follow seasonal harvests in established “streams.” In the East, workers move from Florida to Ohio, New York and Maine. Workers in the Midwest travel a circuit of nearly every

Midwestern state. The West stream begins in California and travels up the coast to Washington, and sometimes to North Dakota.¹¹⁵

The crop cycle timeline can increase the vulnerability of agricultural migrant workers to human trafficking. Farmers who hire migrant workers, whether international or domestic migrants, may not pay them until their crops are sold at harvest. This delayed payment limits workers' ability to leave the worksite or job if the working conditions deteriorate. For example, some workers on coffee plantations in Guatemala are not paid until the end of the season. They are told that if they leave, or do not harvest adequate amounts of coffee beans, they will be denied their pay for the entire season.¹¹⁶ These workers may be more likely to solicit loans from their employer or other money lenders to cover their living expenses, leaving them vulnerable to debt bondage.

Migration of entire families in the agricultural sector can also increase the risk of worst forms of child labor. For example, relatively wealthier countries with booming banana sectors, including the Dominican Republic and Costa Rica rely heavily on migrant workers from countries such as Nicaragua and Haiti. Child labor often occurs when children accompany their parents to plantations to supplement family income.¹¹⁷ Migrant children may accompany their parents to the fields because they lack access to education. A 2010 Human Rights Watch report on the tobacco sector in Kazakhstan found that migrant families experienced indicators of labor trafficking such as document retention and withholding of wages. Children were also found to be harvesting tobacco with their parents in an effort to help their parents harvest enough tobacco to earn a reasonable end-of-season payment.¹¹⁸ In West Africa, juveniles who migrate both independently and through brokers are engaged in trafficking in the cocoa and cotton sectors. In some cases, these children migrate within well established family or community "kinship" systems. Although the migration may be voluntary initially, juveniles may be exploited upon arrival, including in forced labor.

Agricultural worksites are often geographically remote, leading to the isolation of migrant workers, limiting their ability to leave the worksite or even to communicate with the outside world. This isolation is compounded via document retention and the threat of deportation. In the sugar sector of the Dominican Republic, for example, instances have been found in which Haitian workers were physically confined to sugar plantations, sometimes under armed guard, and their migrant worker identity cards were retained, leaving them unable to leave the plantation.¹¹⁹ A lack of documentation, support systems, and local language skills result in another level of social isolation of migrant workers and make it difficult for them to file complaints if their rights are violated.

Internal Verité research has found that migrant workers at industrial meat production and processing facilities in developing countries face similar risks to workers in other types of factory settings in that country. If a country's factory workforce is heavily dependent on migrants (either international or domestic workers), those workers are likely to be heavily represented in the industrial farm sector. For example, at industrial farms in Malaysia, migrant workers face risks of human trafficking indicators similar to workers at other factories in the country.

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chain:

Labor recruiters play a variety of roles in agriculture, and labor in the agricultural sector is increasingly subcontracted.¹²⁰ The mechanisms of broker-induced labor trafficking vary depending on countries and contexts. In the Indian sugar sector, migrant workers in the state of Tamil Nadu are recruited by labor brokers who provide advances for transportation and living expenses, to be repaid at the end of the harvest season. However, due to high quotas as well as the disparity in power and information between brokers and workers, workers often end the season in debt.¹²¹ In the Guatemalan palm oil sector, workers are recruited from impoverished rural areas through labor contractors. The contractors deceive workers about conditions of work, and charge workers fees of up to 20 percent of their pay.¹²² In Malaysia,

workers from Southeast Asia recruited by labor brokers are reportedly trafficked to work on palm oil plantations.¹²³

Labor “cooperatives” sometimes act as employment agencies.¹²⁴ These are not cooperatives in the traditional sense, in which small and medium enterprises jointly maximize their marketing potential. Instead, these worker cooperatives recruit workers into a larger labor pool and contract this labor out to plantations or other employers.¹²⁵ In these cases, the cooperative functions similarly to an employment agency or labor recruiter. The worker’s employment relationship is with the cooperative, rather than the plantation. These cooperatives are prevalent in certain industries in Colombia and the Philippines.¹²⁶

In some cases, labor intermediaries in the agricultural sector are highly informal – particularly for children. A study of child workers in the cocoa sector found that of children recruited by an intermediary, 94 percent in Cote d’Ivoire knew the recruiting intermediary personally, as the intermediary often has connections to the child’s home village.¹²⁷

In the United States, farm labor contractors or “crew leaders” provide labor to farmers. Various types of contractors provide an estimated 75 percent of farm labor in California.¹²⁸ Some labor contractors work for large formal operations and have their own subcontractors, while others are individuals operating independently. Some labor contractors manage workers on site and provide housing and transportation. The presence of these labor contractors creates a barrier between farmers and the workers on their farms, leaving workers vulnerable to sub-minimum wages, high deductions, and unsafe housing and transportation. Even when employers pay labor contractors above the minimum wage per each worker employed, these payments are often not passed onto workers by the labor contractors, who make excessive deductions for transportation, housing, food, and other services. There have also been cases in which labor contractors have threatened and beaten workers who have tried to leave their employment.¹²⁹

Long, Complex, and/or Non-Transparent Supply Chains:

There are many permutations of agricultural supply chains. Some are relatively short and transparent. Some fruit/vegetable products, for example, may be harvested, packaged, and then distributed to retailers. This is more likely to be true for “whole” products (e.g., apples). Where agricultural products are used as ingredients in processed food products, more processing steps are involved, and materials from many different suppliers are likely to be combined at the processing level. Actors involved in the supply chain from agricultural raw material to food or beverage product include:¹³⁰

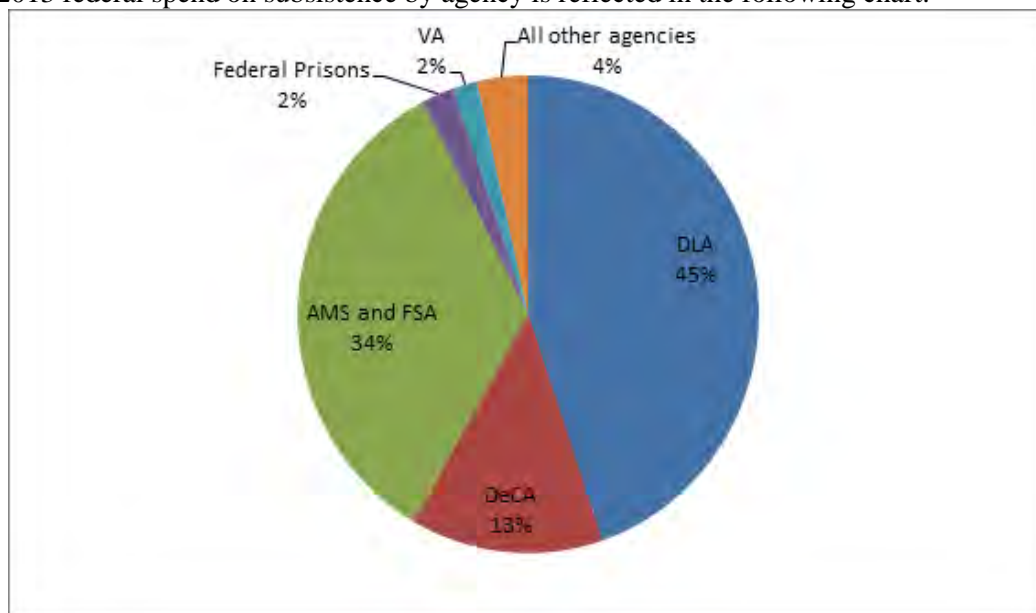
- Supplier: provides materials to another company. May include producer, co-manufacturer, repacker.
- Brokers: facilitate transactions between buyers and sellers. May purchase goods from producers or other brokers and sell to processors.
- Manufacturer: Produces finished products and owns the brand name, processes and product specifications.
- Co-manufacturer: transforms food product, but does not own brand name. Supplies finished goods on contract agreement.
- Distribution channel: chain of intermediaries passing the product along the chain before it reaches end-user.
- Distributor: A company or individual arranging for transfer of goods, but who does not produce goods.
- Re-packer: Re-packs products manufactured elsewhere.
- Shipper: transports products. Shipper may or may not be manufacturer, is often a third party. Shipper may also be separate from the transporter.

The involvement of each type of actor can further obscure an ingredient’s origins, leaving the end-user with little visibility into working conditions.

Federal Procurement in the Agriculture Sector:²

Agricultural goods and processed foods derived from them are procured by a number of federal agencies. The largest spender is the Defense Logistics Agency (DLA), which buys nearly all subsistence provisions for the nation's armed forces. The DLA is joined by the Defense Commissary Agency (DeCA), which purchases food to stock the military commissaries. The other principal spenders in this sector are the USDA's Agricultural Marketing Service and Farm Service Agency (FSA), which purchase bulk foodstuffs through their commodity and dairy price support programs. Agricultural and dairy products bought through these programs are then channeled into a variety of federal domestic feeding initiatives, including the National School Lunch and Breakfast Programs, Supplemental Nutrition for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC), the Commodity Supplemental Food Program (CSFP), the Food Distribution Program on Indian Reservations (FDPIR), the Emergency Food Assistance Program (TEFAP), and the Disaster Assistance Program. They are also distributed to foreign countries through USAID, the World Food Program, private voluntary agencies, and bilateral government transfers. Agricultural commodities and processed foods are additionally purchased by the Federal Prison System and the Veterans Administration. Other agencies, such as the Federal Emergency Management Authority (FEMA) and US Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) also purchase foodstuffs at smaller levels. In FY2013, the United States Government spent \$6.783 billion on subsistence (PSC 89%). Of this, \$2.484 billion was spent overseas, almost entirely by DLA and DeCA. Contracts greater than \$500,000 amounted to \$598 million. Many recurring overseas food contracts fell just below the \$500,000 threshold for EO scrutiny, with another \$314 million spent overseas on purchases in the \$480-500,000 range.

The FY2013 federal spend on subsistence by agency is reflected in the following chart:



Source: Federal Procurement Data System. <https://www.fpds.gov/>

Food procurement by United States federal agencies is relatively consolidated, with most big purchases made through a fairly small number of major contractors. This is particularly true overseas, where a single Swiss company, Supreme Foodservice, provides 82 percent (\$2.03 billion in FY2013) of all food

²All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

purchased by the US abroad. In the US, contracts from the Defense Commissary Agency in excess of \$1 million went to only ten companies in FY2013, with Tyson Fresh Meats leading the pack. Grains and other foodstuffs for the Farm Service Agency's commodity operations are sourced from similarly large agriculture corporations, including Cargill, Archer Daniels Midland, and Conagra Foods.

⁴⁷ International Labour Organization (ILO), Sectoral Activities Department (SECTOR).

<http://www.ilo.org/sector/lang--en/index.htm>

⁴⁸ Food and Agriculture Association of the United Nations. <http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/download/Q/QC/E>

⁴⁹ International Labour Organization. *Industries and Sectors – Agriculture, Plantations, Other Rural Sectors*. <http://www.ilo.org/global/industries-and-sectors/agriculture-plantations-other-rural-sectors/lang--en/index.htm>

⁵⁰ European Commission. *How many people work in agriculture in the European Union?* July 2013.

http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/rural-area-economics/briefs/pdf/08_en.pdf

⁵¹ World Bank. *Agriculture Employment Indicators*. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.AGR.EMPL.ZS>

⁵² The World Factbook. *GDP – Composition, by sector and origin*. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2012.html>

⁵³ United Nations Office of the Special Advisor on Africa (OSAA) and the NEPAD-OECD Africa Investment Initiative. *Africa Fact Sheet: Main Economic Indicators*.

<http://www.oecd.org/investment/investmentfordevelopment/47452483.pdf>

⁵⁴ International Food Policy Institute. *Agriculture's Critical Role in Africa's Development*. May 19, 2009.

<http://www.ifpri.org/publication/agriculture-s-critical-role-africa-s-development>

⁵⁵ Nierenberg, Danielle. "Rethinking the Global Meat Industry." *World Watch Institute*.

<http://www.worldwatch.org/node/3993>

⁵⁶ Peter Hurst and Peter Kirby. *Health, Safety and Environment: A Series of Trade Union Education Manuals for Agricultural Workers*. International Labour Organization. 2004. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---actrav/documents/publication/wcms_111413.pdf

⁵⁷ Peter Hurst and Peter Kirby. *Health, Safety and Environment: A Series of Trade Union Education Manuals for Agricultural Workers*. International Labour Organization. 2004. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---actrav/documents/publication/wcms_111413.pdf

⁵⁸ Graham, J. C.; Jensen, G., Malagie, M., Smith; Donald L. *Food Industry Processes*. International Labour Organization. 2011. <http://www.ilo.org/oshenc/part-x/food-industry/overview-and-health-effects/item/857-food-industry-processes>

⁵⁹ Food Processing HR Council. *Industry Overview*. <http://www.fphrc.com/en/careers/overview.aspx>

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Construction

This report covers labor on construction sites. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with particular construction materials, see the [Forestry](#) sector report and the commodity reports: [Bricks](#), [Copper](#), [Granite and Other Stone](#), [Gravel and Crushed Stone](#), and [Steel](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Construction Sector:

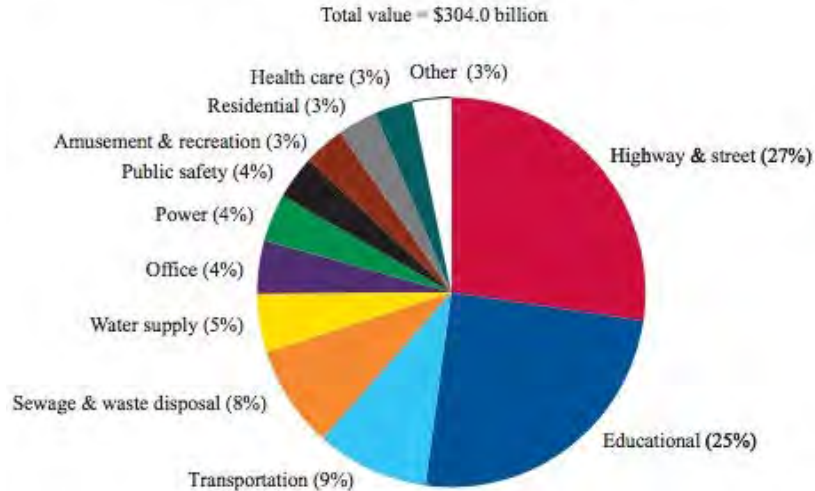
The construction sector covers a wide variety of economic activity, including the building, maintenance, demolition, renovation and repair of structures including houses, industrial facilities, airports, roads, bridges, and stadiums.¹³¹ Enterprises within the construction sector can include self-employed individuals, labor contractors, materials suppliers and international engineering firms.¹³² Wood, brick, nails and power tools are some of the many materials and tools used on construction sites.

Economy:

Construction is one of the largest industrial sectors in the world, and it accounts for more than 11 percent of global GDP.¹³³ Growth in this sector outpaces global GDP¹³⁴ and is among the fastest growing labor markets in developing countries.¹³⁵ A recent report published by Global Construction Perspectives and Oxford Economics predicted that by 2025, construction output would grow by more than 70 percent to \$15 trillion globally.¹³⁶ The same report found that countries expected to experience the most growth in this sector include China, India, Russia, Brazil, Poland, and the United States,¹³⁷ with China, India, and the United States accounting for almost 60 percent of global growth.¹³⁸ In 2010 China overtook the United States as the biggest construction market.¹³⁹ In Europe, it is forecasted that the construction market will shrink by five percent from 2007 to 2025.¹⁴⁰

In 2006 the construction sector accounted for nine percent of the United States GDP, with spending amounting to \$1.1 trillion.¹⁴¹ In 2010 the construction sector accounted for 3.5 percent of the total GDP in the United States. This reflects a decline in construction activity since a peak in 2006 when the industry contributed over five percent to national GDP. Total spending in 2010 amounted to \$804.6 billion, a 31 percent decrease from 2006. More money is spent on private construction than public construction, although private construction experienced a much more dramatic decrease in spending after 2006, while public construction only experienced a minor decline. Construction on highways and streets made up the largest share of public spending on construction, with construction of educational facilities making up the second largest.¹⁴²

Share of dollar value of public sector construction, by type, 2010



Source: CPWR – The Center for Construction Research and Training. *The Construction Chart Book*. 2013
<http://www.cpwr.com/sites/default/files/publications/5th%20Edition%20Chart%20Book%20Final.pdf>

There were over 3.3 million construction firms in the United States in 2010. Approximately three-quarters of these enterprises were non-employer firms, owned and operated by one individual with no payroll, people likely working either as freelance individual contractors or reliant on subcontractors for additional labor. Of the construction establishments with multiple employees, about 80 percent employed less than 10 workers.¹⁴³ The low rate of directly-hired employees indicate that the use of temporary workers and day laborers is likely widespread in the industry.

Workforce:

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics divides the construction sector into three subsectors: Construction of Buildings, Heavy and Civil Engineering Construction, and Specialty Trade Contractors. Construction laborers make up the largest occupation within the sector, with 667,680 employed in the United States as of 2013. In addition, 484,280 work as carpenters, 403,210 work as electricians, 208,870 work as operating engineers and other construction equipment operators, and 169,660 are employed as construction managers.¹⁴⁴ Construction laborers – as discussed below – tend to be at higher risk for trafficking and labor exploitation due to intersecting points of vulnerability: there are low barriers of entry to gain employment, the work is low-waged, laborers are disproportionately migrant workers, and the work is hazardous.

The most recent estimates from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics drawing from surveys of business establishments show that 6,166,000 workers were employed in the construction sector as of December 2014.¹⁴⁵ Results from the 2013 Current Population Survey, which include individuals who are self-employed, show the number of people employed in the construction sector in the United States to be 9,271,000.¹⁴⁶ There are several reasons for the differences between these total employment numbers, potentially including the prevalence of self-employed laborers in the construction industry. Self-employed workers do not enjoy the same legal protections and job security as those employed directly by firms, making them more vulnerable to human trafficking and exploitation. The prevalence of self-employed workers, coupled with the high number of construction firms with very few employees on their payroll, is also evidence that many firms rely on temporary workers or day laborers.

According to the Current Population Survey, women account for 9.1 percent of the total construction workforce. Hispanic or Latino workers make up 25.5 percent of the construction workforce.¹⁴⁷

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State's 2014 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted evidence of human trafficking in the construction sector in the following countries: Angola, Aruba, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Benin, Brazil, Cameroon, Canada, Chile, Costa Rica, Cote d'Ivoire, Curacao, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Dominican Republic, Egypt, El Salvador, Eritrea, Equatorial Guinea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Haiti, India, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Israel, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Kyrgyz Republic (Kyrgyzstan), Laos, Libya, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Maldives, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Morocco, Namibia, Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Qatar, Russia, St Maarten, Seychelles, Slovakia, Slovenia, Somalia, South Sudan, Spain, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkmenistan, Turkey, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uzbekistan, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.¹⁴⁸

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

The ILO defines construction as one of the most hazardous sectors for workers. Construction workers perform extremely physical work; typical tasks can include hauling heavy loads, stacking materials, using hand tools, and operating specialized equipment. Work is often performed outdoors and workers can be exposed to adverse weather conditions. Construction sites can be dangerous; laborers often work at heights and are exposed to dusts, vapor, asbestos, and other chemicals that may be harmful to their health and safety.¹⁴⁹

Every year at least 108,000 workers are killed on construction work sites worldwide. About 30 percent of all occupational fatal injuries occur in the construction sector. In developed countries, a construction worker is three to four times more likely to die on the job than workers in other sectors, while in developing countries, this likelihood increases to three to six times more likely.¹⁵⁰ According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 824 fatalities occurred in the construction sector in the United States in 2013.¹⁵¹ The four most common causes of death in the construction industry between the years of 1992 and 2010 were falls from heights, roadside incidents, contact with electric current, and being hit by an object. These types of incidents accounted for more than 65 percent of construction fatalities.¹⁵²

Numerous reports on the abuses of construction workers building facilities and stadiums for the 2022 World Cup in Qatar have highlighted the hazardous nature of the work. In fall 2013, the British newspaper the *Guardian* reported that Nepalese workers had died at the rate of almost one person a day during the previous summer, more than half from "heart attacks, heart failure or workplace accidents."¹⁵³ Human trafficking in construction for the World Cup in Qatar will be discussed in more detail below.

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

According to the ILO, construction is one of the primary sectors in which workers are highly vulnerable to human trafficking.¹⁵⁴ Because there are no formal training requirements for construction laborers, these low-skilled jobs are paid lower wages than more high-skilled construction sector jobs such as plumbers, electricians, and engineers.¹⁵⁵ These workers can be intimidated by the fact that should they express grievances, they can be quickly replaced.

Temporary or casual workers, including day-laborers, are a particularly vulnerable group. Incomes of temporary construction workers can be highly variable and seasonal. Temporary workers are "at-will" employees, and can be let go at any time, which discourages any expression of grievance. Economic insecurity may encourage them to accept poor working conditions such as forced overtime, abuse or harassment by supervisors. A report on day-laborers in North Carolina found that wage-theft is commonplace.¹⁵⁶

In some cases, trafficking in construction has been associated with state governments. The Burmese military, known as the *Tatmadaw*, has forced civilians, many of whom are ethnic minorities, to work on state infrastructure projects in Burma.¹⁵⁷ According to numerous reports, the *Tatmadaw* has forced local villagers throughout Burma to work on the construction of roads, bridges, military facilities, and other state infrastructure projects. In 2008, it was reported that the *Tatmadaw* utilized information collected on state registration documents on the number of habitants living in households to determine how many people from whom labor could be demanded. They then took people from their local villages under the threat of fines, and made them work without remuneration.¹⁵⁸ While reports of trafficking have decreased following the end of outright military rule and the creation of a forced labor complaint mechanism in cooperation with the ILO, cases continue to be reported, largely in the Karen state.¹⁵⁹

Children are involved in construction in countries including Guatemala, Haiti, Bhutan, Brazil, Somalia, Rwanda, and Honduras.¹⁶⁰ Because of the hazardous nature of tasks, children's participation in the construction sector is generally a worst form of child labor. Children in the construction sector are engaged in heights, carry heavy loads, and use dangerous machinery.

Migrant Workforce:

Migrant workers make up a significant proportion of the workforce on most construction sites and are particularly vulnerable to labor exploitation and human trafficking. Migrant workers often work informally and they suffer from the risks that many low-skilled migrant workers face, including low wages and the lack of social and/or legal protections. Lack of visa portability, confiscation of passports, and high recruitment fees are some of the numerous risks that make migrant construction workers highly vulnerable to human trafficking.

According to data published by the Pew Research Center, 22.6 percent of laborers in the construction sector in the United States are foreign-born, with more than half of those workers coming from Mexico. Other migrant construction workers are mostly from Central America, the Caribbean and Southeast Asia.¹⁶¹ According to a report published by the Workers Defense Project approximately 14 percent of construction workers in the United States are undocumented.¹⁶² This figure varies by region and task performed. Undocumented workers make up an estimated 30 percent of insulation workers, roofers and drywall installers. Local workers tend to hold managerial positions, while migrant workers make up a larger portion of those performing direct labor.¹⁶³ In a study that looked at labor trafficking among migrant laborers in San Diego, among all of the sectors studied, human trafficking violations and abusive labor practices were found to be most prevalent in the construction sector, at rates of 35 percent and 63 percent respectively.¹⁶⁴

Undocumented migrant workers in the United States, including construction workers, may also be indebted to smugglers. Day-labor construction positions working for subcontractors may be the only option these workers have to pay back their debt. This creates an environment rife with intimidation, as workers fear that raising any grievance will result in being blacklisted and unable to pay back debts. Workers who are delinquent in repaying their debt to smugglers – and the organized crime syndicates they may be associated with – risk violent retribution.¹⁶⁵

Migrant workers are at risk of trafficking in the construction sector throughout the world. Cases of human trafficking of migrant laborers in the construction sector have also been reported in Europe and South America.¹⁶⁶ The rapidly growing economies in the Middle East have led to construction and development of infrastructure that is largely dependent on short-term labor migration, mostly from Asia and Africa.¹⁶⁷

According to the Department of State's 2013 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, migrant workers from India, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan often pay extremely high recruitment fees to recruiters in order to get

jobs in the construction sector in Gulf countries. Upon arrival, workers find themselves in situations of debt bondage; working conditions are worse than they have been led to believe, but they have no choice but to work to repay their recruitment debt. Visa sponsorship systems in many of the Gulf States tie workers directly to their employers, meaning that if they wish to leave their employer they lose their legal status, leaving them vulnerable to retribution levied by governments that treat them as undocumented immigrants.¹⁶⁸

Construction for large special events often requires hurried recruitment of workers to meet deadlines. This can lead to quick recruitment – and subsequent exploitation – of migrant workers. Migrants from Serbia and Bosnia were recruited to work on construction for the 2014 winter Olympics in Sochi, Russia. Many workers reported that were promised a wage of EUR 1,500 monthly, but were instead paid EUR 250 for months of work. Because these workers had entered the country on 30 day tourist visas, they were considered illegal when their visas ran out.¹⁶⁹

Labor Abuse in Construction of Facilities for the World Cup

An investigation into the working conditions in Qatar during preparations for the 2022 World Cup has found evidence of severe abuse of migrant laborers and indicators of human trafficking. The investigation focused on Nepalese migrant workers on construction worksites in Qatar. In Qatar, more than 90 percent of workers are migrant laborers, 40 percent of whom are from Nepal. The workers are recruited to help build stadiums, roads, ports and hotels all for the upcoming World Cup.¹ Workers reported not having been paid for months, their wages withheld to stop them from running away. They reported that employers had confiscated their passports and failed to provide them with ID cards, leaving them without proper documentation and in a precarious legal status. Conditions on the worksites were dismal: workers were denied access to free drinking water and living conditions were described as “repulsive,” with sometimes 12 men sleeping in a room. Almost all migrant workers also had significant debts accrued during the recruitment process and reported paying extremely high interest rates, some as high as 36 percent.¹ As many as 1.5 million more laborers are expected to be recruited to help build facilities for the tournament.¹

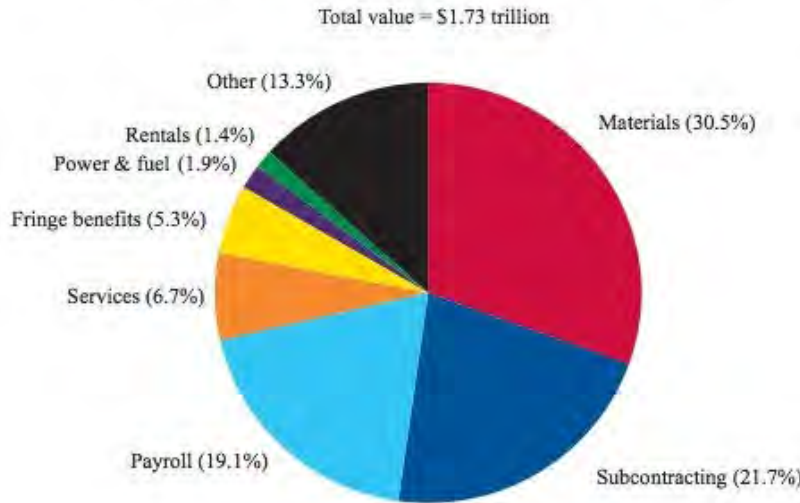
Migrant workers in Qatar work under the *kafala* sponsorship system, which has been widely criticized; the ILO Committee of Experts has stated that the *kafala* system “may be conducive to the exaction of forced labour.”¹ Under the *kafala* system, the migrant laborer is legally bound to their sponsor (*kafeel*). As a result their labor mobility is significantly restricted; the sponsor maintains the ability to dictate the recruitment process and working conditions and workers are unable to legally change employers without the permission of their sponsor.¹ In April 2014, the United Nations called for Qatar to abolish the *kafala* system.¹

Similar cases of extreme exploitation and human trafficking have been documented throughout the Middle East where the *kafala* system is in place, particularly in the UAE.¹

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chain:

Subcontracting accounted for 21.7 percent of the total value of business done by construction firms in the United States in 2007. This was the second largest expense category for construction firms after materials, which accounted for nearly 30.5 percent of the total value of business done.¹⁷⁰

Where construction dollar value goes, 2007 (Payroll establishments)

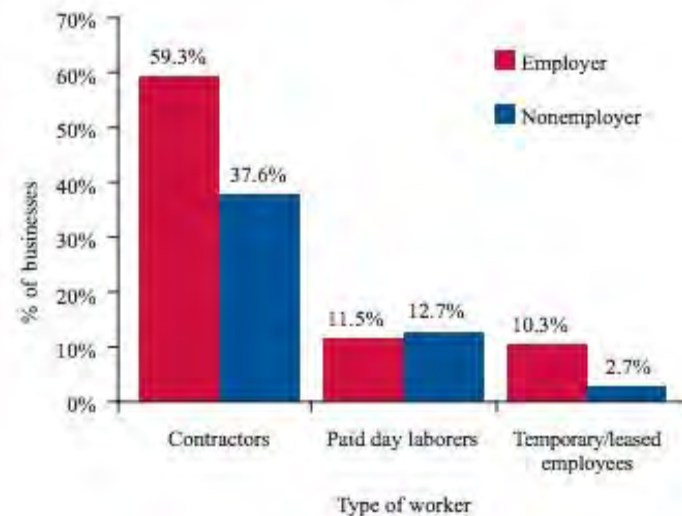


Source: CPWR – The Center for Construction Research and Training. *The Construction Chart Book*. 2013.
<http://www.cpwr.com/sites/default/files/publications/5th%20Edition%20Chart%20Book%20Final.pdf>

Work performed by subcontractors makes up a significant portion of the work produced in the construction sector. For example, 48 percent of the Nonresidential Building Construction work was done by subcontractors.¹⁷¹

Construction firms employ a variety of types of workers. In the United States the use of contractors, subcontractors, or third-party consultants is common among both employer firms (59.3 percent) and non-employer firms (nearly 37.6 percent).¹⁷²

Types of workers in construction businesses, employer vs. nonemployer, 2007



*Source: CPWR – The Center for Construction Research and Training. The Construction Chart Book. 2013.
<http://www.cpwr.com/sites/default/files/publications/5th%20Edition%20Chart%20Book%20Final.pdf>*

Labor practices in the construction sector are characterized by the widespread use of contractors and subcontractors to complete jobs. Production work is often subcontracted to specialty trade contractors that perform specialized tasks.¹⁷³ As discussed above, the majority of construction firms employ fewer than ten employees,¹⁷⁴ and approximately three million construction workers in the United States are self-employed.¹⁷⁵ This suggests many employment relationships in the construction industry are often informal, part-time or temporary. Instead of permanent workers, these sub-contracted firms often hire temporary workers, on a project-by- project basis. Because these workers are temporary, they often lack financial security, leaving them more likely to accept more dangerous conditions and worse conditions of work.¹⁷⁶

In a case filed in 2008, over 500 Indian migrant workers were reportedly trafficked into the United States to work repairing ships and offshore oil drilling rigs as part of the reconstruction following Hurricane Katrina. They were allegedly trafficked by a large company, Signal International LLC that used a network of recruiters and labor brokers. Workers allegedly paid extremely high recruitment fees – up to \$20,000 – and went into debt to pay recruiters for migration documents. Once workers arrived in the US their recruiters confiscated their identity documents. Workers were deceived about the living conditions provided by their employers, and instead slept 24 people in a trailer, housing that did not meet basic health and safety standards. Signal deducted money from each worker’s paycheck to pay for the degrading housing and “disgusting” food that was provided. Workers were also made to work under the threat of legal and physical harm. In 2007, after some workers met with attorneys to learn about their rights, Signal fired the workers and deported them in retaliation.¹⁷⁷

In another case in Germany, Romanian workers recruited through employment agencies were promised employment contracts with a German construction company. Upon arrival, they discovered that they were actually classified as independent contractors working on behalf of a larger construction company, but without any formal employment relationship. The migrant laborers worked for months without receiving any payment, and thus had no means to return home. The construction company denied any responsibility for the workers, as they were “independent contractors.”¹⁷⁸

Although human trafficking has been outlawed on United States military bases, as recently as March 2014, investigations found evidence that workers recruited by agents of third-party subcontractors were at risk of being trafficked (see the [Federal Procurement of Large Logistics Management Contracts](#) pullout box for more information).

Federal Procurement in the Construction Sector:³

Virtually all federal agencies engage in at least some construction. Federal building projects include construction and expansion or renovation of permanent facilities such as office buildings, schools, hospitals, airports, research facilities, prisons, embassies, and military bases, and also construction of temporary military and relief operation encampments. Many federal agencies undertake infrastructure construction projects like roads, bridges, dams, ports, canals, and airfields as well.

³All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

Construction procured overseas may also be embedded within umbrella logistics contracts, so totals for spending directly on construction contracts should be taken as a low estimate of total United States spending in this sector (see the [Federal Procurement of Large Logistics Management Contracts](#) pullout box for more information).

In FY2013, the United States Government spent \$19.71 billion directly on construction contracts (PSC Y%). Of these, \$4.34 billion were performed overseas, nearly all of which (\$4.11 billion) were larger than \$500,000, making them subject to additional requirements under the EO, such as developing compliance plans. Large overseas contracts primarily went to major international construction companies such as Caddell Construction and Contrack International, although there is quite a lot of diversity in contractors even at that level. In the US, contracts were widely distributed throughout congressional districts, and typically awarded to local construction firms.

Supply of construction materials is often embedded within top-level construction contracts; there appears to be relatively little direct procurement of building supplies. In 2013, the Federal Spend included \$454 million in direct spending on prefabricated structures and scaffolding (PSC 54%), lumber (PSC 55%), and other building materials (PSC 56%). \$68 million was spent on the direct purchase of gravel, concrete, bricks, and stone (PSC 5610 and 5620), \$9 million of which was sourced from Afghanistan, a country listed by the United States Department of Labor as having forced labor and child labor in the brick industry.

¹³¹ International Labour Organization (ILO). *Construction: a hazardous work*. 2009.

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¹³³ Roumeliotis, Greg. “Global construction growth to outpace GDP this decade – PwC”. *Reuters*. March 3, 2011

<http://in.reuters.com/article/2011/03/03/idINIndia-55293920110303>

¹³⁴ Global Construction Perspectives and Oxford Economics (GCP and OE). *Global Construction Market to Reach \$15 Trillion by 2015*.

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Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing

This report covers labor performed while manufacturing electronic and electrical products. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with the production of the materials used in electronics and electrical products, see the [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#) sector report and the commodity reports: [Coltan](#), [Tungsten and Tin](#), [Copper](#), and [Gold](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing Sector:

The United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics classifies the manufacture of electronics and electrical products into two subsectors: 1) Computer and Electronic Product Manufacturing, and 2) Electrical Equipment, Appliance, and Component Manufacturing. Products manufactured under the Computer and Electronic Product classification include computer and peripheral equipment; communications equipment; audio and video equipment; semiconductor and other electronic components; navigational, measuring, electromedical, and control instruments; and magnetic and optical media. Products manufactured under the Electrical Equipment, Appliance, and Component classification include electrical lighting equipment such as lamp bulbs and lighting fixtures; household appliances; electrical equipment such as electric motors, generators, transformers, and switchgear apparatuses; and other electrical equipment and components such as batteries, insulated wire, electrical outlets, fuse boxes, and light switches.

Electronic and electrical products are manufactured using a wide array of metals and minerals, including copper, aluminum, titanium, and gold. Plastics made from petroleum products and other chemicals are also used.

Economy:

The global electronics industry has been growing steadily, with a projected yearly growth rate of seven percent between 2013 and 2015.¹⁷⁹ Market growth continues to be strong in Europe and North America, although in recent years the Asia Pacific region has seen an increase in market demand as rising incomes fuel consumer spending on computers, phones, and appliances. Although many major brands continue to originate in the United States, Japan, and other developed countries, the actual production of most electronic and electrical products has increasingly shifted to developing and middle income countries, largely in Asia and Southeast Asia, as a result of a trend toward offshoring to lower labor costs and to gain other efficiencies. Since 2004, China has been the largest producer and largest exporter of electronic goods.¹⁸⁰

In recent years, electronics has been one of the fastest growing subsectors within the manufacturing sector in the United States, accounting for more than 15 percent of manufacturing GDP and ten percent of all employment in the overall manufacturing sector.¹⁸¹ United States exports of computer and electronics products increased 493 percent from 1983 to 2005.¹⁸² The computer and electronic sector was cited by the International Monetary Fund as one of the three main subsectors in the United States that is responsible for the rebound in durable manufacturing after the recent economic crisis.¹⁸³ Nevertheless, the United States electronic sector has experienced significant deflation as rapid productivity gains and advances in

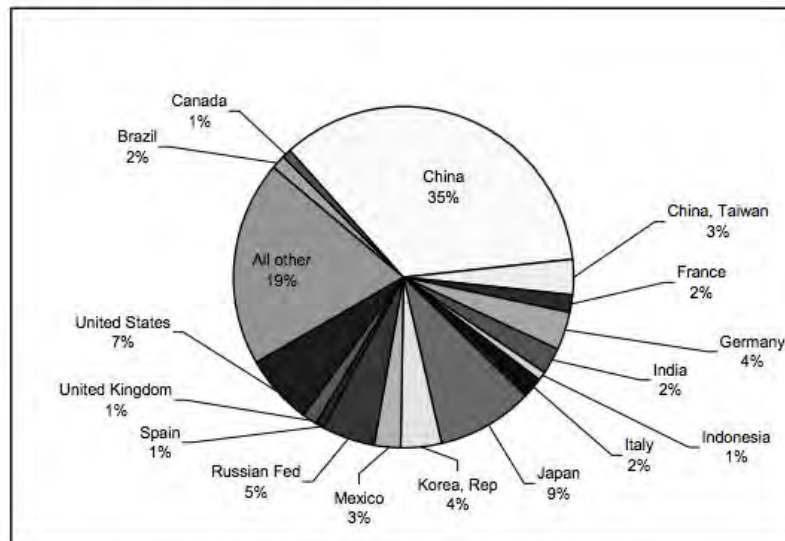
innovation improve product quality and international competition drives down prices. Prices for computer and electronic goods have declined 92.3 percent in the 15 years leading up to 2010. Prices continue to decline at a rate of 16 percent each year.¹⁸⁴

Workforce:

Occupations in the Electronics and Electrical Goods manufacturing sub-sector include skilled positions such as appliance engineers, computer hardware engineers, and computer software engineers; semi-skilled positions, such as electrical and electronic engineering technicians, trouble-shooters, inspectors, and machine operators; and low-skilled jobs such as parts fabricators, surface treaters, assemblers, sorters, recyclers, packers, and loaders.¹⁸⁵

According to the United States Department of Labor Bureau of Statistics, 1,431,400 people were employed in this sector in the United States in December 2014.¹⁸⁶ During the 4th quarter of 2013, 18,846 private establishments were reportedly operating.¹⁸⁷ The electronics and electrical manufacturing sector is an increasingly globalized sector, employing approximately 18 million people worldwide.¹⁸⁸

Global distribution of employment in the electrical and electronic products manufacturing industries (2004)



Source: International Labour Organization (ILO). The production of electronic components for the IT industries: Changing labour force requirements in a global economy. April 16 2007.

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Data from 2004 show that while over 100 countries employed at least 100 workers in this sector, the top 50 countries employed 98.8 percent of all workers in this sector. Employment was largely concentrated in Asia, with a significant number of workers employed in China (35 percent), Japan (nine percent), Korean Republic (four percent), and Taiwan (three percent).¹⁸⁹ More recent data from the UN Commodities Trading database show that the top countries exporting electrical and electronics in 2013 were China, the United States, Germany, South Korea, Singapore, Japan, Mexico, and Malaysia.¹⁹⁰ High value-adding labor in this sector is concentrated in advanced economies, however, with brands such as Apple and Hewlett-Packard in the United States, Fujitsu, Hitachi, and Toshiba in Japan, and Ericsson, Nokia, Philips, and Siemens in Europe accounting for 70 percent of global value added in 2010.¹⁹¹ Lower value-adding, labor-intensive aspects of production in this sector increasingly take place in less advanced

economies with significant low-skilled workforces and lower labor costs, and it is in these contexts that the sector experiences heightened risk of human trafficking.

The low-skilled electronics and electrical goods workforce is dominated by women and migrants, both internal and international. The percentage of the electronics manufacturing workforce made up by women varies widely depending on the country, with a range of five to 87 percent.¹⁹² In Western Europe and North America, women account for 25-35 percent of the workforce, while the workforce in the emerging economies in Asia is generally more than 50 percent women.¹⁹³ In China, much electronics and electrical manufacturing is done by young women who migrate to urban areas temporarily to earn money before marriage.¹⁹⁴ In regional manufacturing hubs like Malaysia, many electronics workers are migrants from other poorer Southeast Asian countries like Nepal, Burma, Vietnam, and Indonesia.¹⁹⁵ Workers also flow in substantial numbers from China, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and sometimes Eastern Europe into manufacturing hubs like Singapore, Taiwan, and Japan.

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

Low-skilled work in the electronics industry can be hazardous to the health of workers because of long working hours, risk of repetitive motion injuries, prolonged use of small-motor skills, exposure to extreme temperatures and hazardous chemicals, use of dangerous machinery, and, in some cases, heavy lifting.

The rapid development of new products and the short product life cycles of many popular goods in this sector mean that dramatic surges in demand are frequent occurrences. In an effort to meet urgent production deadlines, suppliers and factory managers often impose long hours on workers, sometimes in excess of legal overtime limits. There have been many accounts of managers forcing electronics workers to work overtime even when they do not wish to, and overtime hours are not always compensated at appropriately increased wage rates, a form of wage theft. Overtime work can increase worker fatigue, and consequently raise the likelihood of accidents in the workplace, as well as workers' vulnerability to illness.¹⁹⁶

Exposure to hazardous chemicals can be a particular risk for workers in the electronics and electrical manufacturing sector. Research shows that workers are not often provided with proper personal protection equipment in facilities where they are handling dangerous substances.¹⁹⁷ Exposure to hazardous chemicals can result in a variety of negative health effects including cancer, respiratory problems, skin irritation and rashes, and liver damage, among others. Because of the chemicals involved, workers involved in the manufacture of printed circuit boards are at extremely high risk of experiencing health problems.¹⁹⁸

The unpleasant and dangerous nature of low-skilled manufacturing labor in this sector is correlated with risk for human trafficking due to the fact that many workers often take on such jobs only because they lack other options or are forced to do so. Verité research has found that workers often pursue work in this sector because they have no viable alternatives for employment. For example, a worker from Nepal interviewed by Verité described seeking work at an electronics factory in Malaysia because he was unable to find stable employment in his home country. The worker paid extremely high recruitment fees and found that, upon arrival in Malaysia, the job was not what he had been promised by recruitment agents in Nepal.¹⁹⁹

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Competitiveness in countries specializing in fabrication and assembly of electronics and electrical products is often derived principally from low labor costs. Because the work involved is generally low-skilled and does not require much training or investment in the workforce on the part of employers,

workers making electronics and electrical products are easily replaced. These workers have little leverage to negotiate for higher wages because there are always others waiting and eager to take their places. Such workers are vulnerable to furlough, lay-offs, and significant job insecurity. This insecurity is compounded by a very low rate of unionization among low-skilled workers in the sector, particularly in the electronics sub-sector.²⁰⁰ Worker vulnerability and lack of bargaining power is often further exacerbated by the fact that many electronics and electrical product manufacturing facilities are located within EPZs and FIZs. Workers in these zones are potentially at risk of labor violations because of lowered state scrutiny of labor practices.

Workers in this sector are generally lacking in marketable skills or alternative employment options, often both, and are frequently vulnerable to trafficking for structural reasons as well. Migrant workers are generally motivated to seek work abroad within the sector because poverty and a lack of job opportunities at home make even poorly-remunerated manufacturing jobs relatively desirable. Women workers may seek electronics or related factory work in order to amass resources for their dowries, to support their children or other dependents, or to achieve a measure of independence from male property-holders in the context of patriarchal societies.

Children are also sometimes pressed into labor within the electronics and electrical products manufacturing sector, with child and student labor being persistent problems particularly in China, where there have been many allegations of abuse of apprenticeship and vocational training programs. According to reports, use of child and student labor is one way that Chinese factories have managed surges in production, and many factories work directly with school administrators to recruit student labor.²⁰¹ These programs have long drawn criticism for employing underage workers and making them work long hours at jobs unrelated to their field of study. Allegations of forged documentation and frequent restrictions on students' freedom of movement are common.²⁰² In one notorious case, impoverished children were reportedly abducted and sent to Dongguan, China and distributed to factories across the Pearl River Delta. The Dongguan Fangmou Electronics Factory was found to have over 50 workers contracted by these recruiters.²⁰³ Child labor is also reportedly a common practice at Yonghong Electrics. Yonghong recruits underage workers through arrangements with their schools. In July 2006, many recruited workers were student apprentices at ages 14-15. Students are often sent to electronics factories believing that they will work for the duration of the summer in order to pay off the debts accumulated through their schooling. Although students send half their wages back to schools, wages are so low that it is extremely difficult to make enough to return to school and factory officials often refuse to approve an individual's request to resign.²⁰⁴

Prisoners represent another vulnerable population implicated in the manufacture of electronics and electrical products. Illegal prison labor has long been reported in countries with troubled human rights records such as China, but even in the United States, prisoners in both federal prisons and for-profit, private prisons are increasingly being used to manufacture electronic and electrical goods, in many cases on behalf of private United States-based companies, including prominent defense contractors like McDonnell Douglas/Boeing and General Dynamics/Lockheed Martin.²⁰⁵ While some forms of prison labor are permitted under international law, others are prohibited, and all prisoners are by nature vulnerable to trafficking by virtue of their inherent lack of freedom and other structural vulnerabilities (see the [Prison Labor in Federal Supply Chains](#) pullout box for more information).

Migrant Workforce:

As noted above, migrants, both internal and international, make up a significant proportion of the electronics and electrical goods manufacturing workforce in many countries. Migrants in this sector are at increased risk for trafficking for many reasons. Among the most prominent are the burden of debt that many migrants incur in the course of their recruitment and job placement, their vulnerability to being deceived about their job conditions or wages by unethical recruiters or employers, their frequent cultural

and linguistic dislocation and removal from social support networks, and the structural vulnerabilities they endure as a result of residency and immigration policies that restrict their freedom of movement and legal ability to change jobs. In some countries, foreign migrants may also have their passports and other identity documents taken from them by their brokers or employers, further restricting their freedom of movement. In a recent survey of over 500 electronics workers in Malaysia, Verité found rates of passport retention above 90 percent of those surveyed, a situation made particularly grave for foreign migrants in that country given the scrutiny of migrant workers by immigration officials, police, and a volunteer citizen security corps with the power to demand identification documents that workers do not have.²⁰⁶

In some countries, foreign electronics manufacturing workers may also be exploited or even trafficked as a result of legal frameworks within the receiving country that inadequately protect their basic rights as workers. In Japan, for example, a longstanding program to treat low-skilled foreign workers in electronics and other manufacturing sectors as trainees, rather than as temporary migrants, has prevented many foreign manufacturing workers from receiving the full basket of workplace protections and workers' rights that Japanese workers enjoy.²⁰⁷ Migrant workers also often face discrimination. A report published by Amnesty International in 2009, for example, found that migrant workers in South Korea working in an electronics factory were discriminated against and made to work longer hours than their Korean national peers.²⁰⁸

The level of human capital development and the existence of robust bilateral agreements between migrant-sending and migrant-receiving countries can both play a significant role in reducing the relative vulnerability of migrants in the electronics sector. Verité research has found that migrants from the Philippines who work in Malaysian electronics facilities, for example, tend to be better compensated and placed in higher level, more technical positions than do foreign workers from countries such as Burma or Indonesia.

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in the Labor Supply Chain: Because of the dynamic nature of the electronics and electrical manufacturing sector and the frequent fluctuations in labor demand, particularly in the electronics sub-sector, recruitment agents and labor contractors are heavily involved in the supply of labor to this sector. In the United States, over 50 percent of the workforce in the electronics sector is provided by temporary agencies. In major manufacturing hubs for electronics overseas, it is also common for firms to rely on short-term contracts and temporary agencies for labor sourcing.²⁰⁹ In many cases, workers in this sector work in a factory, but are employed not by the factory but rather by an outsourcing agent.

In the course of ongoing auditing and research work in Malaysia, Verité has found that many migrant workers in electronics factories are employed directly by third-party employment agents. These labor intermediaries manage the full employment life cycle of migrants, from recruitment, hiring, and deployment, to management, compensation, and eventual repatriation of workers. As a consequence of such outsourcing arrangements, it is now possible to find multiple employers, including both the factory and various employment agents, in charge of different subsets of workers within the same electronics factory. Such an arrangement, while sanctioned by Malaysian law, acts to erode the essential protections and accountability inherent in an employer-employee relationship and in some cases even leaves workers confused as to the identity of their actual employer. Liability over violations of workers' rights is obscured, creating vulnerability on the part of the worker to exploitation and abuse, and constraining workers' access to legal recourse and grievance mechanisms.²¹⁰

Verité research on labor trafficking in the Malaysian electronics industry found many workers were unsure of their employment arrangement. Workers reported not knowing whether they were employed by an employment agent or directly by the factory.²¹¹

Even when workers are employed directly by manufacturing facilities and transparent employer-employee relationships are not undermined through outsourcing, the presence of middlemen in the process of recruiting and placing workers in low-level electronics and electrical sector manufacturing jobs increases workers' risk of being trafficked. Workers are often deceived by recruiters about the jobs they will be placed in, including about the nature of the work and the wages they will be paid, but also sometimes about the company they will be working for, or the region they will be working in.²¹² Such deceptive recruitment prevents workers from making informed decisions about the sacrifices they and their families are making in order for them to pursue the employment opportunity, and may result in workers ending up in work situations from which they have little possibility of escape.

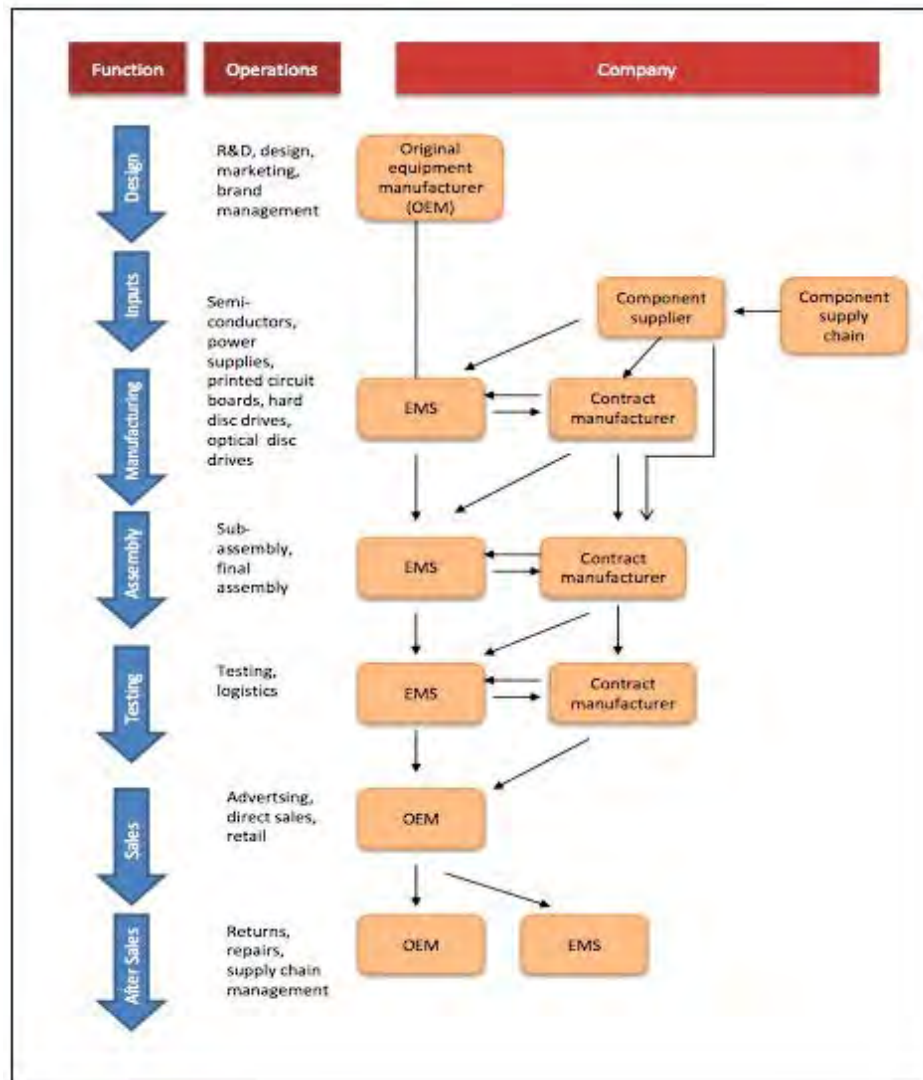
Debt bondage is also frequently correlated with recruitment in this sector, a consequence of workers borrowing to pay fees to recruiters to place them in their jobs, often incurring debts they have difficulty paying off, given the low wages that are typically paid to low-skilled laborers in electronics and electrical products manufacturing facilities. Verité research found that 92 percent of the more than 500 workers surveyed in the Malaysian electronics industry paid recruitment fees, and over 90 percent of these fees were excessive.²¹³ Verité research in the region found that the average recruitment fees paid by migrants working in Southeast Asia ranged between \$500 to \$1,200.

Long, Complex, and/or Non-Transparent Supply Chains:

The electronics manufacturing sector is a globalized industry made up of a vast network of companies and suppliers. The industry is extremely dynamic; development of new technologies is rapid, and new products are constantly being created. This requires that the industry be flexible and able to respond to fluctuations in market demand. In such a rapidly changing landscape, companies and suppliers commonly outsource services to other firms, preferring to perfect one part of the supply chain. Public-facing companies increasingly prioritize developing their brands and new products, and outsource production to an extensive web of suppliers.²¹⁴

Large, public-facing companies with well-known brand names are known as Original Equipment Manufacturers (OEMs).²¹⁵ They buy products from suppliers and manufacturers and sell the rebranded products under their own label to consumers around the world. While historically OEMs were the companies that made the products themselves, this term now refers to the company that buys the products and resells them with their logo attached. Often OEMs design the products, which are then made to order.²¹⁶ The suppliers who manufacture the products and sell them to OEMs are known as Contract Manufacturers (CMs) and Electronic Manufacturing Services (EMS). CM and EMS companies work with OEMs as well as Original Design Manufacturers (ODMs) and Original Brand Manufacturers (OBMs) to provide a range of manufacturing services.

Electronics manufacturing value chain – simplified



Source: Better Work, *Electronics Feasibility Study Executive Summary*, August 2010

<http://betterwork.com/global/wp-content/uploads/Better-Work-Electronics-Feasibility-Study-Executive-Summary.pdf>

The rapid pace of technology development in this sector, coupled with the constantly evolving product supply chain, leads to surges in demand and spikes in production. An extensive web of suppliers and companies allows for flexibility, although often this is at the expense of workers in manufacturing facilities. Fluctuating demands in production result in unstable demands in labor, which can have adverse affects on labor conditions. In times of high production, recruitment is often carried out quickly, sometimes even illegally, in order to speed up the process.²¹⁷ Increased work hours in order to meet deadlines can lead to compulsory overtime, and production lulls can result in the laying off of substantial numbers of workers. Layoffs may occur at any point in workers' contracts, sometimes even soon after they have just arrived, a situation that can leave workers with significant recruitment-related debt, and no jobs or way to earn the money needed to make debt payments or, in the case of migrants, even return to their home country.²¹⁸ The frequency of layoffs in the sector is exemplified by the fact that, even though

employment numbers at Flextronics more than doubled between 2000 and 2005, 28,000 workers were also laid off during that time.²¹⁹

A recent case published in late 2013 highlights the job insecurity experienced by workers at Flextronics plants in Malaysia. The case details the experience of one of many Nepalese workers who lost their jobs working in a Malaysian Flextronics factory shortly after they arrived in the country. After paying multiple recruitment agents in order to get their jobs, many workers were still in debt when production stopped and they lost their jobs. Even the additional wages Flextronics paid them in compensation were not nearly enough for most workers to pay off the debt they had incurred getting their jobs in the first place. Housed in employer-provided dormitories, workers waited for months for word on when they would return home. Many fell out of legal immigration status as Flextronics failed to renew their visas and work permits.²²⁰ This case illustrates one of the ways that production surges and market fluctuations impact workers in this sector. While the complex and flexible supply chain of electronics manufacturing plays a big role in the sector's profitability, it can also result in increased vulnerability to exploitation and trafficking for electronics workers, particularly for those in low-skilled, low-wage positions within the sector.

The number of inputs in the supply chain of any given electronics product is vast, with major component parts each possessing their own supply chains. Primary inputs come from raw materials supply chains for metals, plastics, and chemical compounds around the world. These inputs make their way to manufacturing facilities for electronics and electrical components, which are often produced in industry manufacturing hubs in Asia and Southeast Asia such as China, Taiwan, and Malaysia. Components are then assembled – often in different facilities or even countries – into finished products, which are finally distributed to wholesalers and retailers around the world. The supply chain in the sector is therefore not strictly hierarchical, but in many cases more accurately described as reciprocal, with some companies acting as both customers to some suppliers – buying parts and components that they assemble into an end product – and as suppliers to other companies, depending on where in the supply chain the product they produce is located.²²¹ Because production in the sector is so globalized, it relies heavily on inputs from the transportation section (see the [Transportation and Warehousing](#) sector report for more information) and other supporting service sector industries as well.

The complexity of supply chains in this sector makes scrutiny of the labor practices throughout the totality of a product's production cycle quite difficult. Even when a particular facility within the chain implements safeguards against trafficking or other labor abuses in its own management practices, trafficking may occur in the course of sourcing labor for the facility, or in the labor practices involved in production of the inputs on which it relies, or in the supply chain into which its own products feed.

Federal Procurement in the Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing Sector:⁴

Because subcontracts for inputs are not tracked in the Federal Procurement Data System, federal spending in the electronics sector is not possible to isolate, but electronics are deeply implicated in many kinds of products and contracts, and purchased by virtually all agencies of the US Government.

Federal expenditure in this sector may be assumed to be dominated by the agencies of the Departments of Defense and Energy, for weapons systems and other high-tech hardware with significant electronics components. Such purchases include aircraft, ships, guided missile systems, tanks, trucks, cars, and navigation and surveillance equipment of all kinds. Information technology such as computers, networks and servers are procured by agencies as diverse as the Internal Revenue Service, Immigration and

⁴All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

Customs Enforcement, National Laboratories, and USAID. Telephones and phone networks and other communications hardware are also procured by virtually all federal agencies. Medical and laboratory equipment with significant electronics content is also purchased by many federal agencies. Direct purchases of computers and related advanced data processing (ADP) equipment (PSC 70%, excluding software (PSC 7030) accounted for \$5.31 billion of the federal spend in FY2013. As noted, however, such direct computer purchases do not capture electronics inputs to prime contracts for complex hardware purchases.

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Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production

This report covers the labor in the extraction of minerals and other geological materials from the earth as well as the processing of these materials. For more information on the human trafficking risks associated with the extraction and processing of specific minerals and metals, see the commodity reports: [Charcoal](#), [Coal](#), [Coltan](#), [Tungsten and Tin](#), [Copper](#), [Diamonds](#), [Gold](#), [Granite and Other Stone](#), [Gravel and Crushed Stones](#), [Jewels](#), [Silver](#), [Steel](#), and [Zinc](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production Sector:

Extractives refer to the extraction of minerals and other geological materials from the earth. This report will mostly cover the process of removing materials from earth, but will also draw attention to processing where relevant. The minerals and mineral products produced through mining are critical to a variety of sectors including technology, electronics, jewelry, construction, and manufacturing.

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics groups mining operations into the following broad categories: oil and gas extraction, mining except oil and gas (including coal mining, metal ore mining, nonmetallic mineral mining and quarrying), and support activities for mining. Support activities may include mineral cleaning, stone cutting and crushing, water carrying, transport, driving, shaft digging, drilling, welding, carpentry, mechanics, and driving.²²² In mining camps in remote areas, high numbers of migrant (whether domestic or international) workers and mine owners drive demand for domestic services such as cooking and cleaning, and often illicit activities such as petroleum and drug trafficking and prostitution.

Economy and Workforce: Minerals, Metals, and Stones:

Mining is carried out in almost every country in the world and plays an important role in many economies, both of extremely rich and developing countries.²²³ Mining and the use of mined products in industry drive an estimated 45 percent of global GDP.²²⁴ According to the International Council on Mining and Metals, the value of world mineral production increased over 400 percent between 2002 and 2010. This increase was driven by the emerging economies of China and India, as well as by rising commodity prices.²²⁵ Of the approximately 40 countries depending on non-fuel minerals for over 25 percent of their exports, 75 percent are low and middle income countries. Half of the countries that are mineral reliant are in Africa.²²⁶ Many mineral reliant countries rank low on the Human Development Index,²²⁷ suggesting that workers in those regions may be particularly vulnerable to exploitation.²²⁸

Globally, minerals and metals are generally mined either through hard-rock or alluvial mining. In hard-rock mining, minerals and metals are extracted from rock, which can be done in large open-pit mining or in tunnels that are dug into rock faces. In alluvial mining, minerals and metals are extracted from water. This can be done through panning in rivers; sluicing, in which water is combined with materials (such as sand and dirt) and is channeled into boxes that sift and separate the minerals and metals from the material; and dredging, in which minerals and metal-laced sediment is sucked up from sediment in bodies of water.²²⁹

Mineral extraction is carried out by large-scale commercial mines and by small-scale artisanal mines. In general, large-scale commercial mines overseen by national or multi-national companies have relatively lower risks of trafficking. According to the World Bank, these mines produce about 95 percent of world's minerals, including fuel, and employ 2.5 million people world-wide. There are a relatively small number of large mining companies, whose headquarters are concentrated in the US, South Africa, Australia, and Canada.²³⁰

Artisanal small-scale mining (ASM) refers to mining with simple, usually non-mechanized means of extraction that is typically highly labor intensive.²³¹ ASM is usually conducted by individuals or small groups of people, although it may include larger partnerships or cooperatives.²³² ASM provides approximately 15 percent of the world's non-fuel minerals and provides income for an estimated 80-100 million men, women and children.²³³ ASM activities are usually informal and may be illegal or unregulated. There are five primary types of artisanal mining as described by the International Council on Mining and Minerals and the International Finance Corporation:

- Traditional ASM occurs where local people have been mining for a long period of time, possibly generations. Mineral rights may be passed down within families and mining is often the primary source of livelihood.
- Seasonal ASM provides secondary livelihood support to families during “off-peak” agricultural seasons.
- Permanent co-habitation refers to ASM miners “squatting” around the edges of large scale legal concessions, and may have a contentious relationship with the multi-national concession holders. These miners may be local or may migrate to the area.
- Shock ASM is driven by catastrophes such as drought, economic depression, armed conflict, the closure of formal mines, or other sudden factors leaving large groups of people without livelihood options.
- Influx ASM is driven by “booms” or discoveries of new mineral deposits. These booms can cause large groups of people to appear at mining sites in a short period of time.²³⁴

While medium-sized and large-scale mines generally operate legally and are thus considered formal, much of the ASM mining is considered informal or illegal. For example, for mines to be considered legal/formal in Peru, they must have a title to the concession or an agreement with the concession owner, authorization to work the land, an approved environmental impact study, water rights, a certificate of non-existence of archaeological artifacts, authorization to carry out exploration and/or processing activities, and accreditation as a small-scale or artisanal miner, among others.²³⁵ Mines that fail to meet these requirements or that operate in environmentally protected areas are considered illegal. In Bolivia, children work mining zinc and tin in abandoned commercial mines. Because the mining is illegal, they work in more remote and dangerous regions of the mine to avoid detection by guards.²³⁶ The combination of highly labor intensive work and low levels of regulation and oversight in illegal mining creates increased risk of trafficking for workers in the sector.

Minerals and metals are used in a huge number of supply chains including construction, aerospace, automobiles, ships, electronics, durable consumer goods, makeup, jewelry, manufacturing, packaging, and currency. Stone materials extracted via quarrying, including coal, limestone, granite, marble, slate, gravel, sand, and clay, are primarily used in construction. Gemstones are used in jewelry and for industrial purposes.

Economy and Workforce: Oil and Gas:

While no official numbers are kept, energy use in 2008 was estimated at 11.29 billion tons, with global energy expenditures at approximately \$4.969 trillion.²³⁷ The United States Federal Government spend on oil and gas was \$14.379 billion in FY2013. Large quantities of oil and gas flow daily from "exporting"

regions such as the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America to "importing" regions such as North America, Europe, and East Asia.

Petroleum, which is extracted from the earth via drilled wells, provides about 60 percent of the world's energy needs, and is also used for petrochemicals. As much of the world's petroleum supply is underwater, oil rigs (also known as oil platforms) are used to extract, process, and store oil before it is brought to shore for refining. Oil is transported through pipelines onshore.

Gas, including natural gas and shale gas, are also produced by drilling. Gas is used for electricity generation, transportation, and fertilizers.

Jobs in the oil and gas sectors range from low-skilled to extremely high-skilled labor. This report will cover workers involved directly in extraction or directly supporting extraction activities as well as pipeline construction, as these tend to be either relatively lower-skilled jobs and/or jobs performed by migrant workers. Some specific jobs related to extraction and construction in the oil and gas industry include: drill/machinery operators, carpenters, welders, pipe layers, mechanics, maintenance/repair workers, solderers, brazers, machine operators, and transportation drivers. For more information on drivers, see the [Transportation and Warehousing](#) sector report.

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State's 2014 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted evidence of human trafficking in the extractives/mining and metal production sector in the following countries: Angola, Bolivia, Brazil, Cameroon, Chile, Colombia, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ghana, Guyana, Indonesia, Madagascar, Mali, Mongolia, Nigeria, North Korea Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, Sudan, Uganda, Vietnam, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.²³⁸

Hazardous/Undesirable Work

Mining is a highly hazardous sector. Hazards facing miners include working in spaces without light or ventilation, falling rocks, lack of personal protective equipment, mine collapse, lung disease, repetitive stress injuries, chemical exposure, explosions, fire, electrocution, heavy equipment, carrying heavy loads, working at heights, exposure to extreme heat and noise, chemical vapors, and exposure to radiation.²³⁹ Children and juveniles working in mining are particularly vulnerable to these hazards. Workers who live in isolated mining camps are at increased risk for infectious diseases such as tuberculosis, hepatitis and HIV.²⁴⁰

Artisanal mining is particularly hazardous due to its unregulated nature. Most miners in small scale mining are working on a subsistence level and without the backing of any larger organization. This leaves them without access to protective equipment or to safety training. Where regulations do exist, they may be created for the context of large commercial mines and, according to the International Institute for Environment and Development, "exaggerated safety requirements tend to discourage small-scale miners, inspiring them to simply ignore all safety advice."²⁴¹

According to the ILO, children, as well as adults, are exposed to a variety of dangers in artisanal mining, which it considered one of the activities that presented the greatest danger to children's physical and mental development. One of the many health and safety risks is loud noises created by perforation, explosions, grinding, and pumping. Vibration produces a risk to children's muscular and skeletal development. Exposure to sunlight for long periods of time puts both adults and children at risk to skin damage, dehydration, and severe sun burns that can result in death and cancer. Miners can also be exposed to extreme cold, putting them at risk of hypothermia and frostbite.²⁴²

Accidents are common in artisanal mining, due to the fact that the ASM is carried out without the benefit of modern technology or personal protective equipment (PPE) and often occurs outside of the purview of the law.²⁴³ Additionally, precisely because illegal mines operate outside of the law, workers lack social security and health insurance and accidents are rarely reported. Therefore, many workers and their families receive no compensation if workers are injured or killed on the job. Workers interviewed by Verité in Peru reported a large number of fatal accidents in illegal gold mines, with some workers being buried in unmarked graves without any information or compensation being provided to their family members.²⁴⁴

Finally, exposure to cyanide and mercury used in gold processing presents a grave danger to workers and self-employed miners. Verité research in Peru indicates that in some formal processing plants, workers are also exposed to cyanide with minimal PPE and many workers are exposed to mercury with little to no PPE in illegal gold mining.²⁴⁵ Mercury may be ingested (accidentally during work or when it contaminates water), absorbed through the skin (when it is handled with bare hands or miners have to swim in mercury contaminated water), or inhaled (when the mercury is burnt off of pieces of gold). This can result in inflammation of vital organs, the inability to urinate, shock, and death. It can also result in skin lesions, irritation to the lungs, difficulty breathing, and permanent damage to the nervous system.²⁴⁶ Because mercury is neurotoxin, it is particularly harmful to children. Human Rights Watch found children as young as six exposed to mercury in gold mining in West Africa.²⁴⁷

Oil and gas extraction are considered highly hazardous. In the United States, oil and gas workers were killed at a rate over seven times higher than the average rate, between 2003 and 2010.²⁴⁸ Hazards include vehicle accidents, being struck by machinery, explosions and fires, falls, being trapped in small spaces and chemical exposure. In the oil and gas sector, illegal drilling and siphoning also occur. Health and safety risks are especially prevalent in these unregulated activities.

Workers are also vulnerable to the volatility of their host country and can face risks such as kidnapping and armed conflict. In 2013, migrant workers off the coast of Nigeria were kidnapped by armed gunmen.²⁴⁹ Foreign workers in South Sudan were evacuated in 2014 due to fighting between the army and rebel leaders.

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce

Several minerals – most notably gold, cassiterite (for tin), wolframite (for tungsten), and coltan (for tantalite) from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) as well as diamonds from Angola, Zimbabwe, Central African Republic, and Sierra Leone – are closely tied to armed conflicts.²⁵⁰ In addition to armed conflicts, organized crime syndicates may also control mines in some areas, such as control of Mexican iron ore mines by the Knights Templar cartel in the state of Michoacan.²⁵¹ This is also the case in Colombia, where the vast majority of illegal mining is controlled by guerrilla groups, such as the *Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia* (FARC) and narco-traffickers and other criminal groups, such as the Rastrojos and Urabeños. In fact, according to one source, the revenue generated from illegal gold mining has surpassed the revenue generated from cocaine trafficking in Colombia. This revenue funds these groups and fuels the continued armed conflict in Colombia.²⁵²

Much of recent attention to conflict minerals has focused on the DRC, where parties to the ongoing war, including the army as well as rebel groups, take control of mining sites. Revenue from these minerals provides armed groups financial resources for their operation.²⁵³ These parties may require local independent miners to work without pay at their mining site. Workers may be forced to mine through induced indebtedness or under direct threat of violence. Further, the armed groups have carried out human rights atrocities against local populations including “widespread killings of unarmed civilians, rape, torture and looting, recruitment of child soldiers to fight in their ranks, and forced displacement of hundreds of thousands of people.”²⁵⁴

In India, trafficking in quarrying and stone cutting/crushing activities is tied to the caste system. People belonging to “lower” castes, dalits, and indigenous people are trapped in cycles of debt bondage. Many borrow money from quarry owners to cover basic expenses that they cannot afford with their meager pay. Children may also be required to work to pay their family’s debt.²⁵⁵

Mining activities are concentrated in remote areas, which leads to a high degree of isolation of workers, whether domestic or migrant, who may be physically unable to escape. Further, particularly in weak states, governments lack the ability to monitor conditions and enforce laws. Migrant workers living in makeshift mining camps create high demand for labor in attendant areas such as cooking and cleaning, as well as in illicit activities such as drug trafficking and prostitution.²⁵⁶ These tasks carry high levels of hazards and risks of human trafficking.

Mining activities often represent one of the only viable livelihood opportunities in a region, leaving workers with no alternatives even if they are facing exploitation. In unregulated coal mines in Turkey, for example, where a large number of children working in hazardous labor were identified, locals pressured mining companies to keep the mines open as local residents felt they lacked other employment options.²⁵⁷

In some cases, the mines themselves contribute to destruction of other livelihood opportunities. Mining activities are highly detrimental to surrounding environments, causing desertification²⁵⁸ and producing large amounts of waste. These environmental impacts can negatively affect the ability of local people to carry out traditional livelihood activities such as agriculture and fishing, thus greatly increasing their overall vulnerability to human trafficking in mining as well as in other sectors.²⁵⁹

Further, in some contexts, because of its highly unregulated nature, illegal mining can provide employment opportunities to marginalized groups who face discrimination or other barriers to working in the formal sector. In the Peruvian gold sector, Verité identified a number of “*indocumentados*,” Peruvians who lack a National Identity Document (DNI). For many *indocumentados*, the illegal mining sector constitutes their only chance for employment, as formal sector employers require that their workers possess a DNI. In some cases, they are extremely poor, geographically isolated, or indigenous Peruvians who never obtained a birth certificate and have thus been unable to acquire a DNI. These individuals are generally very vulnerable due to their lack of alternative employment and their low levels of education and socio-economic status. In other cases, the *indocumentados* are criminals or people suspected of having committed a crime who are running from the law and seek refuge in the lawless environment of the mining camps. *Indocumentados* reported feeling vulnerable to denunciation to authorities.²⁶⁰

In Ghana, although the gold sector is booming, many Ghanaians have difficulty securing employment in the formal sector, and therefore turn out of necessity to the informal sector. The miners do not have access to capital to purchase equipment and often take out high interest loans. Typically, they are forced to repay these loans by selling their gold back at rates well below the market value. This cycle of debt and low earnings has induced many to use forced, child, or other exploitative labor.²⁶¹

Children and adolescents – a highly vulnerable demographic group – are active in many types of mining, particularly in the ASM sector. The ILO notes that about 20 percent of children engaged in artisanal mining work for adults who are not their parents – leaving them vulnerable to economic exploitation.²⁶² Children enter the sector both voluntarily and through trafficking. In many cases, children work alongside family members to supplement family income. Some children, particularly older juveniles, may migrate to mining areas to seek economic opportunity. For example, in Burkina Faso and Mali, children are leaving school at a high rate to work in artisanal gold mining in an attempt to support themselves and their families.²⁶³ However, once on-site, these children are vulnerable to exploitation and human trafficking.²⁶⁴ Other children have been forced to work in mines through a recruiter; recruitment often

occurs through informal networks of extended families and acquaintances.²⁶⁵ Children in Nigeria are also forced to work in granite and quarrying,²⁶⁶ and there have been incidences in which children were sold to traffickers by their parents.²⁶⁷

Regardless of how children enter the mining sector, due to the extremely hazardous nature of the work, mining is nearly always considered a Worst Form of Child Labor (WFCL). Children are commonly used to enter narrow mine shafts that adults can not fit down.²⁶⁸ In gold mining, children are also often tasked with cleaning the gold using mercury, a highly toxic substance.²⁶⁹ Children are also heavily employed under hazardous conditions in the cutting and polishing of gemstones.²⁷⁰ The isolated nature of mining means that many children abandon their education, another indicator of the WFCL.

Women are much more likely to be involved in ASM than in large-scale commercial mining. In countries such as Mali, Madagascar, Guinea and Zimbabwe, over 50 percent of those involved in mining activities are women.²⁷¹ A study among female ASM miners in Tanzania found that women were motivated to work in ASM mining as a means of supporting their family's survival, particularly when traditional subsistence farming was no longer supporting their family due to drought, low agricultural commodity prices, or lack of access to farmlands.²⁷² Although women are less likely to participate directly in shaft mining, women and girls are often involved in panning and attendant activities and sectors such as mineral cleaning, trading, and domestic activities such as cooking, cleaning, and fetching firewood in mining camps. Where women work as part of a family unit, income derived from her work may be directly controlled by her husband or other men in her family, leaving her uncompensated for her work.²⁷³

Women are also involved in prostitution around mining camps, many of whom have been trafficked. Verité research on gold mining in Peru found that among those interviewed, nearly all women and girls involved in prostitution had been trafficked, with indicators including deception, debt bondage, kidnapping, confiscation of identity documents, and violence. Women hired as cooks are also often forced to provide "sexual favors" to miners.²⁷⁴

In countries with repressive governments, the high economic value of oil and gas can incite regimes to conscript citizens in the oil and gas sector. Under Burma's former military regime, the soldiers who had provided security on behalf of a French oil company reportedly forced villagers to work in construction on and around an oil and gas pipeline.²⁷⁵

Migrant Workforce

In addition to local workers, both domestic and international migrants are involved in mining activities in some regions. The isolated nature of mining means that in some areas, nearly all workers must migrate from their home regions to reach mining camps. In countries lacking alternative livelihood options or during surges in mineral or metal prices, a "rush" can emerge around mining activities, particularly artisanal mining which has lower barriers to entry.²⁷⁶ Migration may take place rapidly, over a longer period of time, or seasonally.²⁷⁷

In the Kedougou region of Senegal, for example, villagers who cannot support their families through agriculture or have lost their land to logging have turned to gold mining as a necessity. They are joined by international migrants from neighboring countries of Mali, Guinea, Gambia, Ghana, Burkina Faso, Togo, and Nigeria. In many cases, migrant workers in the mining sector include children and juveniles, either travelling with their families or independently (for a further discussion of child labor, see *Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce*).²⁷⁸ There have also been reports of the trafficking of Chinese and Indian migrants into mining in other African countries.

In Peru, Verité research found that large number of workers migrated internally from impoverished rural and urban areas to illegal gold mines, both in the highlands and the Amazon region. There were also some

reports of Ecuador immigrants being trafficked by armed Chinese gangs who held them captive and forced them to work in illegal gold mines. Migrant workers were trafficked through deception about conditions of work, debt linked to recruitment and transportation, withholding of wages, and threats and isolation.²⁷⁹

In the oil and gas industry, oil booms often drive demand for workers, and if companies are unable to fully staff their operations using domestic workers, they may need to turn to foreign workers who are often hired quickly.

Although most jobs in the oil and gas sectors are high-skilled labor, foreign workers may be paid considerably less than their domestic counterparts, as is the case with foreign workers from Mexico, Ireland, Portugal, and Italy in Canadian oil sand fields. These workers were brought in to replace unionized domestic workers, and were recruited through labor intermediaries.²⁸⁰ There have also been reports of the trafficking of Filipino and Indian migrants into the oil sector in the US. Migrant workers, primarily from South Asia, are employed on oil rigs in several regions including Gulf States, off the shores of New Zealand and Australia, and off the coast of West Africa.²⁸¹ In 2013, oil workers in Gabon went on strike to protest the rampant use of undocumented foreign workers who were paid low wages.²⁸²

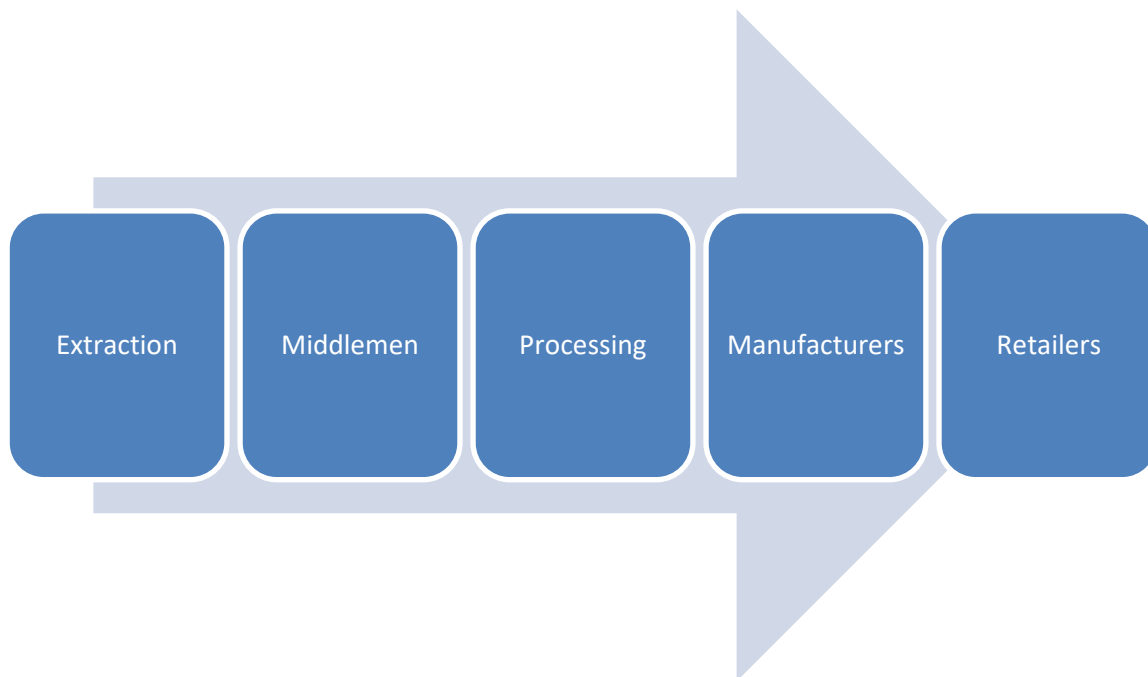
Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in the Labor Supply Chain: In some mining contexts, workers flock willingly to mining sites drawn by the perceived livelihood opportunity. In other contexts, where conditions are especially hazardous or otherwise undesirable, deception may be prevalent in worker recruitment. Verité research in the gold sector in Peru found that domestic workers are recruited in their hometowns via recruitment offices where intermediaries seek brokers. Workers are given advances of money, clothing, tools and transport, which many workers are led to believe are gifts and do not realize they will have to pay back. The recruiters describe the opportunity for workers to strike it rich and are provided with little to no accurate information of the conditions of their employment, including, often, the length of their contract. Many workers are then told that they have to work for three months before they can leave the mines and are prevented from doing so by recruitment-linked debt, physical isolation, and threats. Some workers are sold to another person by family members, who receive a payment for recruiting them, and are then told that they are required to work off this fee.²⁸³

Although seemingly less common, recruitment in the minerals and stones sector can also occur in a transnational context. The United States Department of State reports that in Zambia, Chinese and Indian men are recruited to work in Chinese-owned mines in Zambia's Copperbelt where they are held in conditions conducive to human trafficking.²⁸⁴ In the Ghanaian gold sector, Chinese workers were apparently trafficked to work in illegal ASM gold mines. Traffickers provided fraudulent work visas to work on construction projects. Upon arrival, the workers' passports were seized, and the workers were required to pay off their travel and visa debts.²⁸⁵

Oil rigs and oil fields in the United States employ migrant workers on H-2B visas and there are several alleged cases of human trafficking. These workers are recruited through labor contractors, who deceive workers in the recruitment stage, making unrealistic promises about wages and immigration status. For example, in 2006, Indian metal workers were trafficked into Louisiana to rebuild oil rigs destroyed by Hurricane Katrina. One worker reported paying his recruiter \$20,000 to secure his job, and said he was promised permanent residency in the United States. Instead, he faced poor living conditions and hazardous working conditions.²⁸⁶ Filipino workers, some of whom died in an explosion, were forced to work in oil fields in Texas in 2012.²⁸⁷ These workers were recruited through a labor agency in the Philippines tied to a receiving country agency in Louisiana.²⁸⁸ The labor recruiters promised high wages, but workers were paid much less than promised, forced to work long overtime hours, and required to pay over \$3,000 per month for overcrowded bunk houses.²⁸⁹ Filipino workers hired by a Hong Kong recruiting firm to work on Australian oil rigs were reportedly paid only \$3 an hour.²⁹⁰

Long, Complex, and/or Non-Transparent Supply Chains

Because the mining sector is so varied, different types of minerals take different paths before they reach the consumer. However, most minerals, whether from large commercial mines or ASM follow a basic path. After extraction from the earth, minerals are cleaned, sorted, transported, refined, smelted, or otherwise processed before being sold to manufacturers and retailers. In the case of mined gem stones, the processing consists of cutting and polishing. ASM minerals pass through several additional layers of consolidators, intermediaries, and exporters (some of whom may actually be illegal smugglers) before the minerals enter into the processing level of the supply chain.



Source: Verité image.

Each additional layer of middlemen limits the transparency of the supply chain. Global Witness, among other groups, has documented how middlemen in the DRC (in this context, known as “comptoirs” and “negociants” obscure the origin of conflict minerals before selling them up the supply chain, purposefully obscuring their origins.²⁹¹ The smelting/processing stage is also a critical point in the supply chain in terms of transparency – during processing, minerals from a variety of origins are normally mixed together. For this reason, the ENOUGH Project, has identified smelters as a key strategic point for certifying minerals from the DRC as “conflict-free.”²⁹²

Intermediaries can also play a role in suppressing wages of self-employed miners involved in small-scale mining – miners may have no choice but to sell their goods to an intermediary in their region, which means they may be forced to accept profits significantly lower than what they could fetch on the open market.²⁹³ Miners may also take loans from these middlemen to pay for their basic living expenses, leaving them vulnerable to cycles of indebtedness. For example, consolidators in Mali, foreign traders, who control about 90 percent of the country’s gold exports, “buy gold through a complex network of intermediaries and local buyers.” These intermediaries also provide loans to the miners, while paying rates much lower than market prices.²⁹⁴ Verité research on gold mining in Peru found that many independent ASM miners are forced to operate illegally if they cannot afford to pay excessive up-front fees to land concession holders, even if the independent miners have been working the land for years. Peruvian law prohibits the sale of gold without a receipt, which is only provided to miners who have

formalized businesses and are operating legally. Both workers who are paid in gold (a common practice) and independent ASM miners working in these informal mines are therefore left with the only option of selling gold to middlemen who pay them a lower price for their gold due to the lack of receipts. This further lowers the already meager earnings of workers and self-employed ASM miners.²⁹⁵

Where minerals are illegally extracted, they may be smuggled out of the country, obscuring their origins even further. Consumer and governmental pressure for “conflict-free” minerals from the DRC may have actually increased smuggling of minerals out of the country. The UN reported that after the Congolese government mandated that all minerals were required to be conflict free, smuggling into neighboring countries or Rwanda and Burundi increased.²⁹⁶ Large amounts of iron ore mined in Mexico have been smuggled out of the country to processors in China.²⁹⁷ After processing in China, the ore will be mixed with and indistinguishable from ore mined legally. This is also the case with gold extracted illegally from Peru. Verité’s research indicates that a significant amount of the Peruvian gold that is produced illegally and/or under conditions conducive to human trafficking makes its way into Peru’s exports.²⁹⁸ According to an in-depth study released in 2012 by Marcoconsult, a private Peruvian research firm, approximately 1.6 million ounces of illegally produced gold worth \$2.9 billion was exported from Peru in 2011, representing approximately 22 percent of Peru’s gold exports.²⁹⁹ The director of the study claimed that illegal gold exports superseded cocaine exports from Peru,³⁰⁰ which surpassed Colombia as the world’s biggest cocaine exporter in 2012.³⁰¹ Much of these illegal gold exports are shipped to Switzerland where they are melted down and combined with gold from other countries and it is impossible to determine the provenance of gold once it has been processed into gold ingots.³⁰² Because informal and illegal gold miners fail to declare their profits and pay taxes, the State loses an estimated \$450 million in tax revenue.³⁰³ The profits from illegal gold exports also fund criminal groups.³⁰⁴

While vulnerability for trafficking is typically the highest at the level of extraction, there are also cases of human trafficking around mineral/metal refining and processing. For example, charcoal used in the production of Brazilian pig iron has been produced with forced labor.³⁰⁵ Child labor has also been reported in the processing of gemstones.³⁰⁶

Federal Procurement in the Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production Sector:⁵

Very little iron or steel is procured in primary form by the United States Government. The mining sector is mainly implicated in the federal spend in the context of primary inputs to prime contracts involving heavy hardware purchases such as weapons systems, spacecraft, aircraft, ships, tanks, trucks, and passenger cars. Steel is also a key primary input to many federal construction contracts. Both heavy equipment and construction are major elements of the federal spend. In FY2013, transportation equipment (air, space, ground, and sea combined) accounted for \$78.14 billion in federal spending.⁶ Construction (PSC Y%) accounted for \$19.71 billion.

Metal ore is procured by the United States in primary form mainly by the US Mint, which spent \$3.54 billion in FY2013 on precious metals in primary form (PSC 9660). Spending on ore by the US Mint is quite consolidated, with nearly all FY2013 contracts distributed among only six suppliers, the largest of which, Coins ‘N Things, provided 40 percent (\$1.42 billion) of ore. Gold is a major component of the Mint’s spend, a commodity known to be at risk for trafficking in many world supply chains.

The federal spend on oil and gas (PSC 9130, 9140, 9150) in FY 2013 was \$14.379 billion.

⁵ All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

⁶ Total spending on transportation equipment was derived from a composite of PSC codes 15%, 16%, 17%, 18%, 19%, 20%, 22%, 23%, 25%, 26%, 28%, 29%, 30%, and 31%.

Human Trafficking in the Commercial Sex Industry

President Obama's Executive Order 13627 – Strengthening Protections Against Trafficking in Persons in Federal Contracts – clearly prohibits Federal contractors, contractor employees, subcontractors and subcontractor employees from “directly supporting or promoting trafficking in persons, the procurement of commercial sex acts, or the use of forced labor in the performance of the contract or subcontract,” and tasks the Federal Acquisition Regulatory (FAR) Council to amend the Federal Acquisition Regulation to reflect this.³⁰⁷

There were 4.5 million victims of forced sexual exploitation worldwide in 2012, according to ILO estimates. The vast majority of victims were female (98 percent) and most were adults (79 percent). The majority of victims of forced sexual exploitation were found to have crossed international borders (74 percent), while 19 percent were trafficked domestically. Seven percent of victims remained in their home areas.³⁰⁸

In a 2014 report, the ILO estimated that forced sexual exploitation generated \$99 billion in annual profits. Profits are highest in the Asia-Pacific region (\$31.7 billion) and the developed economies and the EU (\$26.2 billion). Forced sexual exploitation has the highest profits per victim, more than any other category of human trafficking. This is because of the low capital investment, the low operating costs, and the high prices clients pay. The global average annual profit per victim is \$21,800, which is six times more than the profits made off of victims of forced labor.³⁰⁹

There is a strong link between labor trafficking and forced sexual exploitation. Whenever there are large migrations of men to an area for employment (a risk indicator for human trafficking), there is a high demand for sexual services, which often generates sex trafficking. This is exacerbated when workers are living in isolated regions, away from familial and social connections. In Peru, for example, there is a high prevalence of sexual exploitation in and around gold mining camps. A local NGO in Madre de Dios reported that girls are deceived, kidnapped, threatened, or forced into debt bondage and brought to brothels in mining camps.³¹⁰ Verité research revealed that some girls and women respond to advertisements for jobs or are directly recruited by middlemen who offer unspecified employment in mining camps or jobs as cooks, store clerks, or waitresses. The research found that some of them were employed in these occupations, but were also forced to provide men with sexual services, while others were trafficked into brothels, where they were threatened with physical and sexual violence if they tried to flee.³¹¹ The United Nations' Special Rapporteur on Contemporary Forms of Slavery echoed this finding.³¹² Similarly, women from Mexico who are promised jobs in legal industries such as tourism or healthcare in the United States may be forced by traffickers to repay smuggling fees by working as prostitutes in brothels based at agricultural migrant work camps.³¹³

Although the United States Department of Defense has a strict prohibition against facilitating or supporting trafficking,³¹⁴ sex trafficking has also been connected to United States military bases. A 2009 report found that women are trafficked to meet demand for prostitution near United States military bases in South Korea.³¹⁵ Influxes of U.N. peacekeepers and associated personnel in conflict and post-conflict environments have also been identified with increased demand for prostitution, which can fuel sex trafficking.³¹⁶

In addition to the mining and agriculture sectors, the hospitality and transportation sectors are closely tied to the sex industry. Hotels are a major location for commercial sexual exploitation, and tourism development in a region often increases the demand for commercial sex. Airplanes, buses, and trains are modes of transportation for trafficking victims, and forced sexual exploitation often occurs at truck stops. The hospitality and transportation industries are gradually beginning to take some steps to combat the

problem. For example, Hilton, Starwood, Sabre, which owns Travelocity, and Carlson, which owns Radisson and Country Inns and Suites, have both begun training employees around the world to identify and report trafficking victims.³¹⁷ Marriott and Sabre, in partnership with the World Tourism Organization, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and UNESCO, launched a program aimed to educate travelers on human trafficking issues using websites, newsletters and consumer apps.³¹⁸ The Department of Homeland Security, Department of Transportation, and Amtrak are partnering to provide trainings to employees as well.³¹⁹

²²² US Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Industries at a Glance: Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction: NAICS 21*. <http://www.bls.gov/iag/tgs/iag21.htm>

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Fishing and Aquaculture

This sector report covers wild caught fishing, farm fishing (aquaculture) and fish processing. For more information on the human trafficking risks associated with fishing and aquaculture, see the commodity reports: [Fish](#) and [Shrimp](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Fishing and Aquaculture Sector:

Economy and Workforce:

The fishing and aquaculture sector is one of the world's fastest growing sectors. In 2012, global per capita fish consumption was approximately 19.2 kg per person, up from 9.9 kg per person in 1960.³²⁰ The FAO estimates that fishing and aquaculture provide livelihood for 10-12 percent of the world's population. Over 58 million people are involved in fishing and aquaculture, approximately 37 million of whom are engaged full-time. Over 84 percent of those involved in the fish sector are in Asia, with an additional ten percent in Africa. Although the majority of workers in the direct-capture fish sector are men, the sector also provides livelihood for women, who represent an estimated 15 percent of all workers engaged in fishing and aquaculture, and up to 90 percent of workers in secondary activities such as processing.³²¹

Fish is a highly traded commodity, with about 200 countries exporting fish and fishery products. Fish and fish products are particularly important for many developing nations, where the fish trade accounts for more than half of the total value of traded commodities. Developing economies saw their share rise to 54 percent of total fishery exports by value in 2012.³²² In addition to trade, fishing and aquaculture are important to many rural poor. Fish provides a key protein source in diets as well as providing jobs and income in areas where other income sources are scarce.³²³

With the expansion of the fish sector has come an increase in illegal, unreported, and unregulated (IUU) exploitation of wild fish stocks. IUU fishing refers to all activities that happen outside the control of laws and regulations, including activities such as fishing without a license, fishing in a closed area, fishing with prohibited gear, fishing in excess of a quota, and fishing of prohibited species. Fishing regulations can be challenging to enforce, as much of the IUU fishing happens on the high seas – that is, in water over 200 nautical miles from shore, where there is little regulation and enforcement. Outside of a nation's "exclusive economic zone" (the 200 mile strip of ocean adjacent to the shoreline), vessels are generally governed by the laws of the country in which they are registered, or their "flag state." Under the practice known as "flags of convenience," fishing vessels may be registered in countries with no meaningful link to their operations, including in countries with severely limited interest or capacity to enforce fishing-related laws on vessels flying their flag.³²⁴ This structural loop-hole built into the regulation and enforcement of fishing practices has led to increased environmental and social abuses in the sector, as the prevalence of IUU fishing has contributed to sharply declining world fish stocks through overfishing, leading vessels to undertake longer and longer voyages in order to find fish, and thereby increasing the vulnerability of workers who are stuck aboard for longer and longer periods of time. Declining stocks also increase the precariousness of employment for workers involved in fish processing, by threatening the overall viability of the industry.

As overfishing has reduced the biomass of many fish species, aquaculture has emerged as a way to fill rising demands for fish, and the FAO predicts that aquaculture harvests will surpass wild catches in the relatively near future.³²⁵ By 2030, more than 60 percent of consumed fish, mollusks, and crustaceans may come from aquaculture. Like fishing, aquaculture is particularly strong in developing economies, and over 90 percent of aquaculture activities take place in Asia. While not contributing to overfishing, aquaculture can lead to other kinds of environmental degradation through chemical inputs, disease, contamination of wild stocks, land conversion, and water pollution. Some aquaculture species are fed fishmeal, which is often derived from wild caught stocks, thus contributing to the problem. If their development is not well managed, aquaculture operations may also risk depriving local populations of previously arable farm land, potentially leading to land conflicts.³²⁶

Supply Chain Overview:

Fish and shellfish are harvested in open waters or raised via aquaculture in ponds, tanks, or bounded coastal waters. After harvest, fish are packed and transported to processing facilities or wholesalers. Processors convert the fish to consumer products such as canned, frozen, or smoked products, and fillets or other fresh products. Some fish may pass through multiple levels of processing, while others, such as certain kinds of shellfish, are transported live. Wholesalers receive both processed products, as well as more minimally processed fresh fish, from both foreign and domestic sources. The wholesalers then distribute the products to retailers and restaurants. Some fish products and by-products are not used for human consumption, but are instead used in fish and animal feed.³²⁷

United States Seafood Supply Chain:

The United States has the largest Exclusive Economic Zone fishing rights in the world and fishing regions include the Northeast, Southeast, Alaska, Pacific Coast, and South Pacific. Top species include crabs, shrimp, salmon, lobsters, cod, flatfish, scallops, hake, scallops, oysters, herring, and sardines. Catfish is by far the most common aquaculture-raised product in the US followed by crawfish, salmon, trout, oysters, tilapia, striped bass, clams, shrimp and mussels.³²⁸

The United States imports between 80-90 percent of its fish, about half of which is sourced from aquaculture.³²⁹ The top imported products are shrimp, freshwater fish, tuna, salmon, groundfish (such as cod, flounder, and halibut), crab, and squid. Shrimp constitutes the US's largest seafood import, with over \$3.4 billion worth of shrimp imported to the US from the top producing countries of Thailand, Indonesia, India, Ecuador, Vietnam, Malaysia and China in 2012.³³⁰ Tuna is the second most imported fish product, with canned, fresh, and frozen tuna coming from Thailand, Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam, and Ecuador.³³¹ Other important products in order by volume imported include: salmon from Norway, Canada, and Chile; groundfish species like cod, haddock, pollock and hake from Canada and Northern Europe, crabs and crabmeat from Southeast Asia, and frozen fish from China, Russia, Canada, and Iceland.³³²

Although domestic fishing is heavily regulated in the United States, according to one study, an estimated 20-32 percent of wild-caught fish imported to the United States comes from IUU fishing.³³³ One recent study found that Thailand had the most illegal fishing, with 25-40 percent of Thai tuna being illegally caught. Pollack and salmon from China, as well as tuna from the Philippines, Vietnam and Indonesia also registered high rates of illegality.³³⁴ Imports from Canada all had levels of illegal catches below ten percent, as did imports of clams from Vietnam and toothfish from Chile.

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State's 2014 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted evidence of human trafficking in the fishing and aquaculture sector in the following countries: Angola, Bangladesh, Belize, Burma, Burundi, Cambodia, Comoros, Costa Rica, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Fiji, Ghana, Indonesia, Israel, Jamaica, Kenya, Kiribati, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mongolia, Namibia, Federated States of Micronesia, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, United Kingdom, and Vietnam.³³⁵

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

The ILO identifies fishing as a highly hazardous sector.³³⁶ Fishers on vessels routinely face hazards and conditions of work that are exacerbated by poor weather conditions, a constantly moving work environment and the lack of medical care on the open water. While on vessels, fishers are exposed to sun and salt water without protective clothing, slippery/moving work surfaces, malfunctioning gear, regular use of knives/other sharp objects, entanglement in nets, large waves, inadequate sleeping quarters, inadequate sanitation, and a lack of fresh food and water. Should someone become ill while on board a vessel, it can be difficult to seek medical care in a timely manner. Collisions or shipwrecks are also a risk.³³⁷

Fishing crews are generally overseen by a captain or boss. The captain or boss has a high financial stake in a profitable voyage, incentivizing abusive management practices including actual or threatened physical abuse (hitting, threats, or actual violence with weapons, denial of rest), verbal abuse (yelling, threats), and other forms of intimidation. When setting nets or hauling in a catch, workers may be required to work around the clock without breaks for days. In some cases, captains may force workers to use amphetamines or other drugs as a way to combat fatigue.³³⁸ In extreme cases, crew members have reported witnessing murders of crew members at the hands of bosses.³³⁹

Fish and shrimp processing workers also face a high exposure to hazardous work conditions. Previous studies of the sector have identified a wide variety of risks including mechanical and electrical accidents, excessive noise levels, extreme cold, aggravation of respiratory conditions including asthma, skin and eye infections, and musculoskeletal injuries. Workers may also be exposed to "bioaerosols containing seafood allergens, microorganisms and toxins."³⁴⁰ Workers in shrimp processing facilities in Bangladesh interviewed by Verité reported being denied access to bathroom facilities for entire shifts, which can cause urinary tract infections and gastrointestinal disorders.

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Workforce vulnerability in fishing derives from a variety of causes, some of which have to do with the typical structure of employment relationships in the industry, and some of which have to do with the economic and education levels of the worker populations in question.

On small fishing boats, employment relationships are predominantly casual.³⁴¹ Sometimes relationships between captains and crews are rooted in traditional patronage dynamics, leading to a high degree of dependence for workers, who may belong to families with historically subservient, dependent relationships to their boss's family, on whom their kin might depend for access to things like school fees or land rights, severely limiting the employee's ability to advocate for better working conditions on the fishing boat.³⁴² Further complicating employment relationships in fishing, payment on both large and small fishing vessels is often based on the traditional "share" system, in which worker pay is based on an allotment of net proceeds from the catch after expenses for output (food, fuel, etc.) are deducted. Under the "share" system, workers are considered 'partners' in the fishing venture rather than employees, and are therefore denied legal protections available to other classes of workers. The "share" system also means that crew members share the risks normally associated with being owners. If a voyage does not clear a profit, workers may not be compensated, leaving them vulnerable to debt.³⁴³ Fishers may also have their pay docked for items consumed on board, including cigarettes, alcohol, medicine, and in some

cases, food. These items are often deducted at highly inflated rates, and in situations where fishers already have debt to money lenders, labor brokers, or the boat operators, this can tip them over into a situation of debt bondage. In some cases, a worker's family at home may also take loans from the boat ownership while the fisher is at sea; this too is deducted from the fisher's pay and workers are typically charged high rates of interest. The many fishers who are paid under some version of the "share" system often lack visibility into the calculation of boat profits, and therefore of their wages. For example, workers interviewed by Verité in the Philippines' tuna sector noted that they are barred from observing the catch being weighed, leaving them reliant on employer promises, and leading to a perception of being cheated in the payment of their wages.³⁴⁴

Fish processing facilities are increasingly reliant on "casual" labor rather than permanent employees, allowing them flexibility to respond to lower and unpredictable catches. For example, Verité research into the tuna sector in the Philippines found that canning facilities have shifted to hiring nearly all of their workers through labor cooperatives, which provides them with a highly flexible labor pool and allows them to avoid a direct employment relationship and the ensuing benefits for workers that that relationship would entail. The growing casualization of the canning work force has had a particular impact on women, who make up the bulk of the canning workforce and are often the wives or female family members of the fishers. Workers employed through employment agencies face constant labor insecurity, as their contracts generally range from five to six months. Workers employed by cooperatives also face job insecurity, since one of the requirements for them to maintain their cooperative membership is to keep themselves employed. They may reapply at the end of each employment period, but there is no guarantee they will be re-hired. Due to the decrease in catch due to overfishing, employees across the tuna sector in the Philippines expressed fear that voicing any grievance would result in "black-listing" from the entire industry, a fear that seriously limits workers' capacity for self advocacy. In areas such as the General Santos Region of the Philippines, where the fishing sector represents the vast majority of economic activity, the threat of black-listing is experienced as a severe menace.³⁴⁵

Workers aboard fishing vessels are inherently isolated. Fishing vessels, particularly those involved in long-distance fishing, have an increasing capability to stay at sea for long periods of time – even up to several years. Rather than regularly docking, these vessels can "transship" caught fish and fuel via smaller vessels. This may mean that the crew of these ships has no access to port, leaving them unable to escape, report abuse, or seek assistance.³⁴⁶ While aboard vessels, workers rarely have access to means of communication with the outside world. They may be out of reach of cell phone communication, and barred from using other on-board communication devices such as radios or satellite phones. Depletion of fish stocks may also contribute to longer voyages, as vessels journey further and further from port, leaving workers on board for longer periods of time. Verité research has found that in some cases, vessel operators may deceive workers regarding the length of the voyage or the geographic itinerary, taking workers into illegal fishing zones or the sovereign waters of other countries, where workers may face detention or arrest.³⁴⁷

In fact, workers engaged in illegal fishing are especially vulnerable to labor trafficking and other forms of exploitation. They often use prohibited fishing techniques, such as explosives, which are extremely hazardous. They are sometimes employed by, or owe money to, criminal groups, making it hard for them to escape from exploitative situations without a perceived threat of violent reprisal. Also, because they are engaged in illegal activities, it is unlikely that they will complain to authorities about violations of their rights for fear of arrest. Fishermen are also vulnerable to maritime drug traffickers and piracy. Verité research in Ecuador indicated that drug traffickers sometimes killed or intimidated fishermen or forced them to traffic drugs. There were also reports that pirates robbed fishermen of their boats, catches, or motors, making them vulnerable to debt bondage. In some cases, their employers deducted the amount of these goods from their pay. In other cases, self-employed fishermen had obtained loans from informal

money lenders for their boats, and upon losing them, had to work in fishing for prolonged periods to pay off the debt.

A final point is that child labor is common in fishing and aquaculture across the globe. Many children who are engaged in fishing or aquaculture participate on an informal basis, and it is common for children to enter the sector working alongside their parents or other adult family members.³⁴⁸ Some children may seek out work in the fishing sector as a means to earn money or support their family, particularly when this is considered a culturally appropriate way for boys to prove their maturity.³⁴⁹ Children may enter the sector as a means to pay off family debt owed to boat captains or ownership. In some contexts, such as fishing around Lake Volta in Ghana, children are recruited through traffickers who make upfront payments to the child's parents and deceive families regarding working conditions.³⁵⁰ Like adults, children participating in fishing may also be subjected to deductions for provisions, such as food and cigarettes, leaving them in debt.³⁵¹ In some cases, children may be recruited for fishing activities because of a perceived advantage in lung capacity (i.e. their capacity diving for fish) or hand dexterity.³⁵² Children may also be recruited because of a perception that they are more docile.

Migrant Workforce:

Migrant labor is increasingly used in the fishing, aquaculture and fish processing sector as a means of cost savings. Abuse of migrant workers in the fishing sector has been well-documented. Fishers are generally recruited in their home villages or ports and a worker may pass through a series of agents, each adding an additional debt burden through fees for their services.³⁵³ This recruitment-related debt burden can act as a binding force for fishers, preventing them from resigning or advocating for better conditions, for fear of losing their jobs. Working conditions are often obscured until the worker is on board the vessel, possibly already in international waters, with no means of recourse. All workers, including migrant workers, on vessels are routinely required to surrender identity documents such as passports, thereby restricting their freedom of movement in foreign ports.³⁵⁴ Some larger vessels can stay at sea for a year or more at a time, and lack of access to legal documentation can powerfully inhibit a worker's ability to escape, even if he does gain access to port. Cases of foreign fishers being forced to work in the sector have also been reported.³⁵⁵

Thailand, where human trafficking has been well documented in both fishing and fish processing, has one of the lowest rates of unemployment in the region,³⁵⁶ leaving it dependent on a low-skilled work force composed of foreign workers. Up to 80 percent of migrant workers in Thailand are from Burma, and the general migrant worker population is vulnerable to a variety of abuses, including killings, torture, extortion, sexual abuse, and forced labor.³⁵⁷ There are estimated to be thousands of Burmese migrants working aboard Thai vessels, many in conditions tantamount to slavery.³⁵⁸

In the United States, fish processing, like other forms of meat processing, relies heavily on the labor of migrant workers. Documented migrant workers in United States fish processing are classified as H-2B workers (a visa category intended for guestworkers in sectors other than agriculture), who are generally not afforded the same protections as H-2A workers (see the [Guestworker Visas](#) pullout box for more information). In 2012, the United States Department of Labor found a Louisiana seafood processing company employing H-2B guestworkers in violation of a number of labor protections – including health and safety and minimum wage violations.³⁵⁹ Workers also alleged that management made threats of retaliation against them, including threats of deportation and threats against their families in Mexico through their labor brokers.³⁶⁰ A recent report from Centro de los Derechos de Migrante, Inc and the American University Washington College of Law Human Rights Clinic detailed abuses faced by female H-2B workers in the Maryland crab processing sector. The workers interviewed for the report were indebted to labor brokers who recruited them for the jobs. Wages were much lower than promised by recruiters, and workers reported wage deductions and piece-rate wage structures that made it nearly impossible to attain the minimum wage. Further deductions were taken for the purchase of basic personal

protective equipment. Although the workers face abuse and harassment in addition to low wages and hazardous working conditions, they feared retaliation from their employer and believed they had no viable grievance mechanism.³⁶¹

In Japan, labor exploitation has been identified in the fishing sector in conjunction with the Industrial Trainee and Technical Internship Program, whose stated purpose of is nurturing talent from developing countries. The program has been seen to effectively permit the exploitation of inexpensive migrant labor.³⁶² Many of the workers placed within the foreign trainee program work on fishing boats.³⁶³ The training program lasts for up to three years.³⁶⁴ These workers are initially recruited and hired by labor brokers in their home country, and the United States Department of State reports that workers in the training program often pay substantial fees to secure their jobs, leaving them vulnerable to bonded labor, even though such fees are illegal.³⁶⁵ The majority of foreign trainee workers in the Japanese fishing sector are Indonesians³⁶⁶ and Filipinos, with some Chinese fishers also present.³⁶⁷ Though less media attention has been paid to abuses committed against foreign trainees working within the fishing and aquaculture sector in Japan, it appears that these individuals face the same abuses as those working on farms and in factories. Like other fishermen, the trainees face long hours and hazardous conditions. Foreign trainees in the fishing sector are paid approximately 25 percent of the wages of Japanese fishers.³⁶⁸

Migrant workers are also reportedly exploited in the Irish and Scottish fishing sectors where they are subject to underpaid wages, physical abuse, and intimidation. In one publicized case, Filipino men were recruited illegally on transport visas, were charged fees for recruitment, and had their passports confiscated and their wages withheld upon arrival.³⁶⁹ Nigerian fishers in UK waters have also reported exploitation, and a recent report suggested that migrants from North Africa, Russia, and Turkey may also be vulnerable.³⁷⁰

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chains:

Employment in the fishing sector is highly dependent on local context, the size of the vessel, and the type of fishing undertaken. Fishers employed on larger boats may have relatively formal employment agreements with the captain of the vessel or fleet ownership, but contracts are rare. Workers may be recruited through formal or informal labor recruiters, to whom they owe debt for their job placement. Often, workers recruited through brokers will have no advance knowledge of their actual employer, with whom they may be required to spend months at sea. Many trafficked workers on fishing vessels have reported incidents of violence, including homicide.³⁷¹

There have been many documented cases of Southeast Asian workers forced to work in the fishing sector from countries such as Cambodia, Burma and Indonesia through labor agents or brokers. In one case documented in Bloomberg News, an Indonesian man sought work through an employment agency in Jakarta specializing in placing crews on foreign fishing vessels. Promised a relatively high salary, he borrowed money to pay a fee to secure his job. The labor agent rushed him through a contract in English, which he could not read. The contract compelled the worker to surrender 30 percent of his salary, which he would forfeit unless he completed his contract. He was to be paid nothing for the first three months of work, and if he did not perform work to the fishing company's satisfaction, he could be sent home and charged for airfare. He was required to work as many hours as required by the boat captains.³⁷² This Indonesian worker was on a South Korean owned vessel operating in New Zealand waters, illustrating the complexity of relevant jurisdiction in the fishing sector.

In some regions, recruitment, human trafficking, and abuse of migrant workers in the fishing sector is tied to organized crime. In one egregious example, in the Sea of Okhotsk, to the east of mainland Russia, at least two illegal crabbing vessels run by organized criminal organizations have made use of labor trafficked into Russia from the Ukraine. In that instance, Ukrainian crew members were recruited through employment agencies in the Ukraine, which charged workers between \$700 and \$1,000 to place them

aboard ships. The agency also facilitated the contract signing process. Many workers were required to pay for their own transportation to the ship in Russia, where the men waited for roughly a month in a hotel before they were to embark. Once in Russia the crew members were told that the original contracts they had signed were no longer valid, and that they were required to sign new contracts agreeing to half the pay they had previously agreed upon. Crew members were delivered to the “mother boat” via a smaller vessel -- the crabbing operation that they had signed a contract for was illegitimate, and the crabbing ships were hiding out at sea to avoid the Russian authorities. Once on the crabbing boat the men were not allowed to leave unless they were willing to pay an additional fee of \$1,000 to have a ship come and pick them up. Workers were required to work seven days a week for 18 to 22 hours each day; some workers sustained injuries while working due to lack of sleep. Workers were not provided with sufficient food and water; at times workers ate the bait for the crabs, or attempted to catch fish to feed themselves. Workers were constantly in freezing conditions, working in water that covered their legs that was 30 degrees Fahrenheit. As a result of these conditions many of the men developed chronic illnesses, such as pneumonia, chronic bronchitis, prostatitis, and PTSD. Physical abuse was also prevalent on the ship, with workers being beaten to the point of having their teeth knocked out. Workers aboard these crabbing ships were unable to leave for extended periods of time, as they were not allowed to disembark when the boat went to port.³⁷³

In addition to the risks posed by recruitment for migrants in the fishing sector, workers may be internally trafficked by labor contractors or middlemen. In Bangladesh shrimp processing, Verité research found that labor contractors recruit workers both from local communities and from the population of internal migrants seeking work in the industry. Local Bangladeshi shrimp processors are generally extremely poor and thus seek any source of income. Shrimp processing plants use contractors to supply workers because it allows them access to a highly flexible labor pool, which is often necessary as plants work to meet the time and cost demands of buyers. Further, it allows plants to avoid any direct employment relationship with workers. Several labor contractors may provide workers to the same facility. Labor contractors act as their workers' supervisors within the facility (although the plant may provide its own supervisors as well), so contractors are often in a position to enforce disciplinary measures or fire workers. This makes expressing any grievance difficult for workers without fear of losing their job. Labor contractors are also in a position to control the payment of workers' wages. In a typical arrangement, the labor contractor is paid by the facility per unit of production. The labor contractor in turn pays the worker a percentage of the total amount he received from the facility, which incentivizes these labor contractor to underpay wages. For example, contract workers involved in de-heading shrimp are typically paid per basket of shrimp. Supervisors fill baskets with shrimp to a pre-established weight, and then give this basket to the worker for de-heading. The worker's pay is tied to the pre-established weight of the basket. In the Verité study, workers reported that supervisors would fill the baskets to exceed the predetermined weight, so that workers were forced to de-head more shrimp than they were being paid for.³⁷⁴

Federal Procurement in the Fishing and Aquaculture Sector:⁷

Federal procurement of fish and other seafood products represents a subset of overall federal subsistence procurement. Unfortunately, fish and seafood purchases are not broken out as a separate spending category within the PSC coding system, fish being grouped together with meat and poultry under the single PSC code 8905 (MEAT, POULTRY, AND FISH).

More detail is offered by the NAICS classification system, which is also tracked in the Federal Procurement Data System database. The NAICS codes 445220 (FISH AND SEAFOOD MARKETS) and

⁷ All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

424460 (FISH AND SEAFOOD MERCHANT WHOLESALERS) are used to demarcate fish and seafood purchases, and the NAICS codes 311711 (SEAFOOD CANNING), 311712 (FRESH AND FROZEN SEAFOOD PROCESSING), and 311710 (SEAFOOD PRODUCT PREPARATION AND PACKAGING) track contracts for fish processing. When FPDS.GOV is searched for these NAICS codes, however, it becomes clear that only some federal agencies are distinguishing their fish contracts from their other purchases of food in their record-keeping by using the relevant NAICS codes; other agencies simply record the general PSC code for MEAT, POULTRY, AND FISH for all food procurement transactions.

A search of FPDS.GOV for the above fish-related NAICS codes reveals a spend of \$46 million on fish and fish processing in FY2013, almost all of which was procured by the Agricultural Marketing Service, the Defense Commissary Agency, and the Federal Prisons. Verité analysis of overall subsistence spending by US agencies reveals that these three agencies account for approximately half of United States subsistence procurement. The other half is largely accounted for by the Defense Logistics Agency, which buys 45 percent of all food purchased by the United States Government, and to a lesser extent by the Veterans Administration, neither of which track fish expenditures separately from other purchases of meat and poultry.

Assuming that the DLA and VA procure fish in roughly the same proportions as other federal agencies that buy foodstuffs, the total federal spend in the fishing sector may be estimated at about \$92 million (twice \$46 million). This figure should be taken as a minimum estimate, however, since it is possible that not all AMS, DeCA, and FP fish contracts have been tagged with the NAICS codes.

There is no data at all available about fish procurement overseas in FY2013: all contracts tagged with the relevant NAICS codes were performed in the United States. This fact reflects the absence of DLA data in the analysis, and may also suggest that DeCA figures for fish purchases may only be capturing DeCA US-based procurement activities, and not subsistence purchases made by DeCA overseas. Amending the PSC system to isolate federal expenditures on fish/seafood and fish/seafood processing, or at least encouraging all relevant agencies to use the relevant NAICS codes for such contracts, would increase the ability to monitor federal supply chains in this vulnerable sector.

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Forestry

This report covers labor in the logging and wood processing industries. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with particular forestry commodities, see the commodity reports: [Bamboo](#) and [Charcoal](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Forestry Sector:

The forestry sector refers to the growing and harvesting of timber.³⁷⁵ Work in this sector includes cutting down trees with hand-held tools or felling machines, dragging logs with tractors, separating and classifying logs, and grading logs according to specific characteristics, and inspecting relevant equipment.³⁷⁶

Economy:

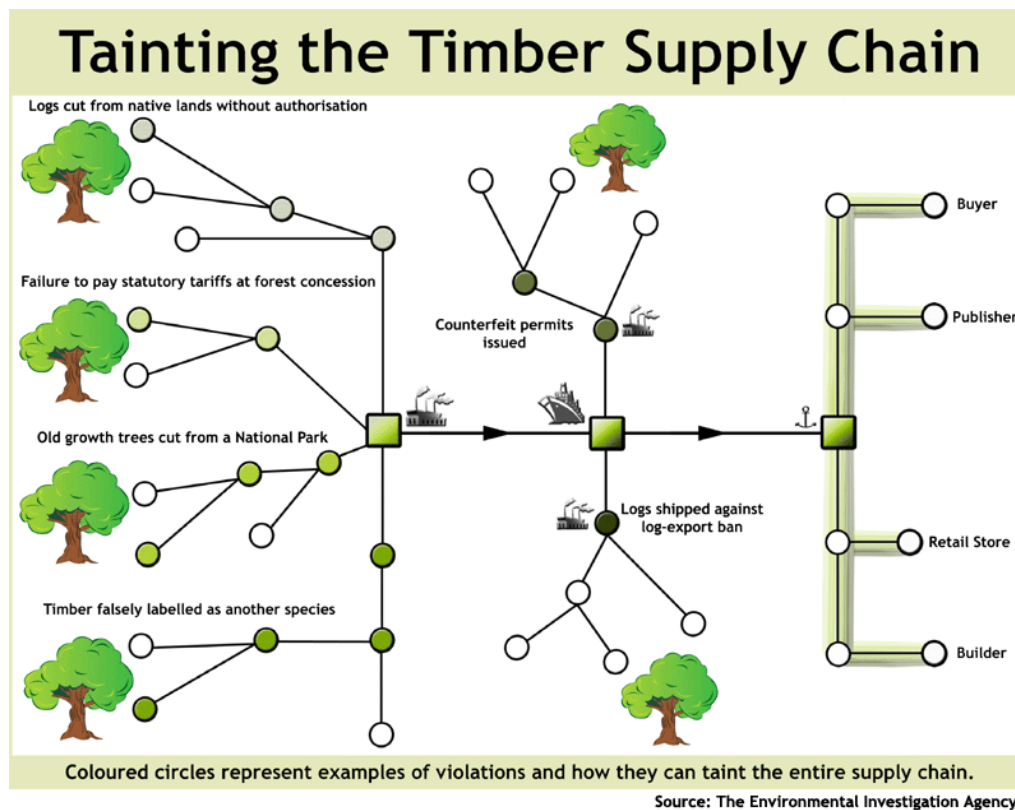
The forestry sector, which includes the extraction and processing of forest resources, contributed just under one percent of global GDP in 2011.³⁷⁷ The United States forest product industry produces over \$200 billion worth of wood and paper products annually.³⁷⁸

According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, forestry products can be broken down into the following categories: roundwood (wood fuel, industrial roundwood), sawnwood, wood-based panels (veneer, plywood, particleboard, and fiberboard), wood pulp, other fibre pulp, recovered paper, and paper and paperboard.³⁷⁹ Global production of the major forestry products greatly declined in 2009 as a result of the global economic crisis. The industry is slowly recovering, but 2012 production levels were still below 2007 pre-recession levels. Production levels are expected to continue to slowly recover. The forestry products sector has historically been dependent on the success and growth of the construction sector and therefore the real estate market, so as these sectors recover, so should the forestry sector.³⁸⁰

In 2012, global industrial roundwood production was almost 1.7 billion cubic meters, sawnwood production was 413 million cubic meters, wood-based panel production was 301 million cubic meters, and fiber furnish (encompassing wood pulp, other fiber pulp, and recovered paper) was 399 million metric tons. Compared to other major forestry products, the production of wood fuel and paper and paperboard were relatively unaffected by the economic crisis. In 2012, global woodfuel production was almost 1.9 billion cubic meters, less than one percent below 2008 levels. Regional production patterns have changed a great deal, however. Production in North America, Asia-Pacific and Europe decreased while production in Africa and Latin America and Caribbean increased. Paper and paperboard production has been steadily increasing since 2008. In 2012, 400 million tons of paper and paperboard were produced.³⁸¹ Paper continues to be in demand despite the rise of digital products; paper is increasingly being used as a green alternative to petroleum-based packaging.³⁸² Global wood pellet production has increased in recent years, due in large part to Europe's bioenergy use targets and policies. Global production of wood pellets in 2012 was 19 million tons, half of which was traded internationally.³⁸³

Europe is by far the biggest consumer of wood pellets (80 percent of global consumption); North America is a distant, second (17 percent of global consumption). Europe and North America are also the top producers of wood pellets with 66 percent and 31 percent of production, respectively.³⁸⁴ In 2012, the US was the largest producer of industrial roundwood, followed by Canada, Brazil, China, and Russia. These five countries were also the largest consumers of the product. The United State was also the largest producer of sawnwood in 2012, followed by China, Canada, Russia, and Brazil. China was the largest importer of sawnwood, followed by the United States, Japan, the UK, and Italy. China's consumption of the product more than doubled between 2008 and 2012.³⁸⁵ China produced 39 percent of the world's wood-based panels in 2012, followed by the United States, Russia, Germany, and Canada. The top four producers were also the top four consumers. The top producing countries of fiber products in 2012 were the United States, China, Japan, Canada and Brazil. These countries, with the exception of China, were also the main exporters, along with the UK. In 2012, China and the United States are also the two largest producers of paper and paperboard, followed by Japan Germany and Sweden. These four countries, with the exception of Sweden, are also the major consumers, along with India.³⁸⁶

Illegal logging operations, including the processing of the wood, are valued at \$30-100 billion or ten to 30 percent of the global wood trade.³⁸⁷ In 2006, The World Bank estimated that the financial losses from illegal logging equaled approximately \$15 billion every year. The Government of Indonesia estimated that it loses approximately \$3.2 billion a year from illegal logging.³⁸⁸ Illegal logging is carried out using the following methods: "falsification of logging permits, bribes to obtain logging permits (in some instances noted as \$20-50,000 per permit), logging beyond concessions, hacking government websites to obtain transport permits for higher volumes or transport, laundering illegal timber by establishing roads, ranches, palm oil or forest plantations and mixing with legal timber during transport or in mills."³⁸⁹



Workforce:

Occupations within the logging industry include: fallers who cut down the trees with chainsaws or mobile felling machine; buckers who trim the felled trees and cut the logs; tree climbers who scale the trees in order to remove tree limbs; choke setters who set up the steel cables or chains and connect them to tractors that bring the logs to landing areas where they are sorted and loaded onto trucks; rigging slingers and chasers that set up the yarding system; log sorters, markers, movers, and chippers that sort the logs based on different specifications and tend the machines that chip up logs; logging equipment operators; drivers of tree harvesters, tractors, and skidders; and log graders and scalers who inspect and measure the logs.³⁹⁰

According to the FAO, the formal forestry sector employs 13.2 million people globally and the informal forestry sector employs 41 million. It is estimated that 840 million people, 12 percent of the global population, collect woodfuel and charcoal for their personal use as well.³⁹¹

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that there were 43,900 logging workers in the United States in 2012, and that it is projected that this number will decline by nine percent from 2012 to 2022.³⁹² In 2013 20,600 workers in the industry were employed as logging equipment operators, which accounted for the largest occupation in the sector. There were 7,870 workers employed as truck drivers, heavy and tractor-trailer, 5,030 workers employed as fallers, 2,420 workers employed as first-line supervisors/managers of farming, fishing, and forestry workers, and 610 workers employed as sawing machine setters, operators, and tenders, during the same year.³⁹³ The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics' Current Population Survey, which includes self-employed workers, reported that 47,000 workers were employed in Forestry, not including logging and 91,000 workers were employed in logging in 2013.³⁹⁴

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State's 2014 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted evidence of human trafficking in the forestry sector in the following countries: Brazil, Czech Republic, Guyana, Kyrgyz Republic, Laos, North Korea, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Solomon Islands, Sweden, Uganda, and Vietnam.³⁹⁵

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

In 2012, in the United States forestry and logging industry, there were 4.3 injuries per 100 workers and 65 fatalities overall, down from 5.0 injuries per 100 workers and 78 deaths in 2011.³⁹⁶ In 2010, there was a fatality rate of 73.7 deaths per 100,000 workers in the United States forestry and logging industry. This rate was 21 times higher than the overall fatality rate of 3.4 deaths per 100,000 workers in the United States in 2010.³⁹⁷ The tools and equipment used by loggers, for example chainsaws, are extremely dangerous to operate. Loggers are in danger of falling or rolling logs as well. The hazards are exacerbated by poor weather conditions and the isolation of work sites.³⁹⁸ The pulp and paper industry is also dangerous. Pulpwood loads are very heavy and can fall and harm workers. There are also dangerous machines that workers are expected to operate.³⁹⁹ These risks are also true for other wood processing operations.

Loggers employed on illegal logging sites are even more vulnerable to dangerous working conditions and abuse due to the lack of regulation and the presence of organized crime. In key producing countries in the Amazon basin, Central Africa, and Southeast Asia, it is estimated that between 50 and 90 percent of all forestry activity is carried out by organized crime,⁴⁰⁰ which has increased incidents of murder and violence against indigenous peoples living in or near the forests.⁴⁰¹ There are a number of recent articles about the involvement of organized crime in the illegal logging industries, particularly in Latin America.⁴⁰² In Peru, 2012 World Bank estimates indicate that 80 percent of timber exports were linked to illegal logging, which funds narco-trafficking organizations and aids them in money laundering. In Peru,

and especially in Brazil, a large number of anti-logging activists have been murdered.⁴⁰³ Verité research in Peru indicated that there was a high rate of exploitative, dangerous, and forced labor linked to illegal logging.

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Logging, legal and illegal, often occurs on the lands of indigenous people. This is especially true in Peru and Brazil where there are a number of large Indigenous Land Conservation Units that are home to the “greatest population of isolated indigenous communities” in the Amazon. In Brazil, the 1988 constitution secures the right of indigenous communities to this land. Despite this protection, these lands have been ravaged by mining and timber extraction as well as drug trafficking.⁴⁰⁴ The indigenous peoples living on the land are at great risk of violence and exploitation in illegal logging operations run by organized crime. In the Peruvian Amazon, it is estimated that 33,000 people, most of whom belong to various ethnic groups in the Amazon, are trafficked in the logging industry.⁴⁰⁵ Illegal logging is also pushing indigenous populations off of the land that they depend on for survival. Recently a video was released by Brazil’s National Indian Foundation that shows an isolated group of indigenous people allegedly seeking outside assistance because of the pressures and attacks they were experiencing from illegal logging and drug trafficking operations.⁴⁰⁶

In Burma, there are reports of indigenous people forced to work in the teak logging industry. If they complain or refuse to work, they are vulnerable to fines, imprisonment, and even torture by Burmese soldiers. The workers are often unpaid and no compensation is given for injuries that occur on the job.⁴⁰⁷

Anti-Slavery International’s 2006-2007 report on North Koreans attempting to flee to China found that many of those who were deported back to North Korea were trafficked while in detention. One of the major forced labor projects was state-run mountain logging. In the labor camps, prisoners were subject to beatings, overcrowding, unhygienic facilities, and a shortage of food.⁴⁰⁸

Migrant Workforce:

Migrant workers are vulnerable to human trafficking in the forestry and logging industry. In the United States, migrant guestworkers may be given H-2B visas to work in forestry, which has been classified as non-agricultural activity since 1986. Many American citizens, and even undocumented workers, do not want to work in forestry, as it is a dangerous and demanding job that offers low pay and only seasonal employment. Labor brokers have found that H-2B workers are more productive than work crews in the United States because they spend more time planting and less time traveling, as they live at or near the worksite in many cases. Forest Labor Crews also prefer H-2B workers because they risk raids by immigration authorities if they employ undocumented workers and it would be prohibitively expensive to employ United States citizens. Therefore, most large labor contractors have turned to the H-2B program to recruit their workforce. This is evidenced by the fact that 41 percent of labor brokers in forestry employ a workforce made up of over 75 percent H-2B workers, who comprised approximately 84 percent of forestry workers in 2005. The three largest hand tree-planting labor brokers in the Southeastern United States, which were responsible for over half of all tree planting in the Southeast, reported that all of their workers were H-2Bworkers (see the [Guestworker Visas](#) pullout box for more information).⁴⁰⁹

Migrant workers employed under H-2B visas are more vulnerable to trafficking than agricultural workers employed under H-2A visas since they have reduced rights to minimum wages and reimbursement of travel expenses, lack access to legal services, and enjoy fewer protections under current regulations. Guestworkers in the forest industry, many of whom have no previous work experience or access to social networks in the United States, face extreme isolation at worksites, are beholden to contractors, fear losing their jobs if they complain, and are generally unaware of their basic rights. By contrast, many undocumented forest workers belong to established social networks through which they are recruited onto forest labor crews. Therefore, guestworkers, who are more isolated and may be subject to deportation if

they complain, are more vulnerable to human trafficking. According to Verité's interviews and secondary sources, forestry workers tend to pay for part of their recruitment, visa, and travel fees up front, the rest of which is deducted from their paychecks by the labor brokers after arrival in the US. One forestry worker earned 13 cents per hour after deductions.⁴¹⁰

In the United States, a number of workers from Hidalgo, Mexico were allegedly subjected to human trafficking during the 2012-2013 forestry season by a forestry company. The workers were recruited on H-2B visas. According to worker accounts, their passports were taken upon arrival in the United States, and the workers were immediately transported to Northern California where they were split into groups and were led deep into the forest. The workers were forced to sleep in tents in the woods and made to work up to 13 hours a day, six days a week. The workers were forced to use dangerous chemicals with very little protective equipment; only gloves and overalls were provided. Workers said that the chemicals caused vomiting, skin peeling, and burning eyes. The workers were paid very little, sometimes as little as \$100 for two weeks of work, as illegal deductions, including a \$2,000 visa cost per worker, were taken out of their wages. The workers had to pay \$240 every two weeks for their food, which was provided by the father of one of the company supervisors. The meat was often spoiled when the workers received it and the drinking water that they were given was later deemed unsanitary. Supervisors were allegedly verbally abusive; some carried guns and threatened to kill workers if they didn't work hard..⁴¹¹

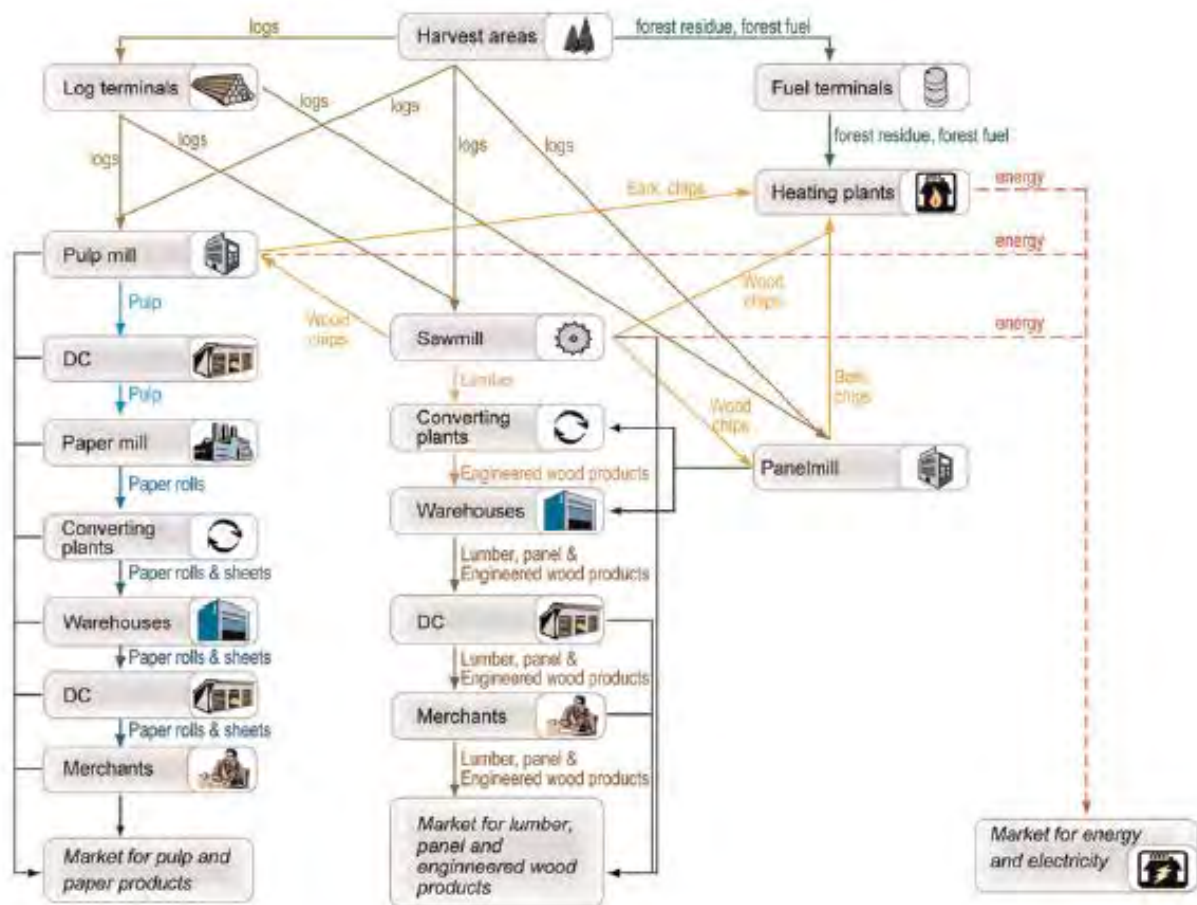
Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chain:

The presence of labor brokers and other types of middlemen in the production and export of timber creates a massive potential for abuse. In the United States, the visa system creates the need for labor brokers, as employers lack connections in sending countries and migrants seeking jobs need a sponsor in the US in order to secure a visa. Labor brokers thus play a crucial role in connecting these two parties and facilitating the complex visa application process. However, in many cases, labor brokers engage in exploitative practices that increase workers' vulnerability to trafficking, such as deception about the nature and terms of employment, excessive deductions from workers' pay, document retention, and threats.⁴¹²

A type of debt bondage specific to the forestry industry and other primary industries occurs when middlemen, having previously agreed on a price for timber from the local community, claim that the market price for the timber has gone down and refuse to pay the previously set price, leaving the community in debt.⁴¹³ In Peru, brokers, known as *habilitadores*, lure young men to the timber harvesting areas for employment. Once they are there, the brokers charge the men inflated prices for supplies in order to do the work. Since the sites are so isolated, the men have no choice but to pay for the supplies, which can result in a cycle of insurmountable debt.⁴¹⁴

Long, Complex, and/or Non-Transparent Supply Chains:

Illegal timber passes through a long and complicated international supply chain, making it difficult to prosecute the perpetrators of timber smuggling and to determine the products' provenance. Illegal timber is harvested around the world, but mainly in Africa and Asia where there are low levels of sustainable forest management and certification schemes, high levels of poverty, and weak governance. In Asia, much of the illegal timber is transported to Singapore, South Korea, and China, where it is processed, labeled as legal, and exported to the US and Europe.⁴¹⁵ In Russia, for example, there has been a major issue with illegal logging operations in the Russian Far East region that contains old-growth temperate hardwood forests. Ninety-six percent of this illegal wood is exported to China where it is mixed in with legal woods and sold on the international market.⁴¹⁶ Workers employed in illegal logging, which is primarily controlled by violent criminal groups, are inherently more vulnerable to human trafficking since they have a legitimate fear of reprisal for leaving their jobs without permission or walking away from debts. As they are engaged in illegal activities, they are less likely to be comfortable filing grievances with authorities.



Source: Carlsson, Dick, Sophie D'Amours, Alain Martel, and Mikael Ronnqvist. "Supply Chain Planning Models in the Pulp and Paper Industry." *Information Systems and Operational Research (INFOR). Journal*, Vol. 47, No. 3, (2009): 167-183.

Federal Procurement in the Forestry Sector:⁸

One major way that the forestry sector is implicated in the federal spend is via the lumber and other wood products that are used in federal construction projects. As with other building materials, lumber is most often procured through subcontracts embedded within prime construction contracts, rather than directly purchased by the Government, making spending on lumber difficult to isolate in the Federal Procurement Data System. Direct spending on lumber and other wood building materials (PSC 55%) in FY2013 was only \$42 million out of a total spend on construction of \$19.71 billion.

Tree planting and forestry associated with recuperation from forest fires is procured by the Forest Service, the Bureau of Land Management, and the United States Fish and Wildlife Service, as well as a few other agencies. In FY2013, the United States spent \$55 million on forestry labor of this kind (PSC F004, F005, and F018).

⁸ All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

Paper products for forms and office use are used by virtually every federal agency, with most procurement made through the GSA's Federal Acquisition Service. In FY2013, the federal spend on office stationery and forms (PSC 7530 and 7540) was \$25 million, \$12 million of which was procured from sheltered workshops for the blind and UNICOR/Federal Prison Industries.

Federal spending on books, newspapers, and periodicals (PSC 7610 and 7630) was \$202 million in FY2013. Digital media subscriptions are not distinguished from paper media purchases in the PSC tracking system, however, so it is likely that many of these expenses are not relevant to the forestry sector.

³⁷⁵ US Bureau of Labor Statistics. US Department of Labor. "Forestry and Logging." 2013.

<http://www.bls.gov/iag/tgs/iag113.htm#about>

³⁷⁶ US Bureau of Labor Statistics, US Department of Labor. "Logging Workers." *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2014-15 Edition*. <http://www.bls.gov/ooh/farming-fishing-and-forestry/logging-workers.htm#tab-2>

³⁷⁷ World Wildlife Fund. Briefing for the World Forum on Enterprise and the Environment. *Timber and Wood Products*. 2011. http://assets.wwf.org.uk/downloads/timber_briefing_280611.pdf

³⁷⁸ Southeastern Lumber Manufacturer's Association, Inc. "US Forest Products Industry Statistics." http://www.slma.org/stats_us.shtml

³⁷⁹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. FAOSTAT. "Global production and trade of forest products in 2012." 2012. <http://www.fao.org/forestry/statistics/80938/en/>

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Healthcare

This report focuses on the services provided by the healthcare industry, specifically on the services provided by lower skilled positions that are more vulnerable to human trafficking. For risks associated with healthcare equipment manufacturing, please see the pull out box.

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Healthcare Sector:

The global medical industry incorporates a vast array of services provided by hospitals, nursing homes, diagnostic laboratories, and pharmacies. These institutions employ workers at all professional levels and they are supported by drug, pharmaceutical, chemical, and medical equipment manufacturers and suppliers. Public policy workers, medical writers, clinical research lab workers, IT professionals, sales and marketing professionals and health insurance providers are also connected to the industry.⁴¹⁷ Many, if not most, jobs in the healthcare sector involve skilled forms of labor, and are not generally at risk for human trafficking. Lower-skilled healthcare occupations such as certain forms of nursing, home nursing, and personal care provision may be at risk, however, and are the focus in this report. In addition, human trafficking has been documented in conjunction with the production of certain kinds of medical equipment (see the [Healthcare Equipment Manufacturing](#) pullout box for more information). Equipment involved in healthcare provision is also at risk for trafficking at the level of primary inputs such as metals (see the [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#) sector report for more information), electronics (see the [Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing](#) sector report for more information), and certain chemical supply chains.

Economy:

The healthcare industry as a whole is one of the world's fastest growing industries, representing over ten percent of most developed nations' gross domestic product.⁴¹⁸ In 2013, the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) reported that the global average spent on healthcare as a percentage of GDP was 10.5 percent and was likely to continue at that level in 2014. The EIU estimated that, in 2014, the regional percentages will be as follows: 17.4 percent in North America, 10.7 percent in Western Europe, 8.0 percent in Latin America, 6.6 percent in Asia and Australasia, and 6.4 percent in the Middle East and Africa. In 2013, global health spending was expected to increase by 2.6 percent and then continue to increase by an average of 5.3 percent per year for the next four years.

Due to a combination of increasing life expectancies worldwide and the aging "Baby Boomer" generation in the US, demand for healthcare is rising steadily. In the United States, healthcare spending increased by 3.7 per cent in 2012, bringing total spending to \$2.8 trillion or \$8,915 per person.⁴¹⁹ The overall population of the United States is projected to increase by at least 18 percent between 2000 and 2020, and the population age sixty-five and older is expected to increase at three times that rate, a trend that will lead to a rapid increase in demand for registered nurses (RNs) and other healthcare practitioners. The United States Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) estimated that in 2000 there was a shortage of 111,000 full time equivalent (FTE) RNs in the United States. HHS predicted a shortage of 275,000 in 2010, and estimated that the shortfall will reach 800,000 by 2020.⁴²⁰

Overseas, emerging healthcare market countries include China, India, Indonesia, Russia and Mexico. The fastest growing region in terms of healthcare spending is expected to be the Middle East and Africa. Key factors of growth include population growth and government healthcare access programs.⁴²¹

According to the Health Policy Coordinator at the ILO Social Protection Department, Xenia Scheil-Adlung, there is currently a shortage of around 10.3 million health workers worldwide.⁴²²

Workforce:

According to the World Health Organization, there were around 60 million health workers worldwide in 2010. About two-thirds of these, or 40 million workers, provided health services, while the other one third, 20 million workers, were employed in management or support positions.⁴²³

The Center for Health Workforce Studies' Healthcare Employment Projections (2012) reported that between 2000 and 2010, healthcare employment in the United States increased by more than 25 percent. In 2010, approximately 14 million people were employed in the healthcare sector in the United States. The Center anticipated that between 2010 and 2020, 4.2 million jobs would be created in the healthcare sector, 63 per cent in ambulatory care.⁴²⁴

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that 18,302,700 people were employed in healthcare and social assistance in December 2014.⁴²⁵ The Bureau broke the sector down into ambulatory healthcare services (6.8 million),⁴²⁶ hospitals (4.8 million),⁴²⁷ nursing and residential care facilities (3.3 million),⁴²⁸ and social assistance (3.4 million).⁴²⁹

Utilizing a different survey, the report focuses mostly on the lower-skilled positions, such as home health aides, personal care aides, nursing assistants, and orderlies, who experience greater risk of human trafficking than skilled healthcare workers. In 2012, there were 875,100 home health aides employed in the United States, 1.2 million personal care aides, 1.5 million nursing assistants (more than half of whom work in nursing and residential care facilities), and 54,600 orderlies. The demand for home health aides is increasing rapidly, in part because of the potential for cost-savings in healthcare delivery represented by a shift to lower-paid home health workers.⁴³⁰ The United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics projects that home health aide employment will grow 48 percent from 2012 to 2022.⁴³¹ By 2018, it is estimated that the direct care workforce will total more than 4 million employees.⁴³²

International migration for healthcare jobs is becoming more and more common as the demand for health workers in "high-income" countries continues to increase. The migration trend tends to be south to north migration of both unskilled and skilled health workers from Africa and Asia to Europe and North America. The "brain drain" associated with the migration of skilled health workers out of the Global South greatly affects the health systems of the source countries. For example, India, Nigeria, and Pakistan have "critical health workforce shortages" but these countries are in the top 25 countries that send doctors and nurses overseas.⁴³³ Countries experience financial loss and sometimes even partial or complete collapse of their health systems. This migration trend is so common in countries like Fiji, Jamaica, Mauritius and the Philippines that students often enter school with the intention of working abroad. The Philippines are now training students especially for international careers because the demand is so high.⁴³⁴

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

The World Health Organization (WHO) lists the following safety hazards that workers in the healthcare sector face: biological hazards (such as TB, Hepatitis, HIV/AIDS, SARS), chemical hazards (such as glutaraldehyde and ethylene oxide), physical hazards (such as noise, radiation, slips, trips, and falls), ergonomic hazards (such as heavy lifting), psychosocial hazards (such as shift work, violence, and stress), fire and explosion hazards (such as oxygen and alcohol sanitizing gels), and electrical hazards (such as

frayed electrical cords).⁴³⁵ Physical injury rates are reportedly thirty times higher in the healthcare field than in other sectors.⁴³⁶ Further, time constraints placed on health-care providers can increase the risk of physical harm.⁴³⁷

Workers in lower positions such as home healthcare aides face additional undesirable and hazardous tasks such as bathing and cleaning patients, working with potentially volatile and sometimes violent patients, and responsibility for cleaning facilities or patient's homes. Home health aides and personal care aides often work in clients' private residences.⁴³⁸ The associated invisibility and isolation adds an additional layer of vulnerability to exploitation and abuse; experts report that hospice and home healthcare workers frequently face serious safety risks, and that the problem is severely underreported.

In addition to physical risk, healthcare workers may be subject to psychological abuse and harassment.⁴³⁹ According to research conducted by the New Orleans Family Justice Center, 60 percent of community nurses have experienced verbal or other forms of abuse on the job in the past two years, mainly from family and friends of the patients. In general, the survey participants were largely unaware of policies and procedures concerning abuse at work, and 20 percent said they weren't sure if their employers would do anything if they reported the abuse. Eighty percent of participants said that they did not report incidents to their employers.⁴⁴⁰ Such exploitive conditions can create a culture of intimidation for workers, particularly when they are also marginalized due to gender, ethnicity, or migration status. Intimidated workers may fear expressing any grievances regarding their working conditions.

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

In the United States, the rapid growth in healthcare employment has been concentrated in growth of low-skilled healthcare positions such as home healthcare aides, nursing aides, medical assistants, and orderlies. Over 60 percent of healthcare workers now have less education than a four year degree. The demand for these lower-skilled workers has been driven by the need to rapidly staff up for care of the aging population in the US.⁴⁴¹

Many of these jobs have low barriers to entry. While some positions, such as pre-baccalaureate registered nurses (RNs) require associate degrees or other post-secondary education, other positions such as home health aides may not even require a high school diploma.⁴⁴²

These low-skilled jobs with low educational barriers to entry also tend to be relatively low-paying. Most of the new jobs in the sector pay less than \$30,000 a year. Home health care workers in the United States usually make \$8.03 to \$14.17 an hour and have historically been exempt from minimum wage and overtime laws. The Department of Labor recently issued a final rule extending minimum wage and overtime protections to home care workers, but litigation regarding the rule is pending. There are reports that almost 40 percent of health aides are on government assistance programs, like food stamps and Medicaid.⁴⁴³ In 2014, a group of health aides in California filed a class-action lawsuit alleging that their employer underpaid wages. Workers reported that they were paid flat fees for 12 or 24 hour shifts, leaving their per hour rate far below the minimum wage.⁴⁴⁴

The worker population engaged in low-skilled healthcare work tends to have vulnerabilities tied to gender, ethnic background and migration status. Racial and ethnic minorities are disproportionately represented in these positions; In the United States, almost thirty percent of all in-home healthcare workers are immigrants.⁴⁴⁵ Migrant workers are particularly prevalent among nurses, personal care aides, psychiatric aides and home health aides.⁴⁴⁶ One in five immigrant direct care workers is undocumented, further increasing their vulnerability to exploitation and abuse.⁴⁴⁷ Fifty-six percent of in-home healthcare workers are from a minority racial or ethnic group.⁴⁴⁸ According to the Obama administration, close to 30 percent of home healthcare workers are black and 12 percent are Latino.⁴⁴⁹ Low-skilled health workers are predominantly female. Approximately 92 percent of home healthcare workers are women.⁴⁵⁰ Women

in these positions have been found to make considerably less than women in other jobs: \$308 weekly median compared to \$560 in other professions.⁴⁵¹ In general, migrant workers, black and Hispanic workers, and women are clustered in the lowest paid healthcare professions with the lowest educational barriers to entry. These positions are often the most hazardous healthcare positions, and are associated with other poor conditions of work.

Migrant Workforce:

The United States relies on a large number of foreign healthcare workers. According to the Pew Research Center, there were 11.6 million native born employees and 2.1 million foreign born employees in the healthcare sector in the United States in 2012. Of these 2.1 million foreign born employees, a large majority come from South and East Asia (782,204). The next largest groups of foreign born employees migrated from the Caribbean (369,711), Mexico (169,669), and South America (142,162).⁴⁵² Between 2001 and 2008, an estimated one-third of the 476,000 full-time RNs in the United States were foreign born. Migrant health-care workers tend to receive lower wages: one study found that hiring a foreign-educated nurse instead of a native, per-diem nurse could save a company up to \$50,000 in two years.⁴⁵³ In Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates, and other countries in the Middle East, migrants make up more than 50 per cent of healthcare employees.⁴⁵⁴

Migrants are likely paid less than equivalent domestic healthcare workers. An article on migrant nurses in Dubai noted that Filipino nurses are paid less than half of the rate of nurses from Dubai.⁴⁵⁵ In some cases, migrant healthcare workers in conflict areas may be vulnerable to violence. In one well-publicized case, 40 female nurses from India were trapped in an area of Iraq attacked by armed members of the ‘Islamic State.’⁴⁵⁶ Similarly, over 400 Indian nurses were trapped by militia violence in Libya.⁴⁵⁷

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chain:

Migrant health-care workers in the United States and other developed countries, including nurses in particular, are recruited via firms specializing in health-care recruitment.⁴⁵⁸ A 2003 survey by the National Council of State Boards of Nursing (NCSBN) found that 35 percent of foreign-educated RNs and 17 percent of foreign-education Licensed Nurse Practitioners (LNPs) and vocational nurses used a recruiting agency to get their jobs.⁴⁵⁹ In addition to direct recruitment of foreign nurses by healthcare organizations, one study found two primary models of foreign nurse recruitment: in the first model, foreign nurses are recruited by placement agencies and then directly employed by the healthcare organization; in the second model, the recruitment agency also acts as the employer and “leases” the nurse to the healthcare organization.⁴⁶⁰

Recruitment conditions can increase foreign healthcare workers’ vulnerability to human trafficking. A small percentage of recruitment agencies charge applicants fees for placement, potentially increasing their vulnerability to debt bondage, in the event that the fees charged are high in comparison to earnings.⁴⁶¹ More significantly, foreign nurses recruited by staffing agencies are generally contractually tied to their employer for a period between 18 and 36 months. In some cases, these contracts state that, if they wish to pre-terminate their contracts, foreign nurses must repay all expenses borne by recruiter in addition to paying a penalty of as much as \$50,000, according to some reports.⁴⁶² Although salaries for nurses tend to be relatively high compared to wages for positions such as home healthcare aides, placement agencies can take up to 50 percent of a foreign nurse’s salary.⁴⁶³

These recruitment conditions can facilitate vulnerability to human trafficking, even for these relatively skilled workers. In one recent case, a man was accused of luring foreign nurses, mostly from the Philippines, to Colorado with promises of salaries from \$68,000 to \$72,000. Prosecutors said that once the nurses arrived, the defendant demanded \$1,200 a month from each recruited nurse and threatened to revoke their H-1B visas if they refused.⁴⁶⁴ One recruited nurse reported that the man promised her a university teaching job that didn’t exist and required up-front fees of up to \$10,000. He was also always

threatening to deport the nurses if they broke their contracts. The accused man was convicted of human trafficking and sentenced to 11 years in prison.⁴⁶⁵

In another recent case, *Panwar v. Access Therapies, Inc.*, a number of people from India and the Philippines were recruited to work for healthcare companies through the H-1B visa program (see the [Guestworker Visas](#) pullout box for more information on visa programs). The defendants in this case allegedly used coercion, threats of visa revocation, and threats of financial penalties and debt, specifically the \$20,000 promissory note that the employees were forced to sign, to trap the workers in their employment.⁴⁶⁶

Healthcare Equipment Manufacturing

This pullout box focuses on the labor used to create the equipment used in the healthcare sector. For more information on the human trafficking risks associated with the inputs to equipment manufacturing, see the [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#) and the [Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing](#) sector reports and the related commodity reports.

Medical equipment or devices refers to products that are “designed to diagnose and treat patients.” Medical equipment ranges from tongue depressors and bandages to pacemakers and complex imaging systems. Medical equipment may be divided into the following principal product categories: surgical appliances and supplies, surgical and medical instruments, electro-medical equipment, in-vitro diagnostic substances, irradiation apparatuses, and dental and ophthalmic goods.⁴⁶⁷

The United States was the world’s largest producer of medical equipment in 2008 with a market valued at over \$100 billion, which was 42 percent of the world’s total medical equipment market at that time. United States exports totaled \$31.4 billion in 2008. The United States is also the world’s largest consumer of medical equipment with imports valued at \$33.6 billion in 2008. Most of these imports are “lower tech products,” like scalpels and surgical gloves.⁴⁶⁸

The United States medical equipment manufacturing industry presents a low risk of human trafficking due to the small average company size, the high skill level required for the job, and the relatively high compensation level. In 2007, there were approximately 5,300 companies manufacturing medical equipment in the United States, and 73 percent had fewer than 20 employees, with average wages of \$60,000.⁴⁶⁹ Most pieces of medical equipment manufactured in the United States are relatively complex, high value-added products, and the labor involved is not of concern for trafficking risk, except at the level of primary commodity and electronics inputs.

According to the UN Comtrade database, however, in 2013 the United States imported \$2.4 billion worth of “Instruments etc for medical, surgical, dental, etc. use” from Japan, almost \$2.3 billion from Germany and \$2.1 billion from China. Japan and Germany do not in themselves raise significant red flags for human trafficking risk, but these countries both source medical instruments from Pakistan, a country cited by the United States Department of Labor’s *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* (2013) for producing surgical instruments with child labor.

Children as young as eight have been found making surgical instruments, such as scalpels, clamps, and scissors, in Pakistan. These children work in dangerous conditions without protective equipment and injury is common. Wages are low; some workers are only making INR 170 (\$3.4 in 2008) a day. The city of Sialkot is the center of Pakistan’s surgical instrument manufacturing industry. The ILO has estimated that 5,800 children work in the industry in Sialkot.⁴⁷⁰ Some children are reportedly involved in the industry to pay off family debts that were owed to the employer. The manufacturers that provide these products to large international health companies often sub-contract production to small, informal production workshops where compliance standards are more difficult to enforce. These conditions are

often hidden from the large companies that purchase the products as the supply chain is long and lacks transparency. Britain's National Health Services was a major buyer of surgical instruments from Sialkot, Pakistan and has since developed draft guidelines on ethical purchasing to try and prevent future purchases tainted with labor abuses.⁴⁷¹

Pakistan's top five exporting partners for "instruments etc for medical, surgical, dental, etc use" are: China (\$43 million), Singapore (\$25 million), Germany (\$23 million), United States (\$12.9 million), and Japan (\$10.4 million).⁴⁷² The import of medical instruments by the United States suggests a risk of child labor for federal supply chains.

Medical equipment made in China may also pose a risk for human trafficking in United States supply chains. China has recently come under scrutiny for its use of compulsory labor in its prisons. A 2005 BBC News Article states that Chinese prisoners "produce everything from green tea to coal, paperclips to footballs, medical gloves to high-grade optical equipment" (see the [Prison Labor in Federal Supply Chains](#) pullout box for more information).⁴⁷³

Federal Procurement in the Healthcare Sector:⁹

The vast majority of federal healthcare purchases are made by the Department of Veterans' Affairs and the agencies of the Department of Defense.

Among categories of healthcare expenditures at particular risk for human trafficking are spending on home nursing care, and expenditures on low-tech medical and dental equipment. In FY2013, the United States spent approximately \$369 million on home care nursing contracts (PSC Q402), nearly all of which was contracted by the Department of Veterans' Affairs. The United States spent about \$3.964 billion (in more than 140,000 separate new contracts) on medical, surgical, and dental instruments, equipment, and supplies (PSC 6515 and 6520) in FY2013. One 2013 contract from the VA sourced \$45,000 in surgical instruments directly from Pakistan, despite these being on the United States Department of Labor's list of goods known to be produced with child labor.

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Hospitality

This report covers services that are provided in the hotel, foodservice, and tourism industries. The products that are involved in the administering of these services are not addressed in this report. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with the production of these products, see the sector reports: [Agriculture](#), [Construction](#), [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#), [Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing](#), [Fishing and Aquaculture](#), [Textile and Apparel Manufacturing](#), and [Transportation and Warehousing](#). Services closely related to hospitality, such as janitorial and laundry services, are discussed in the [Housekeeping/Facilities Operation](#) sector report.

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Hospitality Sector:

The hospitality sector is defined differently by different authorities. The ILO refers to the Hotels, Catering and Tourism Sector; the World Travel & Tourism Council refers to the Travel & Tourism sector; and the United States Department of Labor refers to the Leisure and Hospitality sector. In this report, Verité uses the term “Hospitality Sector” to refer to those industries that provide food, accommodation, tourism, and leisure services, and in particular focuses on the hotel, foodservice, and tourism industries. As a service-based industry, delivery of hospitality is by nature localized. The relevant supply chain considerations relate primarily to the supply of labor to the sector, while other related inputs, such as food, buildings, and transport are addressed in the analysis of Agriculture, Construction, Transportation, and other relevant sectors. Janitorial and laundry services more broadly are also discussed in the Housekeeping/Facilities Operation sector report.

The hotel industry comprises commercial establishments that provide temporary lodging. Hotels range widely in size and quality, but most are of moderate scale (under a hundred beds), with nearly half the industry’s workforce employed in relatively small hotel enterprises.⁴⁷⁴ In developed countries, many hotels operate as part of chain or franchise consortiums, sharing brands, marketing, architectural design, and management strategies with a network of related enterprises, which is sometimes extensive. Other hotels (both smaller and larger) operate independently, although the industry is dominated by the large chains, particularly in North America.⁴⁷⁵

The foodservice industry is very broad, encompassing both restaurants and contract catering providers. Independent sit-down restaurants are most often owned by private individuals, but fast food and chain restaurants are generally owned by large, often transnational, companies. The contract catering industry is dominated by three major corporations (Compass Group PLC, Sodexo Group, and Aramark) who together employ 1 million workers in up to 90 different countries. A small number of transnational catering companies also control transportation-related catering, such as catering on airlines and railways. Contract catering firms provide foodservice to hotels, schools, hospitals, military bases, prisons, industrial worksites, and other institutional settings, and account for as much as half the food consumed outside the home in some countries.⁴⁷⁶ The contract catering industry is growing steadily, reflecting increased global demand for outsourcing of services generally, as well as changing social and workplace cultures.⁴⁷⁷ The tourism industry provides services to both travelers and residents engaging in temporary leisured activities, often away from home. Tourism providers include travel agencies, tour operators, tour guides,

cruise ship companies, theme parks, medical/wellness retreats, and providers of recreational and leisure activities. The industry also employs marketing and facilities management personnel. For the purposes of this report, personal care service providers, such as workers in nail salons and beauty parlors, are included as part of the tourism service industry.

Employment in the hospitality sector has become increasingly “fissured.” That is, according to David Weil in his 2011 book, “the lead firms that collectively determine the product market conditions in which wages and conditions are set have become separated from the actual employment of the workers who provide goods or services.”⁴⁷⁸ This fissuring plays out in a variety of ways. Franchised businesses are increasingly common across the hospitality sector, most notably in hotels and restaurants. In the franchise model, the franchisor (often a large, multi-national company), sells rights to use its brand to a franchisee (an individual business owner, or, increasingly, an incorporated business or trust). The franchisee agrees to follow the franchisor’s business model, including standards that may impact conditions of work for employees -- and to pay royalties or fees.⁴⁷⁹ Employees of a franchised business have no direct employment relationship with the franchisor brand.

Workers are also “fissured” from hospitality brands by the use third-party staffing agencies that recruit, hire and manage workers. Third-party agencies commonly provide staff to hotels, including housekeeping, janitorial services, security, valet, grounds and landscaping, food and beverage, and laundry.⁴⁸⁰ Outsourced staffers are increasingly replacing directly-employed employees in many hotels. Workers hired through agencies may also be considered temporary employees even though they have worked at the venue for many years.⁴⁸¹ Workers on cruise ships are also commonly recruited and/or managed via third-party agencies.⁴⁸² In some cases, hospitality workers may work at multiple layers of remove from the multi-national hospitality companies they ostensibly work for – for example, a worker at a franchised hotel who is managed by a third-party logistics provider.⁴⁸³

These “fissured” arrangements have several implications for workers’ vulnerability to human trafficking. First, workers lack direct employment relationships with the entities that exert control over their immediate working conditions. This lack of a direct employment relationship undermines opportunities for workers to express grievances, and also limits the ability and incentive for businesses to comply with relevant labor standards. Further, the outsourcing trend itself increases the economic pressure on the actual employers of workers – whether they be franchise owners or third-party suppliers – to limit labor costs in order to maintain their competitiveness, further raising the risk that workers will be exploited or even trafficked.⁴⁸⁴

Economy:

The hospitality sector is one of the fastest growing components of the contemporary global economy, with growth across all sub-sector industries, but led by particularly robust growth in the global tourism industry. The World Travel & Tourism Council’s (WTTC) *Economic Impact Analysis* reports that Travel & Tourism’s contribution to the world economy at 9.5 percent of global GDP in 2013, or \$7 trillion (2013 prices). The travel and tourism sector generated approximately 4.7 million new jobs worldwide last year, supporting “nearly 266 million people in employment – that’s 1 in 11 jobs on the planet.”⁴⁸⁵ The sector attracted \$754 billion in investment in 2013 (4.4 percent of total investment) and generated \$2.3 trillion in exports (5.4 percent of world exports). The WTTC expects 2014 numbers to be even more impressive with an expected GDP contribution growth of 4.3 percent.⁴⁸⁶ The United Nations’ World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) estimates 2014 international tourism earnings alone at \$1.4 trillion, making tourism the world’s fifth largest export sector (after fuels, chemicals, food and automotive products), and notes that international tourism ranks first in export earnings many developing countries.⁴⁸⁷

Geographically, Southeast Asia was the region with the fastest growth in the sector in terms of GDP and employment contributions in 2013. Within this region, Thailand, Indonesia, Singapore, and Burma were

the strongest performing countries. Overall, the countries with the fastest growth in terms of GDP contribution were The Gambia, Georgia, Qatar, Hong Kong, and Thailand. Syria, Mali, and Egypt were the countries with the greatest decline in contribution, reflecting ongoing conflict in these countries. Italy, France, and Germany also experienced declines in contribution in 2013 due to lingering effects of the economic recession.⁴⁸⁸

Workforce:

Work in the hospitality sector ranges from specialized and skilled jobs such as tour guiding and senior chef positions, to low-skilled and relatively unpleasant jobs such as dishwashing. Hotel industry jobs include front desk, valet, concierge, wait staff, bartender, housekeeping staff, room service staff, spa and recreation staff, security staff, maintenance & engineering staff, information technology staff, and hotel management staff. Catering industry positions include cooks/chefs, dishwashers, wait staff, bartenders, cashiers, hostesses, drivers, and managers. The tourism industry includes a wide range of jobs, from desk clerks or drivers at tour companies, dish washers on cruise ships, and maintenance crews at theme parks, to massage therapists at spas and manicurists at nail salons.

While some skilled and specialized jobs, such as gourmet chefs or hotel management, do exist in the hospitality sector, most positions are relatively low-skilled and poorly paid. In the US, 14.9 million people were employed in December 2014 in what is referred to by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics as the Leisure and Hospitality sector. Of these, 13.1 million worked in production and nonsupervisory roles.⁴⁸⁹ According to a 2012 United States Department of Labor report, 3.6 million workers in the United States Leisure and Hospitality sector earn an hourly wage at or below the federal minimum wage of \$7.25 an hour, although workers in restaurants and catering do sometimes receive tips as well.⁴⁹⁰ Median weekly earnings for full time workers in the sector were \$492 in 2013; weekly earnings by union members were somewhat higher, at \$605. Union participation in this sector is very low, however, at only 2.7 percent in 2013.⁴⁹¹ Allegations of union-busting by major hotel chains have been made, and the trend toward outsourcing is accelerating.⁴⁹²

There is high staff turnover in the hotel, restaurant, and tourism industries, attributed to the lack of job stability (the sector is very vulnerable to market fluctuations, and workers may be laid off on short notice), the irregular hours, the lack of opportunities for upward mobility, and the generally low pay.⁴⁹³ According to the ILO, the tourism industry employs a large number of part-time, temporary, and seasonal workers, many of whom are subcontracted or outsourced.⁴⁹⁴ Due to the low skill and language requirements associated with much hospitality work, many migrants, young people, and women initially find work in the hospitality sector, often hoping later to leverage such experience to gain eventual entrance into a more secure or desirable form of employment.⁴⁹⁵ Hotel and restaurant employees often make up a substantial percentage of overall migrant populations in destination countries. For example, OECD data from 2009 showed that hotel and restaurant workers made up nearly 15 percent of the entire migrant workforce in Spain, and nearly nine percent in the United Kingdom.⁴⁹⁶

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State's 2014 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted evidence of human trafficking in the hospitality sector in the following countries: Australia, Argentina, Belgium, Belize, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Canada, Chile, Cote d'Ivoire, Cyprus, Denmark, Gabon, Georgia; Germany, Fiji, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Iceland, Luxembourg, Macedonia, New Zealand, Niger, Palau, Panama, Portugal, Romania, Singapore, South Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Uganda, United States, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe.⁴⁹⁷

While many examples of human trafficking occur overseas, the problem is also reported in the United States. One example, *Juana Sierra Trejo v. Broadway Plaza Hotel*, involved a situation in which five employees were hired to clean rooms at a hotel for eight hours a day, six days a week, with a salary of

approximately \$250 a week. However, when the employees began work, they were routinely made to work seven days per week and often for 15 hours per day without meal or bathroom breaks. After work hours, the employees were also made to clean the personal homes of their employers and to run errands for them as well. The employees were never paid overtime, were denied time off, and were sexually harassed, verbally abused, and threatened with deportation. The two parties eventually settled the case.⁴⁹⁸

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

Work in the hospitality sector can be very demanding and even hazardous. Jobs often require employees to endure long periods of standing and/or walking, and may also include carrying heavy loads. The work can also be extremely dirty. Specific jobs, like dishwashing, hotel cleaning, and cruise ship maintenance, have frequent exposure to water and harsh cleaning products and other chemicals. Kitchen employees working in restaurants, catering, cruise kitchens, or hotels are exposed to a variety of dangerous equipment that can result in cuts and burns. Hotel housekeepers report injuries from tasks such as lifting heavy mattresses, particularly under tight time constraints. Many workers in the hospitality sector have strict quotas to complete on each shift.⁴⁹⁹ Hotel housekeepers, for example, are often required to clean up to 20 rooms per day.⁵⁰⁰ The average hotel laundry worker handles over two tons of laundry per day⁵⁰¹ which can lead to severe skeletomuscular pain and disorders. A 2006 study by the union Unite Here! found that hotel housekeepers were "more than 48 percent more likely to be injured on the job than the typical service worker" and more than 51 percent more likely to experience disabling injuries.⁵⁰² The same study reported that hotel housekeepers experience an injury rate 86 percent higher than non-housekeeper hotel staff.

Violence and harassment from management as well as customers has been reported in association with this sector as well.⁵⁰³ The United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that there were 245 work-related fatalities in the Leisure and Hospitality sector in 2012, 238 fatalities in 2011, 254 in 2010, and 238 in 2009, although it does not detail how the fatalities occurred.⁵⁰⁴

Sexual harassment and abuse are particular dangers for women working in hospitality and service sectors. Many positions in the sector place a premium on satisfaction of all customer expectations. Many female workers are therefore expected to appear socially friendly and attractive to customers, which can lead to instances of abuse, harassment or assault from both customers and employers.⁵⁰⁵

Sexual harassment, sexual violence, and forced commercial sexual exploitation are particular dangers for women and children in conjunction with the development of tourism industry establishments and certain leisure facilities.

Even in the absence of violence or other physical hardship, working conditions and remuneration in the hospitality sector can be very poor. In 2011, the organization Restaurant Opportunities Centers (ROC) United released a report entitled *Behind the Kitchen Door: A Multi-site Study of the Restaurant Industry*.⁵⁰⁶ The study surveyed employers and employees of the restaurant industry in eight regions in the United States. The study found that the average yearly income for restaurant workers was far below that of the rest of the private sector: restaurant workers made \$15,092 in 2009, compared to the average private sector worker, who made \$45,155. The study also found that 87.7 percent of restaurant workers do not have paid sick days and 46.3 percent of workers experienced overtime violations. There is also widespread racial discrimination reported in the industry, with white workers making a median wage of \$13.25 and workers of color making \$9.54.⁵⁰⁷ Kitchen staff, dishwashers and cooks also frequently work over 70 hours a week for very little pay.⁵⁰⁸

Internationally, many working conditions in the sector are also often poor. The organization Tourism Concern, with support from the International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers' Associations (IUF), issued a report in 2013 on working conditions in hotels

in Barbados, Kenya, and Tenerife, Canary Islands. Through a combination of desk research, respondent questionnaires and stakeholder interviews, it was found that hotel staff in all types of hotels experienced low wages and “unfavorable working conditions,” including irregular work hours, stress, and exposure to risk. Hotel staff in “all-inclusive” hotels (hotels that include food, entertainment, and tourist activities in the price) endured working conditions that were even more undesirable. Poor conditions faced by workers in the study included short term contracts, few benefits, low job security, low overall wages (due in part to the lower occurrence of tipping), and unpaid overtime.⁵⁰⁹

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Reflecting the low-paid, low-status, and difficult nature of the work most often associated with the hospitality sector, many of the employees who work in restaurant, hotel, and tourism jobs do so because they are relatively impoverished and have few options for better employment due to lack of skills or other resources.

Lower-level positions within the hospitality sector often require little training, language fluency, or formal education, making them accessible to workers such as poor women, children, less-educated migrants, and undocumented migrants, all of whom are more vulnerable to being trafficked than their more prosperous or empowered counterparts in higher-level positions within the sector. The 2013 Trafficking in Persons Report notes that women employed in the hospitality sector tend to be concentrated in “low paid, low status and non-managerial positions,”⁵¹⁰ as do migrants from poorer, less-developed countries.⁵¹¹ Among migrant workers in the hospitality sector in Australia and New Zealand, for example, Asian employees tend to fill the well-paid managerial positions, while migrants from the Pacific Islands routinely fill the low level positions.⁵¹² In many Asian hotels, executive and technical positions are filled by migrants from Europe, North America, Australasia, and Japan, while non-executive, low-skilled jobs are usually filled through in-country, in-region migration.⁵¹³ Migrant women make up the majority of hotel housekeepers in the United States for example, one of the lowest paid, lowest skilled positions.⁵¹⁴ The employees hired for executive and technical positions are less vulnerable due to their higher skill level, making them less easily replaced, and therefore more able to advocate for themselves. Migrants from wealthier nations generally also have relatively more resources, and hence more options in the face of unfavorable working situations.

Women in the hospitality industry may face an added risk of trafficking in conjunction with commercial sexual exploitation, often in the context of hostess clubs, strip clubs, or other similar establishments. Victims of labor trafficking in these clubs are typically forced to dance and/or serve food and drink, and may at times also be forced into prostitution. Russian stripping networks often traffic women from Eastern Europe and Russia to the United States where they are then controlled by club owners who can move them around to multiple clubs. Asian hostess clubs or “room salons” and Latino “cantinas” may also have ties to trafficking. These clubs are often tied to organized crime, which adds another layer of fear and coercion.⁵¹⁵

Children and undocumented migrants are often particularly vulnerable to exploitation, as in recent cases of children being forced to work in restaurants in both Uganda and Vietnam,⁵¹⁶ and a recent legal case in the United States in which a group of 11 men were indicted for forcing undocumented Mexican immigrants to work in seven Mexican restaurants in New York, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia, by holding over them threat of deportation.⁵¹⁷ Another category of vulnerable workers in the hospitality industry are those employed on cruise ships, where, as is also true in the fishing and deep sea transport sectors, workers have no possibility of escape from an abusive situation while the ships are at sea. In April 2014, 11 crew members, working in “slave-like conditions” on board the Italian owned MSC Magnifica cruise ship, were rescued by Brazilian police. The employees were forced to work up to 16 hours a day and some were allegedly victims of sexual harassment. Employees on cruise ships are especially vulnerable to labor abuses because the laws governing cruise ships are vague due to the fact

that they operate in international waters and vessels are often registered under “flags of convenience” in countries where the costs and regulatory requirements are low.⁵¹⁸ In addition to fees paid to staffing agencies to secure their jobs, workers may also be required to lodge “runaway” deposits or bonds as a means to prevent workers from attempting to escape the ship in port.⁵¹⁹

Migrant Workforce:

The preponderance of migrant labor within the hospitality sector is a significant risk factor for trafficking, for many of the reasons already noted above. Much of the vulnerability faced by migrant workers in the sector derives at least in part from the structural circumstances that all migrants face, being far from home in unfamiliar cultural and often linguistic contexts, and cut off from support networks and other social resources, all of which contribute to their likelihood of being exploited by unscrupulous middlemen or employers. Migrant hospitality workers often end up dependent on such labor intermediaries not only for their job placements, but also for their visas, work permits, housing, and other essentials, leaving them vulnerable to manipulation and exploitation, including human trafficking.

In a recent example from the US, *United States v. Sophia Manuel*, 39 Filipino migrants were forced to work in country clubs and hotels in Florida. The workers were forced into debt with false promises, had their passports confiscated upon arrival, were threatened with deportation, and were forced to live in substandard housing with little food. The workers were not allowed to leave the premises without an escort and they were paid very little or nothing for their work. The two defendants were eventually sentenced to 51 and 78 months in prison.⁵²⁰

Most migrant workers in the United States hospitality industry are of Latin American origin, where push factors in the sending country such as poverty, political instability, and trafficking by organized criminal networks have driven migrants to seek low-skilled hotel and restaurant jobs in the US.⁵²¹ Once in the US, the structure of US immigration and visa policy often further contributes to their vulnerability to trafficking, by making it virtually impossible for them to change jobs legally if they find themselves in untenable or illegal working situations (see the [Guestworker Visas](#) pullout box for more information).

The hospitality sector in the United States is also heavily dependent on young, university-age foreign guest workers participating in the “Summer Work Travel Program,” which is one of several types of J-1 visas for temporary workers and other visitors. The program is sponsored by the United States Department of State to promote cultural exchange, but has also served as a source of low-cost labor for hotels, camps, restaurants, shops and other businesses that rely heavily on short term summer labor. Abuses of these workers have also been documented, including young foreign workers who face high, illegal fees to secure their J-1 visas, and encounter work conditions and pay starkly different from what was promised, substandard living conditions, harassment, and other issues that can potentially facilitate human trafficking.⁵²²

Significant numbers of migrants from Asia also seek work in the hospitality sector abroad. One particularly large out-flow of Asian workers is to the United Arab Emirates (UAE), which has a booming hotel and tourism industry.⁵²³ The UAE is notoriously reliant on migrant labor in order to sustain its rapid rate of economic growth and high standard of living: 7.8 million people out of a total population of 9.2 million in UAE are migrants. The temporary guest worker program in UAE, called the Kafala Sponsorship System, ties migrants’ immigration status to their employment by a particular employer, an arrangement that renders workers highly dependent on their employers, and increases opportunities for migrant labor abuses. The UAE has recently sought to reform the Kafala system in response to concerns voiced about such abuses, but “human-rights and migrant organizations maintain that abusive labor practices have persisted at alarming rates, largely due to poor enforcement.”⁵²⁴

Migrants may also be exploited in the hospitality industry as a result of their ethnic difference or minority status. A recent report by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation looked at human trafficking in the British food industry, including agriculture, food processing, and catering. In the report, migrant workers interviewed reported upfront fees and debt bondage, threats and bullying, disciplining through dismissal and threats of denunciation, productivity targets and workplace surveillance, overwork, no breaks or holiday, non- and underpayment of wages, underwork and indebtedness, deductions and charges, and passport retention. The report highlighted particularly long hours for Chinese workers in what it termed “minority ethnic catering.”⁵²⁵

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chains:

Because the hospitality sector has historically attracted a large percentage of migrant workers, international labor brokers, recruitment agents, and other middlemen often play a role in the supply of labor to the sector. As noted in the discussion of risk factors for human trafficking in [Section II](#) above, the presence of such middlemen in labor supply chains represents an inherent risk factor for trafficking, due to the likelihood of workers becoming indebted or otherwise dependent on them in the course of their recruitment and job placement.

Domestic hospitality workers may be recruited, hired, and managed by third-party staffing agencies. These third-party agencies allow companies to avoid direct employment relationships with workers and to maintain a highly flexible workforce. Third-party agencies commonly provide staff to hotels and other hospitality venues such as event venues for functions including housekeeping, janitorial services, security, valet, grounds and landscaping, food and beverage, and laundry.⁵²⁶ Although workers are managed, supervised and paid by the third-party agencies, in some cases, the hotel sets standards and conditions of work, often including quotas.⁵²⁷

Restaurant workers may also be recruited by employment agencies. In Canada, workers from Belize were recruited by an employment agency to work in a McDonalds franchise restaurant. The workers reported that they were promised high wages and no fees to secure their jobs, but pay was lower than expected and they were not reimbursed for fees they paid as promised. Further, upon arrival, they were required to live in expensive apartments, for which their employer had signed a lease, far from their worksite. One foreign worker was fired after speaking to the media.⁵²⁸

Such risk is exacerbated further in situations where the middlemen facilitating the placement of migrants in hospitality jobs overseas are affiliated with organized criminal networks. In one recent case, two employment agencies operating out of Houston were shut down for their involvement in an alleged human smuggling ring. The agencies recruited undocumented migrants, mostly from Mexico and Central America, to work in Chinese restaurants in Texas, Louisiana, Maine, and a number of other states. The workers were paid below minimum wage, worked up to 12 hours a day, six days a week, and were housed in cramped accommodations. The workers were also moved around to different states based on requests from clients of the recruitment agencies.⁵²⁹ In Australia, migrants from the Pacific Islands, India, China, South Korea, and the Philippines are often forced by their employment agents to work in hospitality, among other sectors. Traffickers in Australia are often associated with organized crime networks that have business connections overseas, enabling them to abuse the legal system to prevent victims who contact authorities from actually receiving help. Trafficked men and women in Australia face ID confiscation, confinement, debt bondage, and threats of physical harm. Students in Australia on student visas, particularly Asian students, are especially vulnerable to such trafficking.⁵³⁰

A 2013 account in the UK Sunday Times reported that Vietnamese migrants were being forced to work in “nail bars” in the UK, of which there are an estimated 30,000. Migrants were reportedly promised high wages and charged large smuggling fees to crime syndicates in order to get into the country. Once they arrived, they were forced to work for years to pay back their debt. Since 2008, raids were conducted in

100 nail bars in the countries. One hundred and fifty illegal immigrants were discovered, but experts say that the actual number of Vietnamese trafficked into work in nail bars is much higher.⁵³¹

Even when organized criminal rings are not involved, migrants in the hospitality sector are still vulnerable to human trafficking when brokers or other middlemen are involved. Migrant workers in restaurants and hotels in countries as varied as Denmark, Singapore, and Palau have all reported experiencing deceptive recruitment, debt bondage, withholding of wages, threats of deportation, confiscation of passports, and physical and sexual abuse.⁵³²

Federal Procurement in the Hospitality Sector:¹⁰

The United States Federal Government procures services within the hospitality sector in a variety of ways. Hotel and motel accommodation and travel-related services are purchased by many federal agencies, as military and civilian government personnel travel for meetings, conferences, relocation, or other work-related reasons. Hotel/motel services are also procured by the United States Government in the course of hosting conferences and providing temporary shelter to disaster victims. The various departments of the military, the Department of State, and FEMA are particularly big consumers of hotel/motel services.

In FY2013, the federal spend included net contracts worth \$246 million on lodging while traveling (PSC V231), and \$26 million on travel agent services (PSC V302). The United States spent \$39 million on leasing/renting conference facilities (PSC X1AB) in FY2013.

Expenditures on restaurants are not distinguished from contracts for institutional foodservice (for prisons, hospitals, military bases, federally-sponsored conferences and the like) within the PSC code system, and are therefore not possible to isolate as an element of the overall federal spend. Many, if not most, incidental government expenditures on restaurants may in fact be paid for with purchase cards, per diems, or other informal means, rather than contracted in advance, and therefore not tracked within the Federal Procurement Data System. Contract catering (PSC S203), however, is a significant element of the federal spend. Institutional foodservice contracts totaled \$1.07 billion in FY2013, though some contracts coded with PSC S203 appear to be food purchases (meat, produce, baked goods), so this number is probably somewhat high. Top foodservice providers often involve state-run vocational/disability rehabilitation and training programs.

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Housekeeping/Facilities Operation

This report covers the services involved in the basic operation and maintenance of facilities, including janitorial, laundry, guarding/security, and waste management services, as well as ground maintenance. Products utilized in the implementation of these services broadly include cleaning supplies, equipment, and vehicles. For more information on the human trafficking risks associated with the production of these products, see the sector reports: [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#), [Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing](#), and [Transportation and Warehousing](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Housekeeping and Facilities Operation Sector:

There are a number of different services included in the Housekeeping and Facilities Operation sector, including janitorial services, laundry services, grounds maintenance, guarding/security services, and waste management services. These services are not typically provided by the same people, but they share characteristics as an industry, in that the jobs are all relatively low-skilled and labor-intensive, and are associated with the basic operation and maintenance of facilities. Virtually all facilities require janitorial, landscaping, security, and waste management services, while laundry service is more intensively associated with residential facilities such as VA hospitals, military bases, and federal prisons. Staffing in the sector ranges from the informal employment of individual maids or gardeners to the formal sourcing of whole workforces from employment agencies that specialize in providing particular facilities-related services to clients. Commodity inputs to the sector are relatively minimal, consisting mainly of cleaning supplies, equipment, and vehicles, with associated links to the Extractives/Mining and Metal Production, Electronics Manufacturing, and Transportation and Warehousing sectors for the purposes of risk analysis for human trafficking. As a service-based industry, however, housekeeping delivery is by nature localized, and by far the most significant risk of human trafficking in the Housekeeping/Facilities Operation Sector derives from the supply of labor.

Economy:

Although housekeeping services are grouped together under an umbrella category within the PSC code system used to track federal contracts, the various component industries of this sector are not generally considered to comprise a unique sector of the global economy, more commonly being treated as subsets of a more general “service” sector. Aggregate global economic data are therefore somewhat difficult to assemble, but the industry-specific US market data give a sense of the relative scale and nature of the various housekeeping service industries:

There are currently approximately 800,000 janitorial businesses in the United States, with annual revenue of \$52 billion.⁵³³ The cleaning industry has low barriers to entry and is quite competitive, although it is somewhat consolidated at the top end, with the fifty largest companies accounting for about thirty percent of the revenue, according to one industry analysis.⁵³⁴ Smaller companies and self-employed cleaners tend to service residential properties, while larger companies generally provide cleaning services to businesses and institutions.

A 2014 market analysis of the industrial laundry and linen supply industry shows about 3,000 industrial laundry enterprises in the United States, with annual revenues of about \$11 billion.⁵³⁵ The industry is moderately capital-intensive, requiring industrial laundering and transport equipment, but the workforce is low-skilled.

The landscaping or grounds maintenance industry currently has nearly 400,000 businesses in the United States, generating revenues of \$73 billion.⁵³⁶ The landscaping industry has extremely low barriers to entry, and little regulatory oversight. It is an important employer of unskilled and immigrant labor.

The security industry encompasses a range of security-related services, including specialized and technical fields like information technology security, design and installation of security equipment, and private detective investigation work, in addition to guarding services. Of these, only guarding services are low-skilled and labor intensive, and therefore of concern for potential human trafficking risk. Excluding IT security and the security equipment industry, the United States security services industry currently consists of about 11,000 businesses, generating annual revenue of approximately \$27 billion.⁵³⁷

The United States garbage collection industry generated \$47 billion in revenue in 2014, with approximately 8,500 businesses.⁵³⁸

One area in this sector in which global data are available is that of household domestic laborers, who provide janitorial, laundry, and sometimes cooking services inside the homes of their employers. A 2013 ILO study of the global domestic worker industry found domestic work to be a major global employer, accounting for 1.7 percent of total employment worldwide, and rates as high as 11.9 percent of all paid jobs in Latin America and the Caribbean, and eight percent in the Middle East.⁵³⁹ A recent analysis by Human Rights Watch reports that there are an estimated 53 million domestic workers worldwide.⁵⁴⁰

Hotel housekeepers make up a very significant proportion of the labor force of the multi-trillion-dollar global hospitality industry as well.

Workforce:

The majority of jobs in this sector are low-skilled and low-paid. The duties of janitors and building cleaners include gathering and emptying trash, cleaning building floors, cleaning and stocking restrooms, cleaning spills, washing windows and walls, and making minor repairs in buildings.⁵⁴¹ Laundry and dry-cleaning workers inspect articles for stains, sort articles, load clothing into machines, add detergent and bleach to machines, sort and hang clothing, and clean and maintain laundry machines.⁵⁴² Ground maintenance workers mow, edge, and fertilize lawns. They weed and mulch landscapes, trim hedges, shrubs, and small trees, remove dead, damaged, or unwanted trees, plant flowers, trees, and shrubs, and water lawns, landscapes, and gardens.⁵⁴³ The duties of security guards and surveillance officers include protecting and enforcing laws on an employer's property, monitoring alarms and closed-circuit TV cameras, controlling access for employees and visitors, conducting security checks over a specified area, writing reports on what they observed while on patrol, interviewing witnesses for court testimony, and detaining violators.⁵⁴⁴ Refuse and recyclable material collectors collect and dump refuse or recyclable materials. Some collectors may be operating the vehicles, while others are strictly tasked with collection and disposal.⁵⁴⁵

In 2012, 2.3 million janitors and building cleaners, 1.2 million grounds maintenance workers, and just over 1 million security guards and surveillance officers were employed in the United States.⁵⁴⁶ In May 2013, the United States employment estimate for refuse and recyclable material collectors was approximately 120,000 workers.⁵⁴⁷

A major subset of housekeeping sector laborers globally are household domestic workers. The demand for domestic workers has grown significantly over the past two decades. A recent ILO study found that there were over 52.5 million domestic workers worldwide in 2010. The largest numbers were employed in Latin America and the Caribbean (19.5 million) and Asia and the Pacific (21.4 million), although rates of employment of servants were also high in the less densely populated Middle East.⁵⁴⁸ The large majority of domestic workers are women: on average fully 83 percent according to the ILO study, and the employment arrangements tend to be informal, with varied employment titles and arrangements.⁵⁴⁹ Many domestic workers are international migrants seeking employment opportunities in wealthier countries, moving both within regions such as Latin America and Southeast Asia, and from such regions to more prosperous countries in North America and Europe. In countries such as the United States, where rates of employment of domestic servants are fairly low, the industry is disproportionately dominated by foreign migrants, although no precise global data on percentages of migrants within the industry are available.⁵⁵⁰

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State 2014 Trafficking in Persons report noted evidence of human trafficking in the housekeeping and facilities operation sector in the following countries: Australia, Belgium, Curacao, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, Italy, Morocco, Netherlands, and the United States.⁵⁵¹

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

Many positions within the housekeeping service industries are classic examples of “3D” jobs – dirty, dangerous, and difficult. In laundry, employees work long hours, usually standing up, in hot and noisy environments, and the work may involve the use of harsh chemicals.⁵⁵² Janitorial jobs require long hours of walking, standing, or bending and sometimes involve moving and lifting heavy supplies and equipment.⁵⁵³ Cleaners have high levels of musculoskeletal problems compared to other professions and they also are known to suffer from hand dermatitis caused by wearing gloves for long periods of time and working with harsh chemicals.⁵⁵⁴ Janitors may have to work night shifts as well, depending on the nature of the facility being cleaned,⁵⁵⁵ and are often not given enough time to complete their tasks, which adds an additional element of danger and stress.⁵⁵⁶ Landscaping and grounds maintenance work is very physically demanding and requires the use of dangerous equipment and the application of harsh chemicals, contributing to worker vulnerability to injury. Groundskeeping work is also highly seasonal.⁵⁵⁷ Seasonal work is often associated with income instability for workers. Security guards work long hours standing or sitting, and by its nature their work has the potential to be very dangerous.⁵⁵⁸ Waste management employees lift heavy loads and work with unpleasant material. Many domestic workers are expected to work long hours and to be on call 24 hours per day. Female domestic workers are vulnerable to sexual harassment and assault.

Jobs of these kinds typically require few skills and little language competence, making them accessible to workers who may have few other options for formal employment, and may ultimately serve as a pathway to more desirable modes of employment for low-skilled women, international migrants, youth, and others at the margins of the formal workforce.⁵⁵⁹ Because of their marginality, however, such workers are often in a poor position to advocate for improved working conditions or employment terms for themselves, and are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse, including human trafficking. In one particularly egregious case in 2008, for example, six women from China were allegedly held as “slaves” by a laundry company owned by Techoclean in Japan. The women reported working more than 15 hours a day for as little as 22 yuan an hour (\$3.25), less than half of Japan’s legal minimum rate. The working conditions were extremely poor and the women got fungal skin infections from wearing rubber gloves and shoes for such long periods of time, as well as chemical burns from handling detergent. The women protested their conditions but were met with beatings and deportation.⁵⁶⁰

Even when not in a situation of outright trafficking, outsourcing, cutbacks in staff, and other money saving techniques can lead to lower safety standards for workers in housekeeping industries. A recent

protest by cleaners at the Frankfurt University Hospital in early 2014 was a relatively unusual occurrence, but their demands – for higher standards in training, equipment, and protection – reflect the concerns of workers in these sorts of industries.⁵⁶¹

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Most of the tasks performed by janitors, housekeepers, laundry workers, groundskeepers, and security guards are considered low-skilled, and the jobs are generally poorly paid. Workers who take on such jobs generally do so because they lack better employment alternatives, typically due to a combination of poverty and lack of skills. Because such jobs typically require little investment in workforce training on the part of employers, and because poor and low-skilled workers are often abundant in the populations supplying the labor for these industries, such workers are easily replaced and therefore poorly positioned to advocate for themselves in the face of exploitation or trafficking. Many workers in these industries are women, children, migrants, members of ethnic minorities, or members of other relatively disenfranchised groups. Such people often lack robust social and economic resources, and may be dependent on their employers or employment agents not only their job security, but also their immigration status, housing, food, or other necessities.

Perhaps the most vulnerable workers in the housekeeping sector are domestic workers, who are often vulnerable to exploitation or trafficking at the hands of their employers, due both to the isolated, closed-off environments in which many of them work, and to the lack of adequate legal protections for domestic employees in many countries. According to the ILO, “more than half of all domestic workers have no statutory limitation of their weekly working hours, more than two out of five are not entitled to be paid a minimum wage, and more than a third have no right to take maternity leave.”⁵⁶² A recent Human Rights Watch article reports that the vast majority of domestic workers are women and girls, many of whom are migrants.⁵⁶³ Such workers “often work 14 to 18 hours a day, seven days a week, for wages far below the minimum wage. They may be locked within their workplace and subjected to physical or sexual violence. Children and migrant domestic workers are often the most vulnerable.”⁵⁶⁴ Reports of domestic worker abuse from all over the world suggest a widespread problem.⁵⁶⁵

Child trafficking in domestic labor is also common in many parts of the world. A 2012 ILO estimate defines “child domestic work” as a “situation where children aged 5 to 17 years perform domestic tasks in the home of a third party or employer (with or without remuneration),” and found that 17.2 million children were engaged in such labor.⁵⁶⁶ A Human Rights Watch study of the problem in West Africa, for example, found a network of child trafficking routes centered on Togo including one route focused on trafficking Togolese girls into domestic and market labor in Gabon, Benin, Nigeria, and Niger.⁵⁶⁷ It is also a common practice throughout Africa for orphaned children to be sent to live in the homes of their extended relatives, where they work as domestic laborers for free, sometimes without adequate food or the opportunity to attend school.⁵⁶⁸ In Haiti, there have been a large number of reports of the trafficking and exploitation of *restaviks*, children from impoverished families sent to live with and work for more prosperous families.

Workers who lack legal immigration status may be particularly vulnerable to exploitation by employers or outsourcing agents (see below), who may use the threat of arrest or deportation to enforce their labor. In a recent lawsuit against Wal-Mart in New Jersey brought by a group of undocumented migrants working as janitors, the plaintiffs claimed that Wal-Mart and the janitorial contractors on which the company relied exploited them by “forcing them to work in excess of the statutory maximum; denying them lawful pay and benefits under FLSA; denying them sick leave, meals or breaks; hiding them from law enforcement by threatening them with deportation or locking them in the stores during their shifts; in some cases physically beating them.” The case is awaiting trial.⁵⁶⁹

Disabled or socially stigmatized workers may also be at heightened risk of trafficking or other forms of labor abuse. The Magdalene Laundries, run by four religious orders in Ireland in the 19th and 20th centuries, were notoriously used as workhouses for women and girls who were considered deviant (single mothers, victims of sexual abuse, and women with mental disabilities). The last of the laundries operated until 1996 and the Irish Parliament just recently announced, following the publication of a report on the subject, that there was “significant state involvement” in the operation. Estimates state that 10,012 young women worked in the laundries, a quarter of whom were sent by the state as an alternative to prison. When the women escaped, they were returned by police. The women were kept “in a system of slave labor,” working six days a week without pay, according to one story.⁵⁷⁰

While such historical situations may seem unlikely to pose a contemporary human trafficking risk to US supply chains, the United States does actually source significant labor in the housekeeping and facilities operation sector from workshops for the disabled such as the Goodwill Industries and National Industries for the Blind (NIB), particularly in the laundry and janitorial industries. Due to a 1930s-era law still on the books permitting payment of sub-minimum wage rates to disabled people in federal workshops, nearly 400,000 disabled United States workers in Goodwill and NIB workshops currently earn subminimum wages, despite the fact that many affiliates have successfully transitioned to a minimum/fair wage model.⁵⁷¹ The presence of low wages does not necessarily mean the presence of trafficking, but the unequal structural arrangement governing such workplaces may pose risks of greater vulnerability to exploitation for disabled workers. Indeed, reports of wage theft, sexual harassment, and other abuses in workshops for the disabled have been alleged for years.⁵⁷²

Migrant Workforce:

Migrant workers are more vulnerable to human trafficking for a number of reasons, including deceptive recruitment, lack of local support systems, lack of familiarity with the local culture or language, dependence on the job and employer due to migration-related debt, vulnerability to deportation due to immigration status, and constraints imposed by employers on their freedom to leave the workplace. Migrants may also feel pressured to remain in coercive or abusive situations due to the dependence of their family members back home on their remittances.⁵⁷³

In the United States, a large proportion of the workers in housekeeping industries are temporary migrants or immigrants. According to the Pew Research Center, just under 2.5 million (almost one-third) of the construction, landscaping, cleaning, and maintenance workers employed in the United States in 2012 were foreign born. Nearly half of the foreign-born workers were from Mexico. Migrants are less common in the security services industry: only 289,000 (just over five percent) of the nearly 4.1 million workers in the Pew study were foreign born, mostly from Mexico, South and East Asia, and the Caribbean.⁵⁷⁴

Housekeeping and other facilities operation services for large international projects such as military or post-disaster recovery operations and major sporting events are often provided by migrant laborers who are hired by third-party labor recruiters or outsourcing agencies. Low-skilled positions in construction and transportation, as well as housekeeping positions for janitors, landscapers and groundskeepers, launderers, foodservice providers, and security personnel all need to be staffed quickly in such contexts. If sufficient numbers of appropriate workers are unavailable locally, migrants are imported for such jobs, raising the risk of human trafficking. See the [Federal Procurement of Large Logistics Management Contracts](#) pullout box below for a discussion of the risk of human trafficking associated with large logistics management contracts issued by the United States military.

Trafficking of migrants has been documented in a number of housekeeping-related industries, even in countries not normally noted for having labor rights problems. In the Netherlands, for example, migrant men and boys from Romania, Nigeria, Poland, Pakistan, Sierra Leone, Angola, China, Ghana, Guinea, India, Bulgaria, Egypt, Hungary, and the Philippines are known to have been trafficked into janitorial

service work, among other sectors. Migrant domestic workers in the Netherlands are very vulnerable as well, and some of these workers are employed by foreign diplomats posted in the Netherlands.⁵⁷⁵ An additional report of migrant trafficking for cleaning services occurred in Denmark recently. In that case, two Romanian migrant workers were forced to work as janitors for three years. They were not paid for their work and lived in horrible conditions “in a closet on the alleged traffickers’ balcony.”⁵⁷⁶

Security companies have also been implicated in human trafficking. In Uganda, licensed security companies and employment agencies in Kampala recruit Ugandans to work as security guards in the Middle East. Some of these workers have reported passport retention, nonpayment of wages, and lack of food.⁵⁷⁷ In Iraq, migrants from Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nepal, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Pakistan, Georgia, Jordan, Ethiopia, and Uganda are known to have been forced to work as security guards, among other occupations.⁵⁷⁸

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chain:

Labor brokers, outsourcing agents, and other middlemen play a significant role in the supply of labor to the housekeeping and facilities operation professions, both internationally and within the US Industries such as janitorial services, hotel cleaning, landscaping, and laundry services register high levels of migrant labor, and are increasingly reliant even within the United States on outsourcing for staffing. For migrants especially, the presence of middlemen opens workers to the possibilities of deception in recruitment regarding the types and terms of employment and recruitment and job placement fees. These workers frequently have to borrow money to obtain their jobs and earn less than expected, increasing their risk of debt bondage. Migrants are also vulnerable to having their passports retained by their agents or employers, severely restricting their ability to remove themselves from exploitative or abusive situations.

In a recent case brought against a landscaping company in Tennessee with the help of the Alliance of Guestworkers for Dignity serves as an example of the worst types of abuses that can occur. In this case, a migrant worker hired through the H-2B visa program reported that the company confiscated his passport and visa as soon as he arrived in the United States. He said that the working conditions were akin to slavery and that employees were sometimes forced to work at gunpoint. Following a US Department of Labor investigation, the company, Vanderbilt Landscaping, was made to pay \$18,496 worth of back wages to 42 workers for failing to pay workers minimum wage and overtime.⁵⁷⁹ In addition, the Department assessed \$18,000 in Civil Monetary Penalties for violations of H-2B provisions. In total, the employer paid \$36,496. Fifteen workers subsequently filed a federal lawsuit accusing the company of human trafficking, forced labor, and civil rights violations.⁵⁸⁰ In addition to passport and visa confiscation, the group of workers claimed that managers kept them under constant surveillance and issued threats. One worker was sent back to Mexico after he complained about the working conditions. Another described being trapped by debt, as he had to borrow money to come to the US, and had not made enough money to pay back the loan. The work itself was described as exploitative – the workers were tasked with mowing the medians and picking up trash on Tennessee highways and interstates – and the housing conditions were inhumane. The Tennessee Occupational Health and Safety Administration fined the company \$4,700 for equipment safety and crowded and unsafe housing conditions (see the [Guestworker Visas](#) pullout box for more information on visa programs).⁵⁸¹

In a similar case in Ohio, *United States v. Maria Terechina*, the defendant was accused of recruiting women from Eastern Europe to work in hotel and laundry operations in Columbus, Ohio. The workers were held in debt bondage and “involuntary servitude” with their salaries and passports withheld. In that case, Terechina pled guilty to “conspiring to defraud the government and conduct human trafficking,” and was sentenced to one year in prison.⁵⁸²

Workers in the housekeeping sector overseas are also vulnerable to exploitation and trafficking by employment intermediaries. The union United Voice recently uncovered the abuse of international

student workers in the office cleaning industry in Melbourne, Australia. In that case, the international students interviewed by the union representatives were mostly unaware of their rights and were chronically underpaid. Despite a formal labor agreement ensuring that cleaners in the biggest office buildings were to be paid \$24.35 an hour for overnight work, the United Voice investigation discovered that most cleaners were in fact paid \$15 to \$20 instead, with the building owners or the subcontracted cleaning companies pocketing the remaining money, a form of wage theft made possible by outsourcing.⁵⁸³

Perhaps most relevant for purposes of EO compliance, there have also been reports of trafficking and other labor abuses of migrants recruited to work for United States military and humanitarian operations through large logistics management contractors.⁵⁸⁴

Federal Procurement of Housekeeping Services:¹¹

Housekeeping services like landscaping, janitorial and laundry services, guard/security services, and waste management/garbage collection are purchased by virtually all federal agencies. The largest and most numerous contracts are centered geographically in areas with significant clusters of federal buildings, including the National Laboratories, Centers for Disease Control, and NASA facilities, and in Washington, DC. Overseas, contracts are clustered around both temporary US facilities such as military camps and compounds associated with relief operations, and permanent facilities such as embassies, military bases, and hospitals.

Total combined net action obligations for FY2013 on janitorial (PSC S201) , landscaping (PSC S208), laundry (PSC S209), guarding (PSC S206), and waste management/garbage collection (PSC S205) services amounted to \$5.856 billion. Housekeeping services are also frequently bundled into large logistics and facilities management contracts (see the [Federal Procurement of Large Logistics Management Contracts](#) pullout box for more information).

Of the \$5.856 billion spent on direct housekeeping contracts in FY2013, \$1.228 billion was spent overseas, with 217 contracts (amounting to \$1.123 billion) greater than \$500,000, qualifying for compliance scrutiny under the Executive Order.

Overall, the US spent \$1.330 billion on janitorial services (PSC S201), \$421 million on landscaping (PSC S208), \$323 million on garbage collection/waste management (PSC S205), and \$144 million on laundry (PSC S209) in FY2013. Guarding services coded under housekeeping (PSC S206) (i.e., not prison or detention center guards) were the largest expenditure category in this sector, amounting to \$3.638 billion in FY2013. The largest guarding contracts were overseas, mainly in Afghanistan, Iraq, Germany, Israel, and South Korea, but there were several large (>\$20 million) contracts in the United States as well.

Federal Procurement of Large Logistics Management Contracts

In recent decades, the Department of Defense and other federal agencies have increasingly turned to civilian contractors for assistance managing large logistical operations associated with military, humanitarian, and training missions at home and abroad.

¹¹ All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

The largest and most well-known of these contracts are those associated with the Army's Logistics Civil Augmentation (LOGCAP) Program, operating primarily in Afghanistan, Iraq, and Kuwait, although in FY2013, there were also large contracts of this kind in Oman, Bahrain, and Central African Republic. The LOGCAP program is currently in its fourth iteration (LOGCAP IV), created after LOGCAP III was halted due to controversy over misappropriation of funds by its sole contractor, Halliburton-KBR. Under LOGCAP IV, three firms, Fluor, DynCorp, and KBR compete for contracts, which are indefinite-quantity/ indefinite-delivery contracts with up to nine year durations.⁵⁸⁵ In FY2013, the Army spent a total of \$4.248 billion on contracts for facilities support services (NAICS 561210) and logistics support (PSC R706) from these three companies. \$3.787 billion of this was spent in just three contracts to Fluor and Dyncorp for logistical services in Afghanistan. Total US spending on such contracts (all agencies, all vendors, all locations) was \$5.367 billion in FY2013.

LOGCAP contracts provide the Army with a remarkably extensive range of services. According to a feature on the subject on the Army's official website, "highlights of a LOGCAP Fluor day at Bagram include: 3,800 bags of laundry washed, dried and folded; more than 24,000 meals; a supply support activity...that manages more than 11,000 line items going to more than 400 customers; and a solid waste facility that processes nearly 200 cubic meters of recyclable items out of a total of almost 3,000 cubic meters of waste processed each day. They also operate fuel points, wash racks, MWR facilities, and other services that literally touch each military, civilian and contractor at Bagram every day."⁵⁸⁶

Providing the staffing necessary to field such massive and complex operations is a significant component of the overall product being sold by companies like Fluor, Dyncorp, and KBR. While these firms typically hire some labor locally, workers are also imported from all over the world. Dyncorp, for example, claims that, "by leveraging worldwide expertise in contingency operations and an extensive global network, high-performing teams have quickly organized and deployed a workforce of more than 20,000 people to more than 70 sites throughout the Middle East on five task orders."⁵⁸⁷

Given the range of services such contracts deliver, many of which are in the [Housekeeping/Facilities Operation](#), [Construction](#), and [Transportation and Warehousing](#) sectors, much of the workforce involved is relatively low-skilled. Migrants in these positions, in particular, are at significant risk for human trafficking, and trafficking abuses of migrant workers on LOGCAP contracts have been reported in the media.

A particularly damning exposé was published by *Al Jazeera* in March of 2014, which drew upon five months of investigation of US military bases in Afghanistan, and described widespread collusion between DOD subcontractors and recruiters to profit from exorbitant fees charged to migrants for job placements, sometimes leaving the workers in situations of debt bondage for as much as a year.⁵⁸⁸ The report found that, although prime contractors such as Dyncorp or KBR officially profess to having zero tolerance for TIP, they do not meaningfully scrutinize the behavior of their subcontractors, on whom they rely for the bulk of their recruiting. The report described a system in which recruitment agents in the migrant-sending countries pay bribes to DOD subcontractors to hire from their pools, with the costs of these bribes passed on to the workers. Such kickbacks are a disincentive for subcontractors to hire workers directly, instead encouraging the recruiter middlemen.⁵⁸⁹ Contractors reportedly pay workers extremely low wages – as little as \$150 per month – while receiving upwards of 10 times worker wages in compensation from the Department of Defense.⁵⁹⁰ The report also found widespread examples of excessive recruitment fees, and of deceptive recruitment, including situations in which workers had been sent to different countries, earned lower wages, or ended up doing different work than they had been promised when making the decision to migrate.⁵⁹¹

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Textile and Apparel Manufacturing

This report covers labor on sites where textiles and apparel are manufactured. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with the production of the materials used in the manufacturing of textiles and apparel, see the commodity reports: [Cotton](#), [Leather](#), [Silk](#), and [Wool](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

Overview of the Textile and Apparel Manufacturing Sector:

Industries in the textile manufacturing sector convert basic fiber into usable items. Textile mills use natural or synthetic material such as cotton or polyester to produce items such as fiber, yarn, or thread. Yarn is produced through spinning short fibers together. Fabric is produced by weaving or knitting yarn using hand looms or automated machines. Fabric may undergo finishing processes to improve the look and feel. Dyeing gives color to fabric and can be done at any stage of textile manufacturing. Garment or apparel making involves multiple steps including cutting, sewing, pressing and finishing. Value addition includes embroidering, printing, and other embellishment.

Economy:

Apparel and textiles are two of the largest industries in the world, with the global apparel retail industry valued at \$1.175 trillion in 2011.⁵⁹² Most nations in the world participate to some degree in the textile and apparel sector. The World Bank notes that apparel production is often a “springboard for national development.”⁵⁹³ The sector has relatively low barriers to entry as it is not highly capital intensive and primarily utilizes low-skilled workers.⁵⁹⁴ Further, production can easily be shifted from country to country in pursuit of lower production costs.⁵⁹⁵ Thus, the same factors that create low barriers to entry also mean that the sector is highly competitive, and create downward pressure on wages and working conditions.

Emerging economies in which apparel and textiles play a large role include Cambodia, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. In Bangladesh and Cambodia, over 80 percent of manufacturing exports derive from the apparel and textile sectors.⁵⁹⁶ Bangladesh is home to the world’s fastest growing apparel sector.⁵⁹⁷ China is the world’s largest exporter of apparel and textiles, producing over 40 percent of global exports in 2012, followed by the European Union (25.2), India (4.1), Turkey (3.6), and Bangladesh (3). The US is the largest apparel market in the world, with a value of about 331 billion annually, around 28 percent of the global market. Ninety-seven percent of garments sold in the US are made internationally.⁵⁹⁸ The exporters to the US market are China, Vietnam, Indonesia, Bangladesh, and Mexico.⁵⁹⁹

Domestic textile production is located primarily in Southeastern states and California while the majority of the apparel industry is located in California, New York, and North Carolina.⁶⁰⁰

Workforce:

The textile and apparel industries are two of the world’s most globalized sectors, providing employment for over 60 million workers worldwide.⁶⁰¹ For many workers, employment in the textile and apparel sector offers a first opportunity to gain employment in the formal economy, which is typically higher paid and more stable than the informal sector or agriculture. However, due to the highly competitive nature of

these industries, wages and working conditions are often sub-standard or exploitive.⁶⁰² Both the textile and apparel industries are characterized by low levels of unionization and at least some reliance on migrant labor. Brands attempting to cut transport costs and shorten lead times move their production bases closer to retail markets, using migrant labor to keep costs low. This trend leads to an increase in temporary, contract, and seasonal labor within the workforce. Hundreds of thousands of migrant workers are employed within the garment and textile supply chains across Europe, Asia, North and South America, and Africa. Migrants are particularly prevalent in the textile and apparel industries of Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand, Mauritius, Jordan Egypt and Maldives. Approximately 85 percent of these workers are female low-skilled or unskilled workers.⁶⁰³

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The US Department of State 2014 Trafficking in Persons report noted evidence of human trafficking in the textile and apparel manufacturing sector in the following countries: Brazil, India, Italy, Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Nepal, Russia, Turkmenistan, and Zambia.⁶⁰⁴

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

Workers in the textile and apparel manufacturing sector face a wide variety of potential labor violations including withholding and deduction of wages, forced overtime, and verbal, physical, and sexual harassment.

Health and safety risks facing workers include chemical exposure, dust, poor ventilation, musculoskeletal stress, and noise exposure.⁶⁰⁵ Apparel and textile production, particularly sewing machine operation and hand sewing, often require workers to complete “monotonous, highly repetitive and high-speed tasks,” as well as to remain in one posture for long period of time. Workers who are paid at a piece rate may be incentivized to work far beyond what is safe in order to earn a basic wage. Musculoskeletal disorders can lead to long-term disability. Chemical hazards include formaldehyde exposure, which is associated with cancer development both, during production and in warehouse areas. Organic solvents used in finishing can lead to neurological, central nervous system, and liver illnesses.⁶⁰⁶ Sandblasting, a process used to fade denim, has been found to cause the serious lung disease, silicosis.⁶⁰⁷ Child workers are at particular risk of exposure to toxins and musculoskeletal injury.

Further, many apparel factories are housed in poorly maintained or constructed buildings, leaving them vulnerable to collapse. These risks are compounded when facilities are not adequately inspected, due to corruption or lack of capacity. In Bangladesh, the Rana Plaza facility collapse – which killed 1,129 workers – has been largely attributed to corruption and negligence on the part of the government and factory owners.⁶⁰⁸ Fire is also a serious concern, particularly in Bangladesh where 800 workers were injured in fires in 2013.⁶⁰⁹ Apparel and textile facilities are especially vulnerable to fires due to the use of highly flammable material. In some cases, management locks exits or otherwise prevents workers from leaving.

Wages in the textile and garment sector are low, and workers face irregularities in wages and payments. According to the Clean Clothes Campaign, garment workers globally rarely earn more than \$2 per day.⁶¹⁰ Workers also lose expected wages when a factory suddenly reduces workforce or closes due to reduced client orders – a frequent occurrence in the apparel sector due to the volatility of buyer demands.⁶¹¹

The necessity of meeting tight buyer deadlines also drives high rates of forced overtime in the apparel sector. Forced overtime is common, and workers who protest may be fired and blacklisted from the industry. Workers may work up to 18 hour days, seven days a week in advance of a deadline. In some cases, workers may rely on overtime pay to earn a living wage. Many factories, however, do not adequately compensate workers for overtime, and often underpay wages by taking advantage of unrealistic quota systems or by falsifying overtime records.⁶¹²

Wage and hour violations are “endemic” in the US garment sector, according to a labor expert interviewed by Verité. A 2008 National Employment Law Project (NELP) survey of 4,387 low-wage workers in Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York City found that apparel and textile factories posted the highest rate of minimum wage violations of surveyed industries employing low-wage workers, at a rate of 42.6 percent.⁶¹³ NELP reported that 23.6 percent of workers in New York City’s apparel and textile factories registered minimum wage violations. Sixty percent of workers surveyed reported being paid by the hour, while 40 percent were paid by the piece, with piece rate workers reporting more than double the rate of minimum wage violations as workers who were paid by the hour.⁶¹⁴ Reports by the Polaris Project indicate that employees in the garment industry work up to twelve hours per day, six to seven days per week, with few or no breaks.⁶¹⁵ The 2008 NELP survey indicates that 71 percent of apparel and textile factory workers reported overtime violations.⁶¹⁶ NELP further found that the apparel and textile sector registered the highest rate of meal break violations out of any industry covered by the survey in New York City, at 88.4 percent.⁶¹⁷

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

The workforce in the textile and apparel sector is highly vulnerable, drawn primarily of workers from marginalized rural areas and urban areas, primarily children, adolescents and women, along with a smaller number of men.⁶¹⁸ The ILO notes that “in some countries, garment manufacturing may be one of the only opportunities to move into the formal sector.” Further there are low levels of trade-union representation, allowing few opportunities for worker grievances.

Child labor helps fill the demand for cheap and unskilled labor needed in multiple levels of the supply chain. Child labor is present in both textile and apparel production. In general, child labor is less common in first-tier formal garment production facilities due to pressure from international buyers and consumers. However, child labor is found in textile production, small sub-contracting units, home production units and in value-added processes such as beading. Children also produce fibers in spinning mills and the hand loom industry. In some cases, children are reportedly valued for their “nimble fingers,” and participate in tasks including “dyeing, sewing buttons, cutting and trimming threads, folding, moving and packing garments...embroidering, sequinning and smocking.”⁶¹⁹ Children may seek work in the textile and garment sector as a means to earn income for themselves and their families, or their parents may be offered an advance fee, entering the children into debt bondage.⁶²⁰ In many cases, children are driven into the sector because adult wages are so low that children must supplement the wages of their parents, who work in the sector themselves.⁶²¹ Children who are considered to be “apprentices” or learning skills may be drastically underpaid, or not paid at all, and many face long hours that interfere with schooling.⁶²² Health and safety concerns endemic in the textile and apparel production sectors are magnified for children. Under the Sumangali scheme, girls in India are recruited to work in textile factories for two to three year periods. Salaries are withheld during work periods, and are only paid to parents when girls return home and the money is used to pay dowries. Charges for food and housing are deducted from girls’ salaries. Girls are housed at the worksite and their freedom of movement is severely curtailed. They are not allowed to leave the factory grounds except at prescribed times, during which they are accompanied by a security guard. Vulnerability to sexual abuse is high.⁶²³

In addition to sub-contracted facilities, much work in the textile and apparel sector is sub-contracted out by “homeworkers” who work in their homes and paid on a piece-rate basis.⁶²⁴ These workers – predominantly women – are generally low-skilled, and are considered “independent contractors.” Further, because they work in the home, their labor is invisible in the regulatory context, so they lack both social protections as well as a formal relationship with an employer.⁶²⁵

Women and girls are the majority of the labor pool in textile and apparel sectors, representing about 85 percent of workers by some estimates. Textile and apparel work is often seen as “appropriate” for female

involvement, and many may have migrated from rural areas seeking employment.⁶²⁶ Further, tasks within the sector are highly segregated, with women relegated to the low skilled, low-wage jobs, whereas men tend to be employed in less-precarious management jobs.⁶²⁷ Women also face high levels of sexual harassment and abuse.⁶²⁸

In the US prison labor is used to produce garments, including federal contracts for military uniforms.⁶²⁹ Prisoners making apparel for the federal government were reportedly paid 23 cents to \$1.15 an hour. (See the [Prison Labor in Federal Supply Chains](#) pullout box for more information.)⁶³⁰

Migrant Workforce:

In many countries, the textile and apparel production sectors are highly dependent on migrants, both internal and international.

The United States garment industry's workforce has historically been comprised of recent immigrants. The Partnership for the New American Economy points to immigration as a key reason that manufacturing companies are still able to produce in the US.⁶³¹ In a recent report, the Partnership argued that about 15 percent of domestic manufacturing employment (1.8 million positions) has remained in the US as a result of immigrant workforce participation.⁶³² According to a 2005 Pew Research Center report, 26 percent of apparel workers and 18 percent of sewing machines operators were believed to be undocumented.⁶³³ Immigrant labor makes up about 64 percent of garment and other factory workers in New York City, according to 2013 reports.⁶³⁴ In the US, migrant workers employed in the garment sector are subjected to rampant wage and hour violations and are vulnerable to becoming victims of human trafficking due to smuggling and placement debt, their lack of legal status, and their fear of filing grievances.

The apparel sectors in Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand, Mauritius, Jordan, Egypt, US, Australia the European Union and the Maldives have been identified as using a high percentage of international migrant workers. Many migrant workers enter the garment sectors with recruitment fee debt to labor brokers.⁶³⁵ Abuses in the apparel sector are exacerbated in the case of migrants. Migrant workers are often paid a lower wage than their local counterparts, calling what the Ethical Trading Initiative describes as a "two-tier" workforce. Already low wages are reduced even further for deductions – including levy payments, and mandatory medical, food, and dormitory fees. In Jordan, for example, where migrants work in the country's Qualifying Industrial Zones (QIZ), migrants receive lower wages than Jordanians; in 2012, the national minimum wage was JOD 190 for Jordanian workers and JOD 110 for migrants.⁶³⁶

Other indicators of human trafficking, including document retention and mandatory "runaway" insurance (the practice of requiring workers to lodge deposits) are common.⁶³⁷

In the United States, textile and apparel sector production relies on migrant workers, both documented and undocumented.⁶³⁸ Many of the migrant workers are from East Asian and Latin American countries.⁶³⁹ Just as the globalized nature of the textile and apparel sector puts downward pressure on working conditions globally, conditions for workers – particularly migrant workers – in the US are sub-standard. Recent investigations by the United States Department of Labor have found repeated wage, overtime, and record-keeping violations.⁶⁴⁰ Migrant workers in the United States are often employed through brokers who provide their labor to garment factories.⁶⁴¹ Although the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 (IRCA) prohibits hiring of undocumented migrants, employers and brokers continue to do so, and use the threat of deportation to prevent undocumented workers from filing grievances.⁶⁴²

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chains:

Labor outsourcing, both of migrant and domestic workers, is very common in the apparel sector and intermediaries play a wide variety of roles. Garment factories increasingly tend to subcontract hiring, usually through third-party labor brokers or private employment agencies. Demand for labor contributes to the hiring of undocumented workers through labor brokers.⁶⁴³ Manufacturers look to immigrants to help fill the labor demand, but legal immigrant labor can be difficult to secure, and many employers are forced to turn to undocumented workers who are difficult to recruit directly, leading them to turn to labor brokers.

Verité research on the Indian textile and apparel sector found that brokers act as recruiters, supervisors, and agents. These roles are not exclusive and occur at the national and international level. In some cases, workers or former workers may act as brokers, recruiting new workers from informal connections in their home villages.⁶⁴⁴ In general, workers are contracted with an employment agency, which serves as the primary employer, rather than the factory. This allows factories flexibility in staffing levels depending on demand and deadline.

Some labor brokers recruit workers to fill positions under factory management, but do not oversee workers on site. In India, this type of broker includes recruiters for “Sumangali” schemes, under which girls are held under conditions conducive to human trafficking for two to three years. These recruiters are often informal and have ties to the local community.

A second type of labor contractor is engaged by a company to find labor to perform a particular job within a factory. All management responsibilities of the workforce performing this specific task lie with the contractor, although legally the principal employer (the factory) holds ultimate final responsibility for labor rights compliance. These brokers either bring workers to join the company, or the employer assigns workers under them as contract workers. The employer does this to decrease their responsibility for these workers, with the contractors responsible for the specific job with a specific number of workers (either recruited by the contractor or by the employer) to complete the job. If the employer were to utilize regular (permanent) workers, the company would have to oversee all aspects of production and be responsible for the product quality, the timeliness of production, human resource management, and paying worker wages and benefits. With the job contractor functioning within the factory itself, the employer is one step removed from direct, day to day management of these workers. Job contractors are linked to the pervasive use of temporary contract labor. Through this arrangement, contractors are responsible for production planning, and assume control over wages, benefits, and general working conditions. The workers’ total salaries are given to these contractors, who then dispense salaries to workers. Contractors receive a pre-determined commission on each worker if the workers are hired by the contractor. Apart from this, as the contractor also manages the workers, they receive a commission (from the employer) of a certain percentage of the workers’ total salaries every month, again fixed by agreement between the contractor and the employer.⁶⁴⁵ Migrant workers may have contracts with a recruiter, outsourcing agent, and factory management, each with different terms and conditions of work. This obscures the employment relationship and employer accountability and opens the door to abuses.⁶⁴⁶

Workers recruited by agents are often indebted due to high recruitment fees. The Clean Clothes Campaign reports that it is increasingly common for workers to be recruited for facilities where a client order falls through. In this case, the worker may be held in the dormitory, provided one meal a day, and not compensated any further.⁶⁴⁷

Recruiters can also play a role in recruiting home workers. These contractors assume work from factories, and then oversee completion of work in home-based units or households. Home work labor suppliers may function as go-betweens or middlemen between households, where the work is being performed, and subcontracting manufacturing units, which place orders for the work with the labor suppliers.⁶⁴⁸

Long, Complex, and/or Non-Transparent Supply Chains:

Apparel and textile supply chains are complex, unpredictable and often include informal relationships. The current global sector has developed in response to globalization, and increasing requirements by multi-national brands for flexibility and quick turnaround times. Major brands have outsourced production, and focus mainly on branding and marketing. Production for large multi-national companies is largely managed by “agents” with large networks of worldwide factories.⁶⁴⁹

The garment industry has long presented a challenge to those seeking to monitor workplace conditions. Garment manufacturing has long relied on diverse organizational methods that keep employers from directly employing the personnel manufacturing those products. For example, “A ‘jobber’ may sell a design to a retailer, and then contract with a manufacturer for delivery of the product. The manufacturer may purchase and cut the product, but then contract the sewing to one or more companies (which may further contract out sub-assembly).”⁶⁵⁰ Each time a piece of the process is subcontracted, the profit margin diminishes and competition between firms intensifies. A large number of small, informal sewing contractors can easily enter the market and compete with each other for a limited number of contracts, resulting in downward pressure on prices. Since labor costs comprise the bulk of input costs, many sewing contractors’ only option to become profitable is to pay sub-minimum wages.⁶⁵¹

The relationship between retailers and manufacturers further encourages labor violations. Retailers negotiate prices and purchase finished garments from the manufacturers, exerting strong pressure on manufacturers to keep costs low and to speed up production times. The manufacturers place that same pressure on the contractors and subcontractors who actually produce the goods, often through the exploitation of immigrant labor.⁶⁵² Verité expert interviews indicate that brands have a significant amount of leverage over small-scale garment factories in unilaterally setting prices and turnaround times due to competition among various factories. In many cases, brands pay factories low prices for each piece of clothing that they produce and demand short turnaround times. This leads to the factories paying their workers low piece-rates and demanding that they work overtime to meet production demands (during which they are paid the same piece rates as opposed to overtime premiums), rather than an hourly wage that complies with minimum wage and overtime laws. In some cases, factories take a loss on an order so as to maintain its business relationship with a brand. This can result in times during which factory owners do not have enough cash flow to pay their workers, or in extreme cases, low profit margins can force them to close down, resulting in job loss, many times without workers being paid the wages owed to them.

An agent’s responsibility to the client is primarily to deliver a finished product on deadline and under budget, with little consideration of outcomes for workers. For example, if an agent receives an order from a client, they might purchase fibers from a Korean factory, dyeing and weaving services in Taiwan, purchase zippers and buttons from China, and send materials for production to a factory in Thailand.⁶⁵³ At the factory level, production requests are often further sub-contracted.

There are two primary types of sub-contracting. Vertical sub-contracting means that the order passes from the tier one factory to smaller factory or unit. Orders may be vertically sub-contracted several times. Horizontal sub-contracting means that the order is passed to a “sibling” factory of roughly the same size.⁶⁵⁴ Sub-contracting can send orders across international boundaries as first tier facilities sub-contract orders to countries where the cost of labor is even lower.⁶⁵⁵ Many sub-contracting agreements between facilities are relatively informal, making transparency in the supply chain extremely difficult.⁶⁵⁶ In many cases, sub-contracting may be “unauthorized,” that is, shifted without informing the client. “Value-added” processes such as embroidery are also likely to be outsourced.⁶⁵⁷

The high-levels of sub-contracting have led factories to rely on highly flexible labor pools, encouraging facilities to rely on casual, contract labor hired through agents.

Federal Procurement in the Textiles and Apparel Manufacturing Sector:¹²

Textiles and apparel appear in the federal spend primarily in the form of personal armor, uniforms, outerwear, shoes, and other clothing for troops, prisoners, prison and border guards, and officers in agencies such as the National Parks Service, Federal Bureau of Investigation, and Transportation Safety Administration. The United States Government issued contracts worth \$1.9 billion for personal armor and clothing in FY2013 (PSC 84%, excluding PSC 8460 for luggage and 8465 for individual equipment). Of this, \$764 million was spent on personal armor, \$63 million was spent on badges and insignia, and the rest was spent on uniforms, outerwear, and shoes. Reflecting the Buy America Act, almost all clothing and armor purchased by the United States Government are procured from US contractors. UNICOR/Federal Prison Industries is the top producer of non-armor uniforms.

The United States issued contracts worth \$119 million for direct purchase of textiles (PSC 8305) for use in blankets, canvas, etc. in FY2013. Tents and tarpaulins (PSC 8340) accounted for another \$63 million in federal spending in FY2013.

Prison Labor in Federal Supply Chains

Prison labor in international law: International law addresses the question of prison labor most comprehensively in the UN Forced Labor Convention, 1930 (No. 29), which prohibits the use of labor undertaken involuntarily under threat of a menace of penalty. Convention 29 includes exemptions for certain forms of non-voluntary labor, including some prison labor, in recognition of the use of labor as a mode of punishment and rehabilitation for convicted prisoners in many countries. The Convention limits the exemption for prison labor, however, by specifying that it must be supervised and controlled by a public authority (i.e., not done within a privately owned or managed prison), and that prisoners must labor for a public purpose, not be hired out to private enterprises for profit.⁶⁵⁸ As a recent legal review on the subject explains, “public prison labor, prison-made products or services purchased only by a state or federal government, (and) prison labor involving the maintenance of public prisons” are not classified as forced labor under international law, while products made or services delivered by prisoners in private prison facilities, or in public prisons on behalf of private enterprises, are seen to be potentially tainted with forced labor under Convention 29.⁶⁵⁹ Voluntary labor by prisoners in private prisons or for private enterprises is permitted, but, in recognition of the difficulty of evaluating the true voluntariness of a prisoner’s labor, the Convention specifies that the labor in question must occur under circumstances approximating the free labor market in terms of wages (less reasonable deductions for food and housing), social benefits, and safety and health protections.⁶⁶⁰ The United States and Canada are among only a handful of nations not to have ratified Convention 29, in both cases due to concerns over restrictions placed by the Convention on the use of privately-run prisons and the hiring out of prisoners in publicly-run prisons to private businesses.⁶⁶¹

Prison labor in the United States: Forced labor of US prisoners in private facilities is a potential concern in federal supply chains. As discussed above, international law permits prison labor in government-run facilities for the public good. Work programs for US prisoners in federally-owned and operated prisons, and goods manufactured by prisoners in such facilities and procured directly by the federal government – \$320million to UNICOR/Federal Prison Industries in FY2013, mostly for uniforms and furniture – are therefore not defined as forced labor under international law. An increasing number of US prisons and immigration detention centers are now owned and run by private entities, however, many of which operate

¹²All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System. Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

prison labor programs. According to recent media accounts, roughly 10 percent of the US prison population, and nearly half the population of immigrant detainees, are now housed in facilities owned by for-profit private prison companies such as Corrections Corporation of America (CCA), the GEO Group, and Cornell Companies,⁶⁶² with the largest of these, CCA and the GEO Group, posting revenues of more than \$1.6 billion each in 2011.⁶⁶³ The use of prison labor in such facilities – which provide manufacturing, call centers, recycling programs, and other services to private sector clients, including many federal prime contractors⁶⁶⁴ – poses a significant risk for forced labor in federal supply chains under international law. For prisoner labor in such facilities to be deemed voluntary, they would need to approximate wage rates, safety standards, and benefits of the private marketplace. Journalists and prison watchdog organizations have noted that federal prisoners typically receive sub-market wages and fail to receive the basic workplace safety protections they are afforded by law or benefit from Social Security contributions.⁶⁶⁵

Forced prison labor overseas: The US has a record of opposition to the use of forced labor in prisons overseas, particularly in the context of US trade relations with China and other countries with troubled human rights records. Chinese use of punitive work camps, in which prisoners are made to produce goods in poor conditions and sometimes under threat of torture, has drawn criticism from US advocacy groups and politicians for more than two decades, ever since the issue came to US public attention in the early 1990s, when a letter pleading for help was smuggled into a US-bound shipment of artificial flowers by a Chinese political prisoner in a work camp.⁶⁶⁶ Chinese use of prison labor continues to be cited in discussions of Chinese human rights abuses and US-China trade, even following a 2013 announcement by the Chinese government that it was abolishing the so-called “Re-education Through Labour” system, with observers noting that many existing prisons are simply being re-named “rehabilitation” centers.⁶⁶⁷ Watchdog organizations such as the Laogai Research Foundation have helped publicize first-hand accounts by survivors of these facilities, some of whom have documented being forced to produce goods destined for US markets, in violation of US and Chinese trade agreements.⁶⁶⁸ The Department of Labor’s TVPRA List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor includes eleven products known to be made by trafficking victims in China, but as such accounts attest, such goods do make their way into US markets, and potentially into federal supply chains.⁶⁶⁹ Goods reportedly made with Chinese prison labor include garments, footwear, nails, toys, electronics, cotton, coal, holiday decorations, artificial flowers and umbrellas. While it is not known to what extent these products are exported, according to a report from the US- China Economic and Security Review Commission, a 2008 US diplomatic cable specifically noted that artificial flowers, holiday decorations, shoes, garments and umbrellas produced in prisons are marketed for export by middlemen.⁶⁷⁰ Construction materials, widely procured by the federal government may also be tainted by prison labor. The Laogai Research Foundation reported in 2011, a Canadian construction company imported construction materials from a factory known to use prison labor.⁶⁷¹

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Transportation and Warehousing

This sector report includes transport service workers, transport equipment manufacturing, as well as warehousing services. This report does not address the labor involved in producing the components of transport equipment. For information on the human trafficking risks associated with producing these components, see the sector reports: [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#) and [Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing](#).

This sector has the following risk factors:

- ☒ Hazardous/undesirable work
- ☒ Vulnerable, easily replaced, and/or low-skilled workforce
- ☒ Migrant workforce
- ☒ Presence of labor contractors, recruiters, agents or other middlemen in labor supply chain

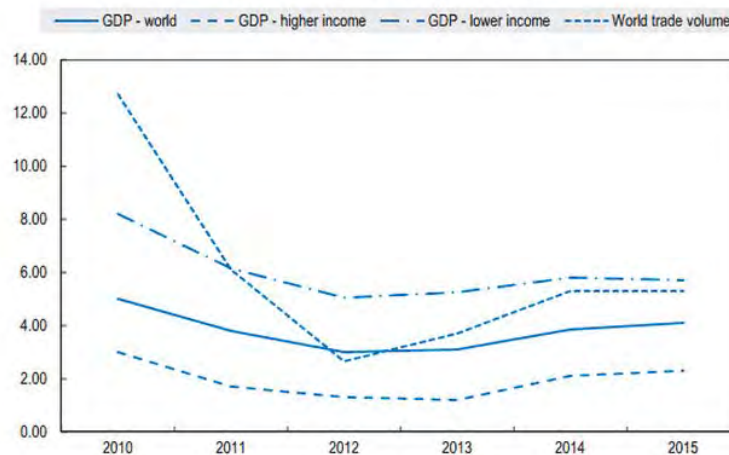
Overview of the Transportation and Warehousing Sector:

The transportation and warehousing sector includes land, air, and sea passenger and freight cargo services, warehousing of goods, as well as auto vehicle, train, ship, and aircraft manufacturing. The transportation industry also encompasses personnel employed in train and bus stations, ports, and airports.

Economy:

According to Plunkett Research, in 2013 “core transportation” revenues in the United States totaled \$950.6 billion, about six percent of economic activity. Worldwide revenues were estimated at \$4.5 trillion in 2013.⁶⁷²

Figure 1.1. GDP and trade growth, annual % change
2010–2012: observed, 2013–2015: expected



Source: OECD Economic Outlook 93, May 2013, Table 1.1; IMF World Economic Outlook, Update July 2013, Table 1; World Bank Global Economic Prospects, June 2013, Table 1.

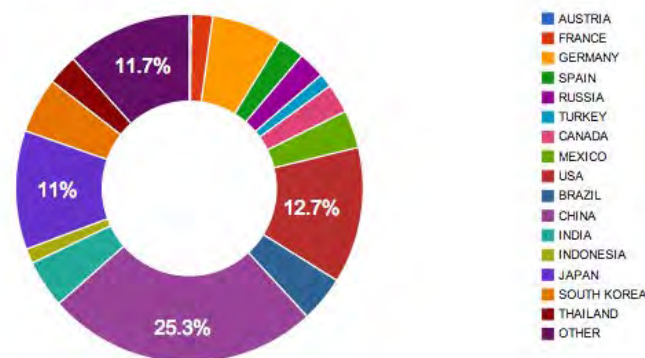
Transport sector growth depends heavily on national economic activity, including national GDP growth and global trade volumes. In the recovery from the 2008 global economic crisis, maritime freight output increased by four percent to 42.8 billion tons per mile after 2009, surpassing pre-recession volumes by 19 percent. Airfreight, while recovering in 2010, experienced 1.5 percent negative growth between 2012 and 2013 to about 180 billion tons per kilometer, mirroring weak growth in developed economies. Rail and road freight both declined significantly after 2009 and have yet to fully recover: between 2010 and 2011,

rail freight increased by three percent and road freight increased by one percent, with neither industry yet reaching pre-recession levels.⁶⁷³

Trends in auto vehicle use have altered in the past decade in both developed and emerging markets. Car use in developed markets such as France and Germany had slowed, while in the United States, United Kingdom, and Japan, growth is actually currently negative. This pattern may be explained by a combination of demographic factors such as population decline, increased urbanization, and tendencies to begin families later in life, economic factors such as higher inequality, high gasoline and other associated costs, or difficult conditions for younger generations, and policy- and technology-related factors such as competitive public transit options, decreased demand due to internet and telecommunications access.⁶⁷⁴ By contrast, in emerging markets such as Brazil, India, and China, auto vehicle use has generally grown in line with national GDP, expanding dramatically in the last decade. In 2007, emerging markets accounted for only 30 percent of global profit in the automotive industry, while in 2012 they accounted for almost 60 percent. China alone accounted for half of emerging market profits.⁶⁷⁵

Internationally, auto production is relatively diffuse over a large number of countries. China accounts for the largest portion, producing slightly over a quarter of global output; additional output from Japan, the United States, and Germany accounts for slightly more than half of total global output.⁶⁷⁶ In the United States, auto manufacturing is concentrated primarily in the mid-western and southern states of Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, and Alabama.⁶⁷⁷

Global Auto Manufacturing



Source: *Organisation Internationale des Constructeurs d'Automobiles (OICA). "2013 Production Statistics: World Motor Vehicles Production by Country."* 2013.
<http://www.oica.net/category/production-statistics/>;
<http://www.oica.net/wp-content/uploads//total-2013-2.pdf>

Unlike auto manufacturing, the ship and aircraft manufacturing industries are relatively concentrated geographically. The United States itself is a major exporter of aerospace aircraft and equipment, which represents an industry worth \$184.29 billion, employing about 493,600 people in early 2013.⁶⁷⁸ The United States sources the bulk of its aerospace imports from France, Canada, Japan, the United Kingdom, and Germany.⁶⁷⁹ In shipbuilding, manufacturing is dominated by China, Korea, and Japan, with China achieving top market share in the past ten years.⁶⁸⁰

Ships, automotive vehicles, and aircraft are generally composed of similar materials. Modern cars and trucks are primarily composed of low-carbon steel, high-medium strength steel, polymer and composite materials, aluminum, and other materials including magnesium and other metals.⁶⁸¹ Ships and aircraft also contain steel, aluminum, magnesium, and alloys made from these metals, as well as titanium and copper

alloys, transparent and reinforced plastic, and composite and carbon fiber materials.⁶⁸² In addition to carbon, steel alloys used in manufacturing may contain small percentages of nickel, chromium, vanadium, and molybdenum.⁶⁸³ Please see the [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Processing](#) sector report and individual metal commodity reports for more information on the risks associated with these metals.

Shipbreaking, often a forgotten industry in the transportation sector, is a vital part of the life cycle of the largest pieces of transportation equipment. Shipbreaking occurs mainly in India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and China. Environmental and occupational safety regulations are less strict in South Asia, which is why European ship owners tend to dispose of their ships there.⁶⁸⁴ In 2012, there were a record one thousand ships scrapped worldwide. Of these, India's shipbreaking industry scrapped 527. The shipbreaking companies pay around \$400 per ton for ships that are made of high-quality steel. Nine percent of India's demand for steel is met by recycled steel from ships.⁶⁸⁵

Workforce:

Occupations within the transportation sector encompass both manufacturing and transport service personnel.

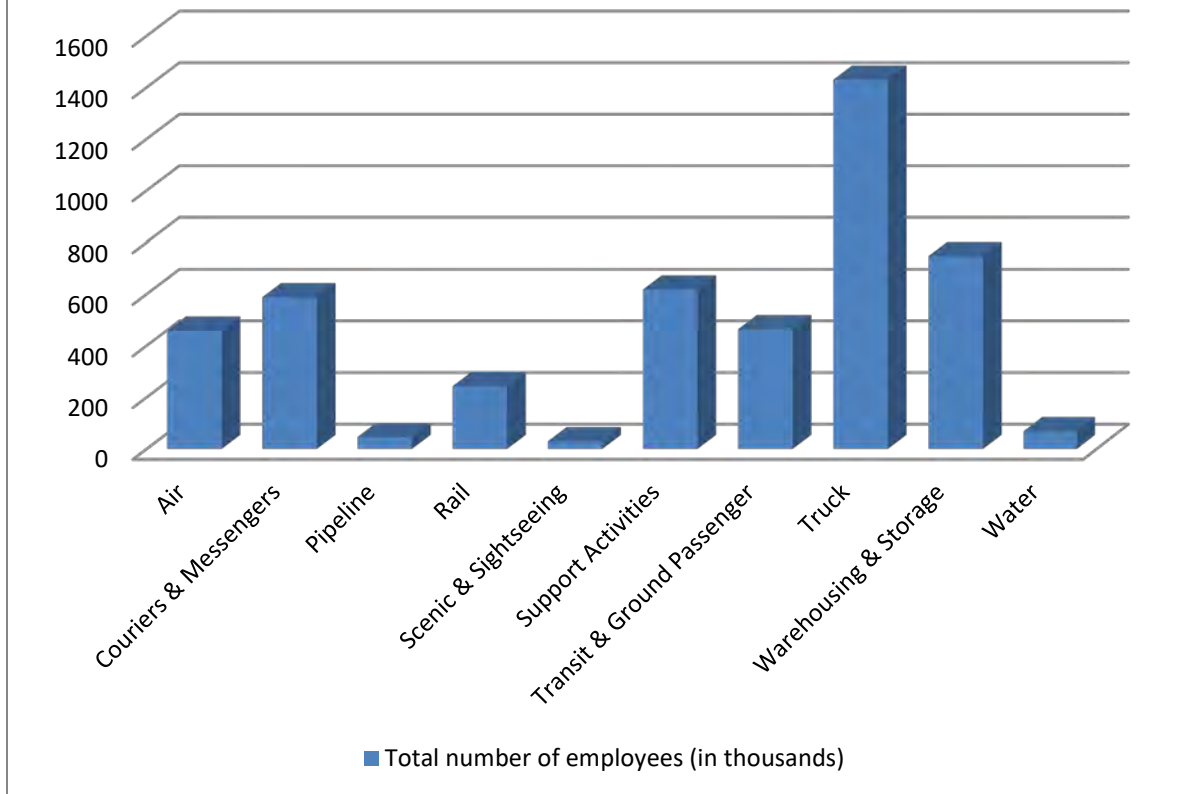
Occupations within transportation equipment manufacturing encompass aircraft and aerospace, ship, railroad, and auto manufacturing production workers. In December 2014, there were 1,573,400 employees in transportation equipment manufacturing in the United States.¹³ By occupation, in 2013 there were 30,490 aerospace engineers, 48,730 machinists, 33,260 mechanical engineers, 248,980 team assemblers, and 49,510 welders, cutters, solderers, and brazers.⁶⁸⁶ Unionization in these industries is not uncommon, although at lower levels than for transport service providers: in 2013, an estimated 10.1 percent of United States manufacturing employees belonged to a union.⁶⁸⁷

Due to its highly technical nature, the manufacture of transportation equipment is a relatively skilled, highly-paid activity, with workers generally hired directly by employers. United States transportation manufacturing workers had average wages of over \$29/hour as of December 2014, which was significantly higher than service workers in the transportation and warehousing sector, who made an average of over \$22/hour during the same period.⁶⁸⁸ Because of the high level of wages and skilled nature of the workforce, transportation equipment manufacturers are not generally at risk for TIP, and are not a focus of this report.

Transport service workers may include bus or private drivers, train or metro conductors, aircraft or ferry pilots, freight cargo movers, station attendants, dockworkers, and supporting personnel. Generally, these occupations are generally low-skilled and do not require an advanced degree, although some workers may possess important technical training. Transportation workers have a relatively high degree of union representation by contemporary US standards: in 2013, an estimated 19.6 percent of transportation and material-moving employees were unionized in the US, higher than the 6.7 percent private sector national average.⁶⁸⁹

¹³ The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics classifies the transportation equipment manufacturing under the manufacturing sector, not under transportation.

Number of Employees in the Transportation Sector in the United States, December 2014



Source: Verite, using data from the US Bureau of Labor Statistics
<http://www.bls.gov/iag/tgs/iag48-49.htm>

The above graph shows the breakdown of transportation employees in the United States in December 2014. By far the most transportation employees work in truck transportation (1.4 million), which includes the following occupations: bus and truck mechanics and diesel engine specialists; first-line supervisors/managers of transportation and material-moving machine and vehicle operators; laborers and freight, stock, and material movers; heavy and tractor-trailer truck drivers; and light truck drivers or delivery services.⁶⁹⁰

As of December 2014 there were 746,600 workers employed in the warehousing and storage industry in the US. Specific warehousing jobs include industrial truck and tractor operators; laborers and freight, stock and material movers; shipping, receiving, and traffic clerks; stock clerks and order fillers; and transportation, storage, and distribution managers.⁶⁹¹

Other subsets of the transportation and warehousing sector include support activities for transportation, such as aircraft mechanics and service technicians; cargo and freight agents; dispatchers; and freight, stock, and material movers; employment within the industry was 617,000 in December 2014.⁶⁹² The couriers and messengers subsector employs an additional 587,300 workers in the United States,⁶⁹³ while employment within the United States air transportation subsector, including pilots, flight attendants, and ticket agents, was 457,800.⁶⁹⁴ Employment in the transit and ground passenger transportation subsector was 463,300 workers in the United States.⁶⁹⁵ The majority of these jobs are nonsupervisory positions.⁶⁹⁶

Risks to Human Trafficking in this Sector:

The United States Department of State 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report noted clear evidence of human trafficking in the transportation sector in the following countries: Cameroon, Finland, and Qatar.⁶⁹⁷ This is almost certainly an incomplete list.

Hazardous/Undesirable Work:

Drivers and other operators of transportation equipment experience long hours and are often required to work overnight. These workers are also at risk of being in transportation accidents. Operators and warehouse employees often have to lift and carry heavy objects and are therefore at risk of injury. According to the United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, hand laborers and freight, stock, and material movers are among the occupations with the highest rates of injury and illness. Twelve percent of all workplace deaths in the US involve truckers.⁶⁹⁸ Mechanics, and in some instances operators, are might be exposed to harmful chemicals and dangerous machinery.⁶⁹⁹

According to OSHA, the fatal injury rate for workers in warehouses is higher than the national average for workers in all industries. Potential hazards include injuries from forklifts and other heavy machinery, being crushed by falling materials, falling off docks, injury from conveyor belts, repetitive lifting of heavy loads, chemical exposure, and fires and explosions.⁷⁰⁰ Warehouses can be extremely hot and employers often pressure workers to perform at high speeds. Investigations into working conditions of outsourced warehouse workers have found that workers in warehouses often face underpayment of wages and lack of pay for overtime.⁷⁰¹

Seafaring transport workers face particular vulnerabilities. Workers are often at sea for long periods of time, with no opportunity to leave. On vessels, workers face conditions similar to those facing fishing workers: poor weather conditions, a constantly moving work environment, and distance from medical care. Workers can be crushed by heavy cargo or machinery, or caught or entangled in mooring lines. While on vessels, transport workers are exposed to sun and salt water without protective clothing, slippery/moving work surfaces, hazardous chemicals, strong vibrations from the ship's engines, large waves, inadequate sleeping quarters, inadequate sanitation, and a lack of fresh food and water. In the event that someone becomes ill while on board a vessel, it can be difficult to seek medical care in a timely manner. Navigation failures leading to collisions or shipwrecks are also a risk.⁷⁰² Many vessels are old and in poor repair.⁷⁰³

The ship breaking industry in India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan has raised particular concern surrounding environmental hazards and worker safety since the 1990s. In 2004, the ILO issued a report on ship breaking, hoping to formalize this predominantly informal industry. It voiced many causes for concern: 20-30 year-old ships containing heavy metals, asbestos, PCBs, and other toxic chemicals; workers unprotected by labor law; "casual, contract, or migrant" laborers; lack of access to proper waste disposal; and the alarming frequency of worker injuries and fatalities, among others.⁷⁰⁴ In 2010, a World Bank report concluded that there existed "widespread varying contamination" in ship breaking yards in Chittagong, Bangladesh, and "less contamination" in Gadani, Pakistan, both of which violated the 2009 Hong Kong Convention on ship recycling.⁷⁰⁵ Workers wear no protective equipment and often no shoes, leaving them vulnerable to toxic waste in oil, paint, and cargo material. Local Bangladeshi nonprofits claim that in Chittagong, on average, a worker is injured daily and one worker dies per week.⁷⁰⁶ In the year 2011 alone, at least 20 shipyard workers died and 150 were injured in Pakistan.⁷⁰⁷

Although there are no other indicators of human trafficking among airline pilots and staff, the International Transport Workers Federation reports extremely high levels of overtime, leading to safety concerns.⁷⁰⁸

Vulnerable, Easily Replaced, and/or Low-Skilled Workforce:

Because of the commonsensical association of transportation work with movement of goods and people, it may seem that transportation workers enjoy an inherent measure of control over their own freedom of movement, and hence are not as vulnerable to trafficking as workers in some other sectors. This may be true for some drivers, although, as noted above, the sector encompasses many other kinds of labor other than driving. Even for drivers, however, the economic conditions in which they labor may exacerbate their vulnerability to exploitation and abuse by employers, including trafficking.

Transportation and goods-delivery is characterized by part-time, low paid work. The transport sector in the United States was deregulated in the 1980s; since then, real wages for truckers have fallen 30 percent.⁷⁰⁹ The pressure that large retailers exert on their suppliers to provide goods at extremely low price points creates downward pressure on transport workers across all levels of the industry.

Transport workers such as truck drivers are also often misclassified as independent contractors. Workers misclassified as independent contractors are vulnerable to forced overtime, they lack access to grievance mechanisms, have few legal protections, and are therefore more vulnerable to exploitation. This classification exempts them from protections including the Fair Labor Standards Act and allows their employers – generally third party logistics suppliers (see below) – to make improper wage deductions. In southern California, hundreds of truck drivers recently filed legal cases alleging that because they were misclassified as independent contractors rather than employees, they did not receive overtime wages and other protections guaranteed to employees.⁷¹⁰ Truck drivers are often required to pay for costs of truck maintenance, gas and tires, as well as any collision costs, even when they do not own the trucks they drive. These deductions can cause truck drivers to earn well below the minimum wage.⁷¹¹

Reflecting low levels of regulation in many countries, children are often exploited in more informal forms of transportation work. In Nepal, for example, approximately one percent of boy laborers are employed in the transportation sector, primarily in Kathmandu, where they work as touts on informal public transport vehicles, ferrying loads with rickshaws or bicycles, and other forms of labor.⁷¹² In 2012, World Education surveyed child transport workers in Kathmandu to determine sources and potential solutions to this problem. It found that while in some cases child transport workers had taken work due to family indebtedness, food insecurity was much more common: nearly two-thirds of child transport workers reported that their households did not have enough food during the year. Poverty in Nepal has led to difficulties in tracking and eradicating child labor: nearly one third of child transport workers had never had their birth registered with the government, and over half of child transport workers reported having migrated from a different district. Child labor is more likely to be used on small vehicles going short distances, rather than on larger vehicles traveling longer distances, where law enforcement officials and employers have been more aware of the problem.⁷¹³ In Kenya, children are similarly engaged in informal transportation, where they carry heavy loads and are exposed to traffic accidents.⁷¹⁴ In Cameroon, children operate commercial motorcycles, often without licenses.⁷¹⁵

The rights of seafaring transport workers can be particularly difficult to safeguard. Outside of a nation's "exclusive economic zone" (the 200 mile strip of ocean adjacent to the shoreline), vessels are generally governed by the laws of the country in which they are registered, or their "flag state." Under the practice known as "flags of convenience," shipping vessels may be registered in countries with no meaningful link to their operations, including in countries with severely limited interest or capacity to enforce labor-related laws on vessels flying their flag.⁷¹⁶ Under this practice, shipping transport workers are particularly vulnerable to abuse, abandonment, and trafficking. Workers on abandoned ships may be left without food, water, fuel or pay by boat owners. If an abandoned vessel tries to dock at a foreign port to seek assistance, the workers may be denied entry or be forcibly repatriated without access to redress to seek months or years of unpaid wages. Workers are also vulnerable to arrest and detention by foreign nations if vessels

are in maritime waters without proper legal authorization – a situation over which workers themselves typically have no control.⁷¹⁷

Workers in the shipbreaking sector in Bangladesh are highly vulnerable. Most workers are young, and half are estimated to be illiterate. Child labor is rampant. The shipbreaking industry in Bangladesh is centered north of Chittagong, where families have very few other livelihood alternatives. Workers and their families do not receive compensation for injuries or death.⁷¹⁸ Shipbreaking work is unskilled and workers receive little training. For this reason, workers have little leverage against their employers, and are easily replaced.

Migrant Workforce:

In the US, Latino workers are overrepresented in temporary and contingent work forces employed by staffing agencies that supply outsourced workers in transportation and warehouse sectors.⁷¹⁹ Immigrant workers in the US enter the production, transportation, and material moving sectors in higher numbers than native-born workers (15.4 percent to 11.1 percent).⁷²⁰ Immigrant workers are also more likely to be employed as hand packers and packagers than native-born workers: 17 percent of immigrants in the sector are in packaging compared to only five percent of native-born workers.⁷²¹ According to the Teamster Port Division, most of the immigrant drivers in Oakland, California are East Indian, drivers in Los Angeles are generally from Central America and Mexico, and the immigrant drivers in Miami are often Cuban.⁷²²

The transportation sector of the European Union also employs a large proportion of immigrant labor. The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work reported that immigrant transport labor is more likely to be employed in unsanitary, dangerous, and demanding work, characterized by uncertainty, poor working conditions, part time employment, and low wages. In the transport sector, immigrants may find employment performing long-distance trucking, baggage handling in airports, and low-skilled rail and ship service work.⁷²³ In the United Kingdom, the proportion of immigrants entering precarious, low-wage positions has also increased, from 8.5 percent in 2002 to 25.3 percent in 2012.⁷²⁴

Presence of Labor Contractors, Recruiters, Agents or Other Middlemen in Labor Supply Chain:

Large corporations and retailers are increasingly outsourcing warehousing, transportation and delivery operations to logistics management companies, as these functions are not considered “core competencies.”⁷²⁵ These third-party logistics firms work with shippers to manage the logistics of their operations, including warehousing and transportation management.⁷²⁶ The logistics management companies generally further sub-contract labor supply to employment agencies or use independent contractors.⁷²⁷ Although the retailer or company may set the terms of working conditions through managers on site, there is no direct relationship between the worker at the bottom of the chain and the company – creating vulnerability for exploitation. Transportation workers employed by outsourced logistics firms report higher rates of core labor violations than those employed by direct arrangements, with Latinos being disproportionately outsourced compared to workers of other ethnicities.⁷²⁸

The system of logistics outsourcing and subsequent labor sub-contracting has created a particular vulnerability for warehouse workers. Warehouse workers move goods from shipping containers into warehouses, and load trucks with goods for delivery to retail stores.⁷²⁹ In the massive warehouse complexes surrounding the southern California Ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach, where many Chinese goods enter the United States market for distribution to retailers, most workers are employed by temporary employment agencies even if they have worked in a warehouse for years, and are therefore not eligible for benefits, making only minimum wage.⁷³⁰ The National Employment Law Project has documented that sub-contracted workers such as these routinely face low wages, labor violations and fraudulent pay practices.⁷³¹ In some cases, warehouse workers in the US are hired through agents of intermediaries known as “raiteros,” who charge workers for transport from their housing to work, deducting fees from worker pay checks.⁷³² Although ostensibly only providing transportation for a

population of vulnerable, predominantly migrant workers, these raiteros also distribute pay checks and determine which workers have work on any given day.⁷³³

The majority of seafaring transport workers are also hired through labor brokers or employment agencies.⁷³⁴ Jobs in this sector are often seen as desirable and a step into the formal economy for workers in developing countries. This encourages the practice of paying bribes or fees to secure jobs, leaving workers indebted to their recruiters. Workers may work without contracts, or even without pay, for up to several years for the employment agency itself, in an effort to secure a job. Salaries are often much lower than promised, and it is common for recruitment agencies to take deductions from wages. Because recruitment agencies dominate hiring in the sector, workers are often fearful of reporting grievances, for fear of being blacklisted.⁷³⁵

In the Gulf States, low- and semi-skilled workers are subjected to human trafficking in the transportation and dock-working industries among other sectors.⁷³⁶ These workers, primarily migrants from the Philippines, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Nepal, are recruited via employment agencies and must pay fees to acquire their jobs, for which they take out burdensome loans. Upon arrival in the host country, they are paid less than promised, leaving them indebted.⁷³⁷ Identity documents are commonly withheld, and workers are tied to their employers on the terms of their visa.

Migrant workers recruited by labor agents are used in docks in wealthy countries such as Singapore, which handles one-sixth of the world's cargo.⁷³⁸ Workers from Thailand, Bangladesh, China, Malaysia, Indonesia, the Philippines and Burma load and unload cargo and repair ships and containers.⁷³⁹ Singapore has no minimum wage for migrant workers, and many arrive indebted to labor recruiters.⁷⁴⁰

Federal Procurement in the Transportation and Warehousing Sector:¹⁴

Transportation of both passengers and things is procured by virtually all federal agencies, with agencies responsible for facilitating or carrying out complex logistical operations being the largest spenders. Unsurprisingly, spending is led by USTRANSCOM. Other significant procurers of transportation include the Departments of the Army, Navy, and Air Force, USAID, FAS, and the State Department. Transportation is often also bundled into large logistics management and support contracts, particularly overseas (see the [Federal Procurement of Large Logistics Management Contracts](#) pullout box for more information).

In FY2013, the US Government spent approximately \$4.73 billion on passenger travel (PSC V21% and V22%, excluding V227, V228), mostly in contracts greater than \$10 million for charter air service, but with many contracts for far smaller amounts and other modes of travel as well.

Positive direct federal expenditure on transportation of things in FY2013 amounted to \$5.30 billion (PSC V1%), not including the launching of guided missiles and space vehicles. Of this, \$3.42 billion was spent overseas, almost all of which (\$3.13 billion) was spent in contracts greater than or equal to \$500,000, requiring compliance scrutiny under the Executive Order.

The US spent \$203 million in direct expenditures on warehousing in FY2013.

¹⁴ All federal procurement data is drawn from the Federal Procurement Data System (<https://www.fpds.gov/>). Because there is no seamless interface between the economic sectors discussed in this report and the way the Federal Government tracks categories of contract spending, many numbers presented in this analysis are derived from composites. PSC codes and or NAICS numbers have been provided for relevant search categories.

Procurement of Transportation Equipment:*

Procurement of transportation equipment represents perhaps the single most significant component of the United States federal spend. As noted above, the skilled the manufacturing workers who produce finished transportation equipment are not generally at risk for human trafficking, but the electronics (see the [Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing](#) sector report), metals (see the [Extractives/Mining and Basic Metal Production](#) sector report) and other raw materials inputs that go into the making of such products raise many trafficking concerns for United States supply chains.



In FY2013, the United States Government spent approximately \$78.14 billion on aircraft, space vehicles, ships, trains, trucks, cars, associated components, and launching/ground handling equipment. The largest purchases in this category were made by defense agencies like the Navy, Army, and Air Force, with a dozen contracts in excess of a billion dollars granted by these agencies in FY2013.

Contracts related to the purchase of aircraft and ships accounted for the bulk of new federal spending in this category (\$63.42 billion). Other significant transportation equipment purchases in FY2013 included space vehicles (\$2.97 billion), tanks (\$1.26 billion), and wheeled combat/assault/tactical vehicles (\$1.64 billion).

Light trucks and passenger cars are procured by a wide range of federal agencies, amounting to \$1.24 billion in FY2013. Most car purchases are made through the General Services Administration's Federal Acquisition Service, which sources cars from US-based commercial car dealerships. The FAS bought \$1.03 billion in passenger vehicles in FY2013.

Overseas procurement of transportation equipment was a relatively small component of total spending in this category, at \$1.44 billion (<2 percent of total spending on transportation equipment) in FY2013. \$1.25 billion of this overseas spending was on contracts greater than \$500,000, making them subject to compliance scrutiny under the EO. As with domestic spending in this sector, large overseas contracts were dominated by purchases of aircraft and other heavy military equipment. Many smaller overseas contracts were for passenger cars and engine parts.

* Figures for procurement of transportation equipment were compiled using the following PSC codes: Aircraft, Space Vehicles, Ships, Trains, Motor Vehicles, Associated Components, and Launching/Ground Handling Equipment = composite of PSC codes 15%-20%, 22%, 23%, 25%, 26%, and 28% -31%); Space Vehicles = PSC 1810; Tanks = PSC 2350; Wheeled Combat/Assault/Tactical Vehicles = PSC 2355; Light trucks and passenger cars = PSC 2310.

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Commodities Introduction

This report presents narratives on 43 of the world's most important primary commodities. To produce these reports for each primary commodity, a multitude of data was assembled on global production and trade patterns (principal countries of production and consumption, and export-import data for key producers, importers, and the United States), reports of forced labor and/or child labor¹⁵ associated with the commodity, and the names of any countries in which trafficking-related problems have been reported in association with the commodity. Using the general information assembled as a starting point, each key commodity was then researched in depth, with the findings compiled into comprehensive commodity analyses. Thus, each individual commodity report provides background on the production patterns and labor practices involved in the specific industry in question. Each report also describes the connection, if any, between the commodity and forced labor and/or child labor. When available, case studies are provided of documented instances of human trafficking in the industry. The following reports also describe the structure of the supply chain for each commodity and any links to other supply chains for which the commodity is a key input, and review any government or industry initiatives that exist to reduce human trafficking in conjunction with the commodity in question. In the case of some commodities, no cases of human trafficking have been documented. In these commodity reports, efforts were made only to describe supply chain dynamics and general labor practices, to the degree that information was available. Therefore, these reports do not constitute a definitive list of commodities tainted by human trafficking.

Given data limitations, it was necessary to examine other indicators, and one key indicator of risk that was used was the incidence of child labor. Child labor can vary considerably from sector to sector, country to country, and household to household, and it is not human trafficking *per se*. For these purposes, however, child labor may provide an indicator of risk for forced labor, given that the drivers for both may be similar, such as demand for cheap, exploitable, unskilled labor, poverty, unequal access to education, and exclusionary social attitudes based on caste, gender, immigration status, or ethnicity. That said, description of child labor risk in the commodity reports should not be used exclusively to evaluate the risk of trafficking in a supply chain, but should instead be understood as providing additional context.

¹⁵ ¹⁵ For purposes of this document, “child labor” refers to youth under the age of 18 who are working in violation of international child labor standards, specifically, the International Labor Organization (ILO) Conventions No. 182 and 138. The term “child labor” in U.S. domestic law is distinct and mention below of “child labor” is not an indication of any violation of U.S. law.

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Bamboo



Bamboo is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export bamboo worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports bamboo (UN Comtrade 2012):
Burma (FL, CL)	1. Netherlands	1. China
<i>Bamboo Goods:</i>	2. China	2. Argentina
Vietnam (FL)	3. Pakistan	3. France
	4. Ethiopia	4. Hong Kong
	5. Thailand	5. Netherlands
	6. Indonesia	6. Vietnam
	7. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified)	7. Colombia
	8. Hong Kong	8. Japan
	9. Italy	9. Thailand
	10. Germany	10. Brunei Darussalam

Where is bamboo reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, bamboo is produced with forced and child labor in Burma.¹⁶ Other sources report that bamboo goods are made with forced labor in Vietnam.¹⁷ Burma is listed as Tier 2 Watch List country in the 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, while Vietnam is listed as Tier 2.¹⁸

¹⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

¹⁷ International Labor Rights Forum (ILRF). "End Forced Labor in Vietnam." June 18, 2013. <http://www.laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/changing-global-trade-rules/state-sponsored-forced-labor-in-vietnam-drug->

¹⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report: Burma*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/243558.pdf>
U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report: Vietnam*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/243562.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in bamboo production look like?

In April 2012, the Burmese army demanded that residents of four villages in Burma produce 5,000 bamboo poles and more than 20,000 thatch shingles. When the villagers deliberately provided less than what was ordered they were confronted by armed soldiers. The villagers requested payment and were denied.¹⁹

In Vietnam, detainees are reportedly forced to work under harsh conditions for little or no pay to produce goods and manufacture products made from wood, bamboo, and rattan. These detainees consist of men, women, and children who are being held without a trial for suspicion of illegal drug use.²⁰

Case Study:

Labor trafficking in Rural Villages in Burma

A 40 year-old male labor worker in the Buthidaung Township, when interviewed by researchers from The Arakan Project, reported:

“For the last couple of years the Pirkhali Army camp has ordered villages in our area to supply them with 300,000 bamboo poles each. Last year, the Army paid 5,000 Kyat for 100 pieces, when the market price was between 18,000 and 25,000 Kyat depending on size and quality. My family had to supply 600 poles. Finding bamboo in the hills was not easy because few were left after the flowering and rat infestation. During the dry season there was no water in the stream so I had to carry them on my shoulders. It took 14 days to collect 600 bamboo poles, cut them and carry them and I finally received 30,000 Kyat [about \$40]. The Army claims that they need logs and bamboo poles for their own use but they use only a few and sell huge quantities to traders. This is one of their businesses. This year they again ordered another 300,000 bamboo poles. We do not know where we will find them as not many are left in the hills.”²¹

Bamboo Production and Supply Chain:

After cutting down the trees for harvest, the branches are removed and culms are cut to desired lengths. Starch and gummy substances can be removed at this initial stage. Then, depending on the end-product, a primary processing step like splitting or bending the culms is done. For certain products, the bamboo parts are subjected to a secondary process of bleaching or dyeing. The products are finished in a variety of ways, including lacquering, smoking, and sanding.²² As it renews itself in much less time than a

¹⁹ Karen Human Rights Group (KHRG). *Forced Labour in Bilin Township*. May 31, 2012.

http://www.khrg.org/sites/default/files/khrg12b50_0.pdf

²⁰ International Labor Rights Forum (ILRF). “End Forced Labor in Vietnam.” June 18, 2013.

<http://www.laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/changing-global-trade-rules/state-sponsored-forced-labor-in-vietnam-drug->

²¹ The Arakan Project. *Forced Labour After the Elections: An Overview of Forced Labour Practices in North Arakan, Burma*. July 2011. http://www.burmalibrary.org/docs12/AP-Forced_labour_after_the_elections-2011-08-22.pdf

²² Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO). *Local Tools and Equipment Technologies for Processing Bamboo and Rattan, Asia*. June 18, 2013. <http://teca.fao.org/read/3877>

traditional hardwood forest, bamboo can provide a sustainable option to combat increasing energy demands, deforestation and water scarcity.²³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in bamboo production affect me?



Bamboo is used in clothing, bedding, food, and building materials.²⁴ The United States and Europe are the biggest importers of bamboo. Much of the bamboo trade is done in an informal setting, making it difficult to get accurate trade data, but it is projected that the U.S. and Europe import nearly 80 percent of the world market.²⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The ILO reported in 1998 that the use of forced labor in Burma was widespread. The ILO temporarily reduced Burma's membership capabilities after the country did not implement the ILO's recommendations for improving legislation and practice. In June 2012, the ILO Conference publicized that both Burma and the ILO jointly decided upon a strategy to combat forced labor.²⁶

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) more about reported forced labor in Vietnamese detention centers.

²³ International Network for Bamboo and Rattan. "Green Growth in Africa." May, 24 2013. <http://www.inbar.int/2013/05/green-growth-in-africa/>

²⁴ Bamboo Grove. "General Uses For Bamboo." June 18, 2013. <http://www.bamboogrove.com/general-uses-for-bamboo.html>

²⁵ Muller, Inga and Camille Rebelo. *Bamboo Worldwide: The Current Market & Future Potential*. 2010. http://www.ecoplanetbamboo.net/files/bamboo_worldwide.pdf

²⁶ International Labor Organization (ILO). "ILO Lifts Restrictions on Myanmar." June 13, 2012. http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_183287/lang--en/index.htm

Bananas



Bananas are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce bananas worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export bananas worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports bananas (UN Comtrade 2012):
Belize (CL) Ecuador (CL) Nicaragua (CL) The Philippines (CL)	1. India 2. China 3. The Philippines 4. Ecuador 5. Brazil 6. Indonesia 7. Angola 8. Guatemala 9. Tanzania 10. Mexico	1. Ecuador 2. The Philippines 3. Guatemala 4. Costa Rica 5. Colombia 6. Belgium 7. United States 8. Côte d'Ivoire 9. Germany 10. France	1. Guatemala 2. Ecuador 3. Costa Rica 4. Honduras 5. Colombia 6. Mexico 7. Panama 8. Nicaragua 9. Peru 10. Dominican Republic

Where are bananas reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*,²⁷ bananas are reportedly produced with child labor in Belize, Ecuador, Nicaragua, and the Philippines. According to the 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Belize is a Tier 3 country, and Ecuador, Nicaragua and the Philippines are Tier 2 countries.²⁸

²⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRA_Report2014.pdf

²⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in banana production look like?

On banana plantations, child labor often occurs when children accompany their parents to the plantations to assist their parents or to supplement family income. This is especially common in areas where prices for bananas are extremely low.²⁹ Children of poor, indigenous, or otherwise vulnerable or marginalized families may be at heightened risk.

Banana production is pesticide intensive because of the mono-culture nature of production.³⁰ One such pesticide that is used in banana production is chlorpyrifos. The use of this pesticide poses a risk to children as it is a neurotoxin.³¹ Chlorpyrifos can cause nausea, lung congestion, chest pain, dizziness, respiratory paralysis and death.³² Children are especially sensitive to chlorpyrifos toxicity.

Case Study:

Child Labor on Ecuadorian Banana Plantations

In 2002, Human Rights Watch (HRW) released the *Tainted Harvest* report that exposed child labor on Ecuadorian banana plantations. Of the forty-five children they interviewed, forty-one of them started working on banana plantations between the ages of eight and 13. They were forced to work in hazardous conditions for 12 hour workdays and they only earned wages roughly equal to USD 3.50, only 60 percent of the minimum wage. These children were exposed to pesticides without protective equipment, causing them to suffer headaches, fevers, dizziness, nausea, vomiting, trembling, itching, fatigue, aching bones, and burning nostrils. Tasks included carrying heavy loads and working with dangerous tools. They lacked access to potable water or restroom facilities, and sexual harassment was common. Less than 40 percent of the children interviewed were still in school.³³ Many families in Ecuador make less than USD 1 a day and need their children to work in order to help purchase food and clothing. Education becomes secondary for child laborers.³⁴

Banana Production and Supply Chain:

Bananas are grown from a bulb or rhizome. Over the course of nine to 12 months the plant develops into a tall herb. Bananas can typically only be harvested in equatorial regions. Once grown, banana bunches are very heavy and require more than one person to cut them down and carry them. A large number of manual laborers are required for harvesting.³⁵

²⁹ Forero, Juan. "In Ecuador's Banana Fields, Child Labor Is Key to Profits." *New York Times*. July 13, 2002.

<http://www.nytimes.com/2002/07/13/world/in-ecuador-s-banana-fields-child-labor-is-key-to-profits.html>

Medina, Andrei and GMA News. "Dole: Three Million Pinoy Child Workers Engaged in 'Hazardous Labor.'" *GMA News*. June 27, 2012. <http://www.gmanetwork.com/news/story/263274/news/nation/dole-three-million-pinoy-child-workers-engaged-in-hazardous-labor>

³⁰ Lunder, Sonya. *Banana Cultivation is Pesticide Intensive*. Environmental Working Group. April 28, 2014.

<http://www.ewg.org/enviroblog/2014/04/bananas>

³¹ Lunder, Sonya. *Banana Cultivation is Pesticide Intensive*. Environmental Working Group. April 28, 2014.

<http://www.ewg.org/enviroblog/2014/04/bananas>

³² Wilson, John S; Otsuki, Tsunehiro. *To Spray or Not to Spray: Pesticides, Banana Exports, and Food Safety*. World Bank. March 2002. <http://elibrary.worldbank.org/doi/pdf/10.1596/1813-9450-2805>

³³ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Tainted Harvest: Child Labor and Obstacles to Organizing on Ecuador's Banana Plantations*. April 2002. <http://www.hrw.org/reports/2002/ecuador/2002ecuador.pdf>

³⁴ Kelly, Annie. "Education Policy Needs to Fill the Gap in Ecuador's Child Labor Laws." *The Guardian*. May 26, 2011. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/global-development/poverty-matters/2011/may/26/education-policy-ecuador-child-labour-laws>

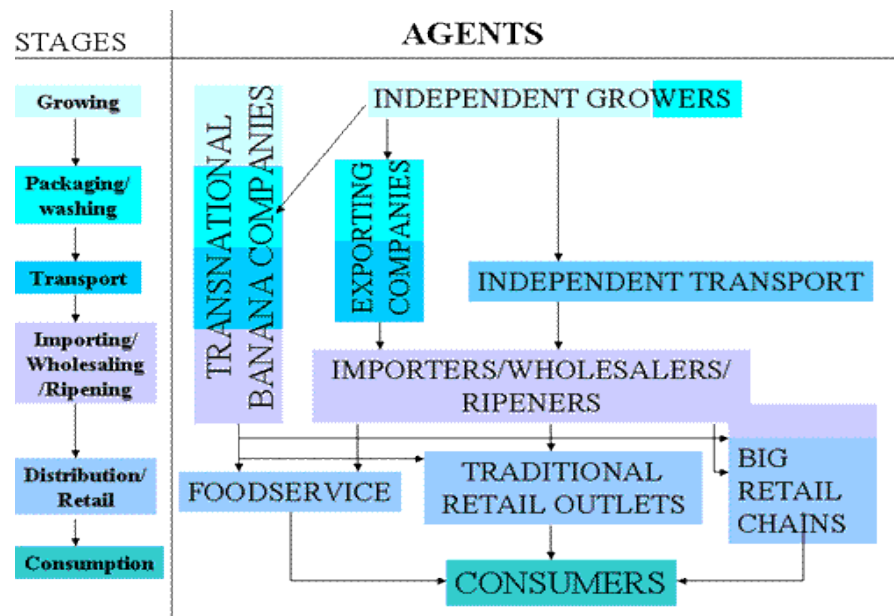
³⁵ UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Commodity Profile: Banana Uses*. 2012.

<http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Banana>

UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Agricultural Products: Banana Market*. 2011.

http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/Agricultural_Products/Banana/Market/

The majority of expenses in banana production go to packaging, fertilization, and pesticides for the product itself.



Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development.

“Commodity Profile: Banana Uses.”

<http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Banana/>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in banana production affect me?



Bananas are one of the top five fruits consumed worldwide. Bananas are used in baby food and as flavoring in food products, such as yogurt; they are consumed as banana flour and powder, banana juice, and banana alcohol.³⁶

³⁶ UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Commodity Profile: Banana Uses*. 2012.

<http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Banana>

UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Agricultural Products: Banana Market*. 2011.

http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/Agricultural_Products/Banana/Market/

According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA), each American eats an average of over 10 pounds of bananas each year.³⁷ Over 95 percent of the 9,589 million pounds of bananas that the U.S. imports were grown in Latin American nations.³⁸ In 2012, the top five countries exporting bananas to the United States were Guatemala, Ecuador, Costa Rica, Honduras, and Colombia.³⁹

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In Belize, public education that is free and mandatory has been implemented in conjunction with a cash transfer program to encourage children to attend school.⁴⁰

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) HRW's report on child labor in Ecuador.

³⁷ U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Bananas and Apples Remain America's Favorite Fresh Fruits*. 2012.

http://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/chart-gallery/detail.aspx?chartId=30486#.U9pDb_k8B8E

³⁸ Lunder, Sonya. *Banana Cultivation is Pesticide Intensive*. Environmental Working Group. April 28, 2014.

<http://www.ewg.org/enviroblog/2014/04/bananas>

³⁹ UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

⁴⁰ U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs. *2011 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. September 2012. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2011TDA.pdf>

Beans (green, soy, yellow) and Pulses (legumes)



Beans and pulses are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce beans and pulses worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export beans and pulses worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports beans and pulses (UN Comtrade 2012):
<p><i>Green Beans:</i> Burma (FL, CL) Mexico (CL)</p> <p><i>Soy Beans:</i> Burma (FL)</p> <p><i>Yellow Beans:</i> Burma (FL)</p> <p><i>Pulses (legumes):</i> Turkey (CL)</p> <p><i>Beans:</i> Afghanistan (CL)</p>	<p><i>Green Beans:</i> 1. China 2. Indonesia 3. India 4. Turkey 5. Thailand 6. Egypt 7. Spain 8. Italy 9. Morocco 10. Bangladesh</p> <p><i>Soy Beans:</i> 1. United States 2. Brazil 3. Argentina 4. India 5. China 6. Canada 7. Paraguay 8. Uruguay 9. Ukraine 10. Bolivia</p>	<p><i>Beans (including green):</i> 1. China 2. Australia 3. Thailand 4. Indonesia 5. Uganda 6. United States 7. Argentina 8. Dominican Republic 9. Egypt 10. Poland</p> <p><i>Soy Beans:</i> 1. United States 2. Brazil 3. Argentina 4. Canada 5. Paraguay 6. Uruguay 7. Netherlands 8. Ukraine 9. China 10. Bolivia</p>	<p><i>Beans (including green):</i> 1. China 2. Thailand 3. Australia 4. India 5. United Arab Emirates 6. Singapore 7. Malaysia 8. Peru 9. Argentina 10. Tanzania</p> <p><i>Soy Beans:</i> 1. Canada 2. China 3. India 4. Argentina 5. Chile 6. Uruguay 7. Netherlands 8. Kazakhstan 9. Turkey 10. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified)</p>

<i>Dried Beans:</i>		
1. Burma	<i>Dried Beans (shelled):</i>	<i>Dried Beans (shelled):</i>
2. India	1. United States	1. Canada
3. Brazil	2. Canada	2. China
4. China	3. Ghana	3. Mexico
5. United States	4. Madagascar	4. Peru
6. Tanzania	5. Tanzania	5. Ethiopia
7. Mexico	6. United Kingdom	6. Argentina
8. Kenya	7. Brazil	7. Thailand
9. Ethiopia	8. Thailand	8. Ecuador
10. Rwanda	9. Peru	9. Nicaragua
	10. Cameroon	10. India
<i>Pulses (legumes):</i>		
1. India	<i>Leguminous</i>	<i>Leguminous Vegetables:</i>
2. Australia	<i>Vegetables:</i>	1. Mexico
3. United Kingdom	1. France	2. Guatemala
4. Poland	2. Morocco	3. Peru
5. Russia	3. Netherlands	4. Canada
6. Mozambique	4. Mexico	5. Nicaragua
7. Bangladesh	5. Saudi Arabia	6. Costa Rica
8. Pakistan	6. Guatemala	7. Dominican Republic
9. Vietnam	7. United States	8. Honduras
10. Thailand	8. Egypt	9. China
	9. Germany	10. Ecuador
	10. China	

Where are beans reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, green beans are produced with child labor in Burma and Mexico, while forced labor is involved in the production of green, soy and yellow bean production in Burma. Pulses (legumes) have been found to have been produced with child labor in Turkey.⁴¹ The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Burma as a Tier 2 Watch List country and Turkey and Mexico as Tier 2 countries.⁴²

According to limited reports, beans are also produced by young school children in the Sheikh Ali district of the Parwan province of Afghanistan.⁴³ The 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Afghanistan as a Tier 2 country.⁴⁴

⁴¹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014.

http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴³ Khaleqi, Muhammad Hassan. "Instead of Education, Students of Sheikh Ali are Forced to Harvest Beans and Potatoes!" *RAWA News*. The Revolutionary Association of the Women of Afghanistan (RAWA). July 31, 2008.

<http://www.rawa.org/temp/runews/2008/07/31/instead-of-education-students-of-sheikh-ali-are-forced-to-harvest-beans-and-potatoes.html>

⁴⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in bean production look like?

In Burma, up to ten million citizens, roughly one sixth of the population, are bean farmers,⁴⁵ and children may work on their parents' farms. A report from 2002 suggests that prisoners in Burma were forced to perform agricultural and domestic labor, including in bean productions.⁴⁶

In Mexico, indigenous migrants harvest green beans and other agricultural crops. Children may work alongside their parents, particularly when no schooling opportunities are available.⁴⁷

Child workers in bean production are exposed to harsh weather conditions, long work days, and dangerous chemicals. Children are also at risk for injury: documented incidents include a child crushed by a tractor and a child losing an arm while cleaning green beans.⁴⁸

In the Parwan province of Afghanistan, an estimated 4,000 students are forced by their teachers and heads of school to labor in fields during school hours. Students of all ages, including those younger than ten years old, are required to spend school time working on farms owned by teachers or administrators. Among the tasks assigned to these forced child laborers is digging irrigation trenches for beans for fear of punishment and parents pulling their children out of public schools. Afghan teachers insist that working in the fields benefits the students because, without help, the teachers would be forced to stay home to work in their fields instead of going to work at the schools.⁴⁹

Bean Production and Supply Chain:

Green beans require hot, short growing seasons and a lot of water. Fertilizers and pesticides are frequently used to increase yields and improve overall quality of the beans. Irrigation is often necessary as well. The growing of beans requires good time keeping and organization. In order to produce high yields and make a profit while growing green beans, a farmer must strategically plant throughout the growing season to ensure a continual harvest, and the harvesting must be conducted at the exact right time to maintain the highest possible quality of processed bean. After harvesting, green beans must be rinsed and stored at above 40°F and below 50°F. Beans are often sent away from the farm for processing: cutting, freezing, or

⁴⁵ Song, Sophie. "Myanmar's Bean Industry Playing Catch-Up as Country's Economy Regains Momentum." *International Business Times*. August 30, 2013. <http://www.ibtimes.com/myanmars-bean-industry-playing-catch-country-s-economy-regains-momentum-1401747>

⁴⁶ Assistance Association for Political Prisoners (Burma) (AAPP). "About AAPP." <http://aappb.org/about-aapp/>
Assistance Association for Political Prisoners (Burma) (AAPP). *Forced Labor of Prisoners in Burma*. May 2002. http://www.aappb.org/report8_forced_labor.pdf

⁴⁷ New Mexico State University. "Green Beans, Child Labor and NAFTA." February 11, 2009. <http://fnsnews.nmsu.edu/green-beans-child-labor-and-nafta/>

⁴⁸ New Mexico State University. "Green Beans, Child Labor and NAFTA." February 11, 2009. <http://fnsnews.nmsu.edu/green-beans-child-labor-and-nafta/>

⁴⁹ Khaleqi, Muhammad Hassan. "Instead of Education, Students of Sheikh Ali are Forced to Harvest Beans and Potatoes!" *RAWA News*. The Revolutionary Association of the Women of Afghanistan (RAWA). July 31, 2008. <http://www.rawa.org/temp/runews/2008/07/31/instead-of-education-students-of-sheikh-ali-are-forced-to-harvest-beans-and-potatoes.html>

canning.⁵⁰ Green beans can be grown as bush beans or pole beans, while yellow or wax beans are often grown exclusively as pole beans.⁵¹

Soy beans have many varieties and uses. The U.S. Department of Agriculture keeps a collection of over ten thousand types, including red, green, black, brown, speckled, streaked, large, and small. Soy beans have a variety of uses from the direct eating of the green bean, to the pressing of the mature bean for oil, or the processing of the bean for tofu or milk. Soy plants are often planted in May and require soil temperatures of 55 to 60°F in order to germinate. Genetic modification and the application of fertilizers and pesticides is often part of soy production.⁵²

How do trafficking and/or child labor in bean production affect me?



Every year, Americans consume about 7.5 pounds of beans per capita.⁵³ Most imported beans in the U.S. come from Mexico, Canada, and China.⁵⁴ Burma, known to produce beans using both forced labor and child labor, is the world's largest exporter of dried beans.⁵⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The Assistance Association for Political Prisoners (Burma) (AAPPB) seeks to raise awareness, enforce labor laws, and reduce the prevalence of labor trafficking in Burmese prisons.⁵⁶ The Child Labor Coalition has also focused on Burma to raise global awareness and eliminate the use of child labor in all industries.⁵⁷

The Initiative to Promote Fundamental Labor Rights and Practices in Myanmar (the Initiative) was launched in 2014 and is designed to promote multi-stakeholder relations through a consultative mechanism. The initiative held a multi-stakeholder forum in Yangon in spring of 2015 to discuss a wide variety of labor issues, including child labor.⁵⁸

⁵⁰ Iowa State University Department of Horticulture. "Green Bean Production." *Commercial Vegetables Horticulture*. March 2009. <http://www.public.iastate.edu/~taber/Extension/Green%20Beans.pdf>

⁵¹ Cornell University. "Pole Beans, Green Beans (Pole), Wax Beans (Pole)." *Growing Guide*. <http://www.gardening.cornell.edu/homegardening/scene8f63.html>

⁵² National Soybean Research Laboratory (NSRL). *Soybean Production Basics*. <http://www.nsrllinois.edu/general/soyprod.html>

⁵³ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

⁵⁴ U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service (ERS). "Dry Beans." 2012. <http://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/crops/vegetables-pulses/dry-beans.aspx#imports>

⁵⁵ UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

⁵⁶ Assistance Association for Political Prisoners (Burma) (AAPP). "About AAPP." <http://aappb.org/about-aapp/>
Assistance Association for Political Prisoners (Burma) (AAPP). *Forced Labor of Prisoners in Burma*. May 2002. http://www.aappb.org/report8_forced_labor.pdf

⁵⁷ Child Labor Coalition. *Burma/Myanmar*. <http://stopchildlabor.org/?cat=578>

⁵⁸ Embassy of the United States Rangoon Burma. *Myanmar Labor Initiative Holds First Stakeholder Forum in Yangon*. May 15, 2015. <http://photos.state.gov/libraries/burma/895/pdf/150519MyanmarLaborInitiativeHoldsFirstStakeholderForumYangon.pdf>

Brass



Brass is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export brass worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports brass (UN Comtrade 2012):
India (CL)	Not Available	Not Available

Where is brass reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced or Child Labor*, brassware is produced using child labor in India.⁵⁹ The 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists India as a Tier 2 Country.⁶⁰

Labor abuses have also been found in the composite minerals of brass: copper and zinc. See the [Copper](#) and [Zinc](#) commodity reports for more detail.

What does trafficking and/or child labor in brass production look like?

The majority of brass production in India takes place in the city of Moradabad. The city has a long history of brass production, and there are many families dependent on brass production for livelihood. There are an estimated 25,000 small or household workshops, adding to the unseen nature of an industry that conceals child labor. Due to the high volume of production, many subcontractors and small production workshops employ child labor. Such shops hire children, paid or unpaid, on a day-to-day basis as helpers.⁶¹ Children are primarily uneducated at the time of recruitment and remain without access to education throughout their employment in the factory.⁶² Children assist in all steps of the production

⁵⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child or Forced Labor*.

http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

⁶⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶¹ Sekar, H. R. *Impact of Technological Change on the Demand for Child Labor in Brassware Industry of Moradabad*. 2007. V.V. Giri National Labor Institute. NLI Research Studies Series, NO: 074.

http://www.vvgnli.org/sites/default/files/publication_files/Brassware%20Industry%20of%20Moradabad.pdf

⁶² Sekar, H. R. *Impact of Technological Change on the Demand for Child Labor in Brassware Industry of Moradabad*. 2007. V.V. Giri National Labor Institute. NLI Research Studies Series, NO: 074.

http://www.vvgnli.org/sites/default/files/publication_files/Brassware%20Industry%20of%20Moradabad.pdf

process, including casting, grinding, and acid cleaning. This exposes children to dangerous conditions, and materials.⁶³ The scope of child labor in the Indian brassware sector is unknown, but 2007 estimates put the number of child brass workers in Moradabad at 2,000 to 10,000.⁶⁴

Brass Production and Supply Chain:

Brass is a composite mixture of the transition metals copper and zinc with trace amounts of lead or silicon for durability. The ratio of each metal can be varied, resulting in the assorted forms of brass commodities. Sheets of preproduction brass known as ingots are sold to molding factories for final product manufacturing. The process of manufacturing brass into an exportable commodity involves multiple steps, which include but are not limited to: molding, polishing, casting, welding, enameling, engraving, and electroplating.⁶⁵

How do trafficking and/or child labor in brass production affect me?



Typical items made of brass are jewelry, decorative pieces, cutlery, vases, dinnerware, fixtures, and other various household items.

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) an in-depth report on the brass industry in India.

[Read](#) about child labor in India.

[Watch](#) a video on UNICEF's work educated children in India.

⁶³ Sekar, H. R. *Impact of Technological Change on the Demand for Child Labor in Brassware Industry of Moradabad*. 2007. V.V. Giri National Labor Institute. NLI Research Studies Series, NO: 074.

http://www.vvgnli.org/sites/default/files/publication_files/Brassware%20Industry%20of%20Moradabad.pdf

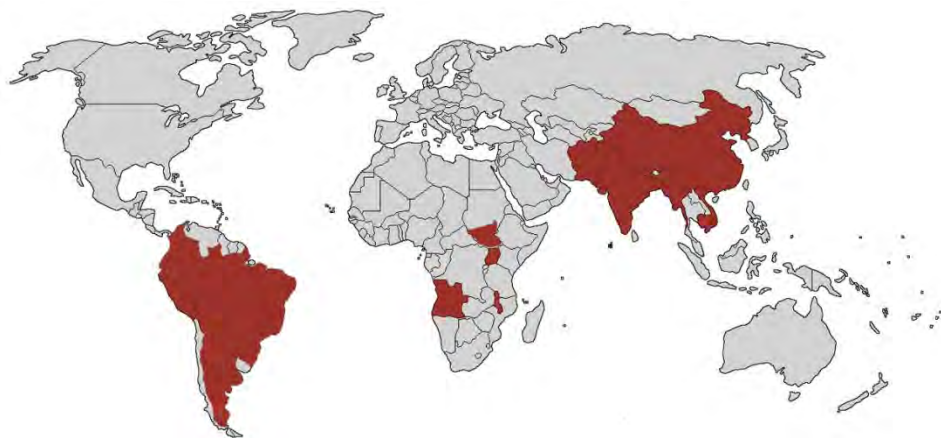
⁶⁴ Sekar, H. R. *Impact of Technological Change on the Demand for Child Labor in Brassware Industry of Moradabad*. 2007. V.V. Giri National Labor Institute. NLI Research Studies Series, NO: 074.

http://www.vvgnli.org/sites/default/files/publication_files/Brassware%20Industry%20of%20Moradabad.pdf

⁶⁵ Sekar, H. R. *Impact of Technological Change on the Demand for Child Labor in Brassware Industry of Moradabad*. 2007. V.V. Giri National Labor Institute. NLI Research Studies Series, NO: 074.

http://www.vvgnli.org/sites/default/files/publication_files/Brassware%20Industry%20of%20Moradabad.pdf

Bricks



Bricks are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export bricks worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports bricks (UN Comtrade 2012):
Afghanistan (FL, CL)	1. China	1. China
Angola (FL, CL)	2. Germany	2. Germany
Argentina (FL, CL)	3. India	3. Canada
Bangladesh (FL, CL)	4. France	4. Austria
Bolivia (CL)	5. Austria	5. Slovakia
Brazil (CL)	6. United States	6. Poland
Burma (FL, CL)	7. Russia	7. Mexico
Cambodia (CL)	8. Italy	8. Brazil
China (FL, CL)	9. Spain	9. France
Colombia – clay (CL)	10. Poland	10. United Kingdom
Ecuador (CL)		
India (FL, CL)		
Malawi (FL, CL)		
Nepal (FL, CL)		
North Korea (FL, CL)		
Pakistan (FL, CL)		
Paraguay (FL, CL)		
Peru (CL)		
South Sudan (FL, CL)		
Uganda (FL, CL)		
Vietnam (FL, CL)		

Where are bricks reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, bricks are made with forced labor or forced child labor in Afghanistan, Angola, Argentina, Bangladesh, China, India, Malawi, Nepal, Pakistan, Paraguay, Peru, South Sudan, Uganda, and Vietnam.⁶⁶

The U.S. Department of Labor *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child or Forced Labor* reports that bricks are produced with forced labor in Afghanistan, Burma, China, India, Nepal, North Korea, and Pakistan; and child labor in Afghanistan, Argentina, Bangladesh, Bolivia, Brazil, Burma, Cambodia, China, Colombia (clay), Ecuador, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Paraguay, Peru, Uganda and Vietnam.⁶⁷

According to the 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Angola, Turkey, Malawi, Mexico, Afghanistan, Nepal, Colombia, Ecuador, Argentina, Brazil, India, Paraguay, Peru, Uganda and Vietnam are Tier 2 countries. Burma, China, Cambodia and Pakistan are Tier 2 Watch List countries. North Korea and South Sudan are listed as Tier 3 countries.⁶⁸

What does trafficking and/or child labor in brick production look like?

The nature of labor trafficking in brick production varies widely by region. It has been studied extensively in India and Pakistan, where labor trafficking is likely to result from a combination of caste relationships and debt bondage.⁶⁹ Children involved in the production of bricks are exposed to large amounts of dust.⁷⁰

In India, workers are recruited by labor brokers who pay them a small advance, thus creating a cycle of debt.⁷¹ One study on the sector found that workers' debt ranged from 1,000 to more than INR 12,000, with some 40 percent having debt of INR 8,000 to 12,000 and almost 40 percent holding debt of over INR 12,000.⁷² Entire families can be drawn into the sector in an attempt to meet high quotas. Workers often travel long distances from their home villages, and are geographically and socially isolated. The BBC reports instances of violence when workers try to leave their jobs before their employment period

⁶⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child or Forced Labor*. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TPPRA_Report2014.pdf

U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁹ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Buried in Bricks: A Rapid Assessment of Bonded Labor in Brick Kilns in Afghanistan*. 2011. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_172671.pdf

⁷⁰ U.S. Department of Labor. *Worst Forms of Child Labor Report*. 2012. Nepal. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/2012TDA/nepal.pdf>

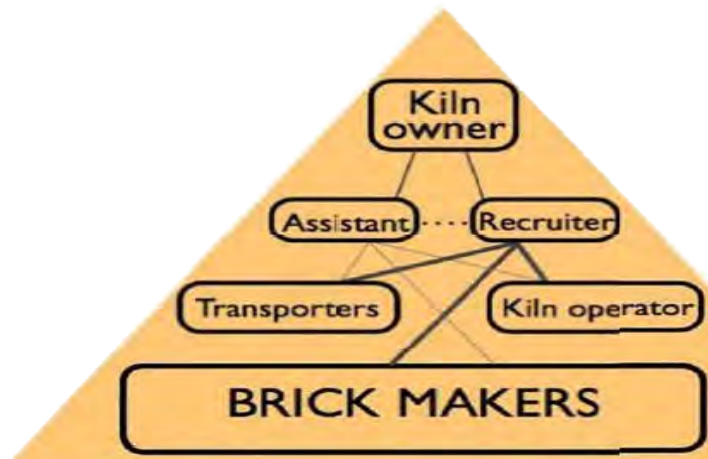
⁷¹ The Economist. "Toil and Trouble: Where Slavery Persists in All but Name." November 3, 2012. <http://www.economist.com/news/asia/21565685-where-slavery-persists-all-name-toil-and-trouble>

⁷² Prakash, Aseem. "How (Un)free are the Workers in the Labor Market? A Case Study of Brick Kilns." *India's Unfree Workforce: Of Bondage Old and New*. Eds. Breman, Jan, Isabelle Guerin, and Aseem Prakash. New Delhi: Oxford University Press. 2009.

(generally 6-8 months) is up.⁷³ In some cases, workers may have inherited debt from their parents, illustrating multi-generational debt bondage.⁷⁴ The brick kilns are usually heavily guarded.⁷⁵

Debt bondage in the Pakistani brick sector is well-established. Families, including women and children, take advances or loans from subcontractors which they may not be able to repay. If the family transfers kilns, the loan follows them, and “debts are generally not forgiven upon incapacitation or death,” meaning workers may labor under several generations of debt.⁷⁶ The U.S. Department of State reports that feudal landlords and kiln owners may leverage their political connections to protect their use of forced labor.⁷⁷

Studies conducted in Afghanistan by the International Labor Organization (ILO) revealed cycles of debt, vulnerability, dependence, and poverty that led to situations of bondage and servitude in Afghan brick kilns. The 2011 report on bonded labor in brick kilns in Afghanistan stated that fifty-six percent of brick makers are children, the majority of whom are under fourteen years old. Starting as young as five, children begin to help their family members in the kiln. At eight, many children work “nearly twice as many hours as the legal adult limit in many European countries.”⁷⁸



Source: International Labor Organization. *Buried in Bricks: A Rapid Assessment of Bonded Labor in Brick Kilns in Afghanistan*. 2011. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_172671.pdf

⁷³ Hawksley, Humphrey. “Why India's Brick Kiln Workers 'Live Like Slaves.'” *BBC News*. January 1, 2014. <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-india-25556965>

⁷⁴ The Economist. “Toil and Trouble: Where Slavery Persists in All but Name.” November 3, 2012. <http://www.economist.com/news/asia/21565685-where-slavery-persists-all-name-toil-and-trouble>

⁷⁵ Franciscans International. *Modern Slavery in India: Cases of Bonded Labor*. September, 2012. http://franciscansinternational.org/fileadmin/docs/Contemporary_Forms_of_Slavery/Modern_Slavery_in_India___Bonded_Labor_Cases_FINAL_17_Sept_2012.pdf

⁷⁶ Pakistan Institution of Labor Education and Research. *Unfree Labor in Pakistan: Work, Debt and Bondage in Brick Kilns*. Working Paper No. 24. Geneva: International Labor Office. 2004. http://www.ilo.org/sapfl/Informationresources/ILOPublications/lang--en/docName--WCMS_082028/index.htm

⁷⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁷⁸ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Buried in Bricks: A Rapid Assessment of Bonded Labor in Brick Kilns in Afghanistan*. 2011. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_172671.pdf

The U.S. Department of State reports that Angolan children may be exploited in brick kilns owned by Chinese nationals in Angola.⁷⁹

Case Studies:

Intervention in Hyderabad, India

In 2013, 149 people, including 34 children, some as young as three, were rescued from a brick kiln outside Hyderabad, India. The workers were required to work for up to 22 hours a day and were physically assaulted when they requested rest. One of the rescued workers described how he was recruited from his home village with the equivalent of a USD 400 advance. He began work to repay the debt, but was not given any timeline for how long repayment would take.⁸⁰

State-sponsored Forced Labor in China

According to the U.S. Department of State, in China, detained individuals in hundreds of facilities were forced to undertake activities including brick making. Although the PRC'S National People's Congress ratified a decision to abolish these facilities in 2012, some remained open as converted drug detention of "custody and education centers" where forced labor is ongoing.⁸¹

Brick Production and Supply Chain:

The international supply chain for bricks remains opaque. It is likely that the majority of bricks produced as a result of human trafficking are used for domestic production needs.

Brick kilns are operated not by owners but by contractors who manage labor and output. Mud bricks are formed and sun-dried before being transported to the kiln and baked. Customers may purchase the bricks directly from the kiln site. The original formation of bricks is done by a mix of men and women, adults and children, migrants and locals, whereas the subsequent processes are carried out by adult and juvenile males. Kilns can produce 400,000 to 600,000 bricks per month.⁸²

In Afghanistan, kiln owners delegate all management of workers to recruiters. An assistant tracks the output of workers against their quotas. Transporters and kiln operators are less dependent on the kiln owner because they have more skills, access to capital and higher status. The brick makers prepare the clay and mold the bricks.⁸³

⁷⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸⁰ Coorlim, Leif, Mallika Kapur and Sara Sidner. "Toddlers Freed from Brick Kiln Bondage." *The CNN Freedom Project*. March 20, 2013. <http://thecnnfreedomproject.blogs.cnn.com/2013/03/20/toddlers-freed-from-brick-kiln-bondage/>

⁸¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸² Pakistan Institution of Labor Education and Research. *Unfree Labor in Pakistan: Work, Debt and Bondage in Brick Kilns*. Working Paper No. 24. Geneva: International Labor Office. 2004.

http://www.ilo.org/sapfl/Informationresources/ILOPublications/lang--en/docName--WCMS_082028/index.htm

⁸³ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Buried in Bricks: A Rapid Assessment of Bonded Labor in Brick Kilns in Afghanistan*. 2011. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_172671.pdf

How do trafficking and/or child labor in brick production affect me?



Labor trafficking in bricks is most likely to be in domestic construction. In India, booming urban construction of offices, factories, and call centers used by multinational corporations is fueled by labor in the country's brick sector. Recent reports show bricks purchased by foreign military operations, such as the North Atlantic Trade Organization's (NATO) purchase of bricks for its reconstruction projects in Afghanistan.⁸⁴ The ILO writes that child labor is so prevalent in South Asia that any bricks used in projects in Afghanistan are "de facto coming from kilns that utilize child bonded labor."⁸⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The Employer's Association of Industrial Ceramics in Tobatí, Paraguay (*Asociacion de Empleadores de Ceramistas Industriales de Tobatí*) signed an agreement that they will not use child labor in brick production. The government of Paraguay is engaged in a project, funded by the U.S. Department of Labor's Office of Child Labor, Forced Labor, and Human Trafficking (OCFT), that provides educational opportunities to children working in brick factories. The Ministry of Labor and Justice is also conducting inspections of facilities involved in brick production.⁸⁶

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) an in-depth report on labor conditions in Pakistani brick production and the domestic supply chain.

[Read](#) an in-depth report on labor conditions in Afghan brick production.

[Watch](#) a video on labor trafficking in Afghanistan.

⁸⁴ Kamber, Micheal. "In Afghan Kilns, a Cycle of Debts and Servitude." *New York Times*. March 15, 2011. <http://www.nytimes.com/2011/03/16/world/asia/16kiln.html>

⁸⁵ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Buried in Bricks: A Rapid Assessment of Bonded Labor in Brick Kilns in Afghanistan*. 2011. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_172671.pdf

⁸⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. *2011 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. December 2010. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/pdf/2011TVpra.pdf>

Cattle



Cattle and beef are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Top ten countries that export beef worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Top ten countries from which the US imports beef (UN Comtrade 2012):

Cattle:

Angola (FL)
Bolivia (FL)
Brazil (FL, CL)
Botswana (FL)
Chad (FL, CL)
Ethiopia (CL)
Gabon (FL)
Kenya (FL)
Lesotho (CL)
Malawi (FL)
Mauritania (FL, CL)
Namibia (FL, CL)
Niger (FL)
Paraguay (FL)
South Sudan (FL, CL)
Swaziland (FL, CL)
Tanzania (FL, CL)
Uganda (FL, CL)
Zambia (CL)

Beef:

Brazil (CL)

Beef (frozen):

1. India
2. Brazil
3. Australia
4. United States
5. New Zealand
6. Uruguay
7. Paraguay
8. Nicaragua
9. Mexico
10. Canada

Beef (chilled):

1. Netherlands
2. United States
3. Germany
4. Australia
5. Ireland
6. France
7. Poland
8. Canada
9. Brazil
10. Belgium

Beef (frozen):

1. Australia
2. New Zealand
3. Nicaragua
4. Canada
5. Uruguay
6. Costa Rica
7. Honduras
8. Mexico
9. Chile
10. China

Beef (chilled):

1. Canada
2. Mexico
3. Australia
4. Nicaragua
5. New Zealand
6. Honduras
7. Uruguay
8. Costa Rica
9. Japan
10. Chile

Where are cattle and beef products reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, forced labor or forced child labor is involved in cattle production in Angola, Botswana, Chad, Gabon, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritania, Namibia, Paraguay, Swaziland, Tanzania and Uganda.⁸⁷

The 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, notes forced labor in cattle ranching and herding in Bolivia, Brazil, Niger, Paraguay, and South Sudan as well as child labor in Brazil, Chad, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mauritania, Namibia, South Sudan, Uganda, and Zambia.⁸⁸ Beef has also been found to have been produced with child labor in Brazil.⁸⁹

Angola, Chad, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Swaziland and Uganda are listed as Tier 2 countries by the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*. Botswana, Gabon, Lesotho Tanzania and Namibia are Tier 2 Watch List countries. Mauritania and South Sudan are Tier 3 countries.⁹⁰

What does trafficking and/or child labor in cattle ranching look like?

Labor trafficking in cattle ranching varies from country to country. In Bolivia, the International Labor Organization (ILO), Verité, and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights have documented the existence of debt peonage on cattle ranches in the Bolivian Chaco.⁹¹ Indigenous Guarani are the main victims of human trafficking in Bolivia, as they work on the plantations or ranches of large landowners, with family labor arrangements often going back generations. Low rates of payment often result in debt bondage or peonage. However, because the beef and agricultural goods produced in this system are destined for the domestic rather than the international market, this matter has received little attention globally. In 2010 and 2011, Verité conducted research on indicators of forced labor in cattle production in the Chaco region of Bolivia. Researchers found the presence of indicators including the threat of physical violence, sexual violence, and loss of social status, as well as excessive working hours, lack of days off, subminimum wages, hazards to worker health, and child labor. In the Chaco region of Bolivia, the indigenous Guaraní who work on *haciendas* or as self-employed cattle ranchers on communal lands are particularly vulnerable. Researchers found that many wage workers are indebted to their employers, causing confinement to the worksite and withholding of wages. Workers are also paid well below the minimum wage and are susceptible to injuries from slash and burn agricultural techniques. Indicators of forced labor are also present for self-employed workers who work on communal lands. For these workers,

⁸⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁸⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁹⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁹¹ Garcia, Eduardo. "Bolivian Guarani Resist Forced Labor on Ranches." *Reuters*. June 19, 2008. <http://www.reuters.com/article/idUSN18254614>.

International Labor Organization (ILO). *A Global Alliance against Forced Labour: Global Report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work*.

2005. <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/ilc/ilc93/pdf/rep-i-b.pdf>

Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

excessive hours are compulsory especially in the area of animal husbandry which requires daily work without rest. Those who do not work are subject to removal from the community which would include loss of social status, land, job or even their home. Because work is done as a family unit on these communal lands, child labor is an extremely common practice.⁹²

In Brazil, cattle ranching accounts for over 60 percent of the companies on the “dirty list” of groups using forced labor.⁹³ As in other goods produced in Brazil, labor trafficking results from young men being brought by brokers to rural plantations where they then enter into debt bondage. Cattle ranching may encompass a variety of activities, from clearing land for pasture to monitoring livestock to handling the production of goods. “Weak land regulation, the appropriation of public land through forged land titles and the permanent deforestation of new areas in the forest are commonplace,” making the identification and elimination of forced labor challenging.⁹⁴ Such is the correlation between labor trafficking and cattle ranching that in 2009 Wal-Mart made a commitment to stop purchasing beef products from farms linked with deforestation or labor trafficking.⁹⁵

In Gabon, the U.S. Department of State reports that adult men were victims of forced labor on cattle farms.⁹⁶

In some countries, such as Chad, children are involved in herding family cattle and the U.S. Department of State reports that some of these children may be victims of forced labor as some children may be sold in markets.⁹⁷ In some cases, children may be sold by their parents into cattle herding as a means of earning small amounts of money. Boys from Angola are reportedly trafficked within the Namibian cattle herding sector.⁹⁸ In Botswana, some children from poor families in isolated rural communities may migrate to live with wealthier extended family members and some of their work may include cattle herding. These children may be treated worse than other children living in the household, and may be excluded from educational opportunities, physically confined, or otherwise abused.⁹⁹ In Mauritania, inherited slavery may force individuals to work as unpaid cattle herders.¹⁰⁰

Children are often engaged in herding, which involves keeping groups of animals together, and is common in pastoral agricultural and nomadic societies. Livestock tasks tend to be distributed along gender lines: cattle herding is generally a task for men and boys, and herding activities can begin as young as five years of age. Culturally, herding can be seen as an opportunity to contribute to family

⁹² Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

⁹³ Costa, Patrícia Trindade Maranhão. *Fighting Forced Labor: The Example of Brazil*. Geneva: International Labor Office. 2009. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_111297.pdf

⁹⁴ Costa, Patrícia Trindade Maranhão. *Fighting Forced Labor: The Example of Brazil*. Geneva: International Labor Office. 2009. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_111297.pdf

⁹⁵ Winston, Andrew. “Wal-Mart Asks, Where’s the Beef (From)?” *Harvard Business Review*. July 13, 2009. <http://blogs.hbr.org/winston/2009/07/walmart-asks-where-the-beef-f.html>

⁹⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁹⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

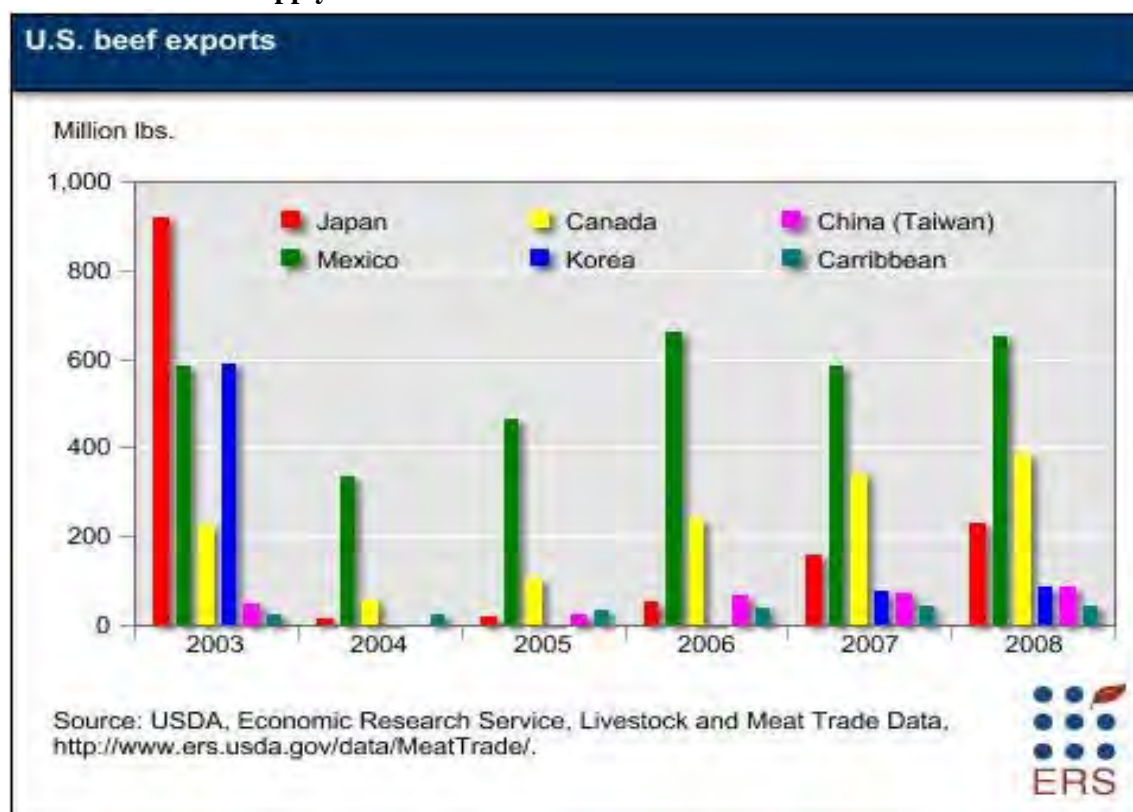
⁹⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁹⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

¹⁰⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

income and to earn income. While light work accompanying family members may be appropriate, working with cattle can carry a variety of health and safety risks. These include animal-related disease, long hours in extreme weather conditions, dust inhalation, confrontation with cattle raiders, injuries from handling livestock and tools, and musculoskeletal disorders.¹⁰¹

Cattle Production and Supply Chain:



Source: US Department of Agriculture. *Cattle & Beef*. May 26, 2012.
<http://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/animal-products/cattle-beef.aspx>

The United States is the “largest fed-cattle industry in the world,” and although the United States is one of the largest producers of beef, it is a net beef importer. Most beef produced and exported from the United States is grain-fed, high quality cuts. Most beef that the United States imports is lower value, grass-fed beef used mainly for processing, primarily as ground beef.¹⁰² The only country that is both a major exporter of beef to the United States and for which there is documented evidence of forced or child labor is Brazil. However, the United States is a comparatively minor trade partner for this product, as the most common destinations for Brazilian beef are Saudi Arabia, Russia, and Angola.¹⁰³ According to 2013

¹⁰¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO). *Children’s Work in the Livestock Sector: Herding and Beyond*. 2012. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/017/i3098e/i3098e.pdf>

¹⁰² U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Cattle & Beef*. May 26, 2012. <http://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/animal-products/cattle-beef.aspx>

¹⁰³ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

numbers from the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the United States imports beef and veal mostly from New Zealand, Australia, Canada, and Mexico. The United States exports beef and veal to Japan, Canada, Mexico, and South Korea.¹⁰⁴

How do trafficking and/or child labor in cattle ranching affect me?



Products from cattle ranching include beef and leather. Leather is used in a variety of consumer goods from shoes to couches.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Brazil has often been cited as an example of effective government action against forced labor. The ILO has praised Brazil's measures to combat forced labor. In March 2003, Brazil's President launched a National Plan for the Elimination of Slave Labor, and the government has cooperated since 2002 with an ILO program on forced labor. There is also a special commission within the Council for the Defense of Human Rights in the Ministry of Justice that specifically addresses the problem of slave labor.¹⁰⁵ In 2013, 16 anti-trafficking offices were in operation and media campaigns were used to educate the public about trafficking warning signs. A national anti-trafficking plan was launched in 2013 and USD 2.9 million was dedicated to the implementation of the plan by 2014.¹⁰⁶

In 2011, the state of Sao Paulo created a Commission for the Eradication of Forced Labor. The group, also known as Coetrae, is tasked with evaluating and tracking cases of forced labor, monitoring compliance with forced labor laws, conducting research, and coordinating with the Secretariat of Justice and NGOs on combatting forced labor.¹⁰⁷ In addition, the government has created a National Pact for the Elimination of Slavery, which brings the government, the ILO, NGOs, and companies together to combat forced labor. Over 130 companies have signed on, including large companies such as Wal-Mart Brazil, thereby committing not to buy products derived from forced labor.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁴ U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Beef and Veal: Annual and Cumulative Year-to-Date US Trade*. July 3, 2013. [http://www.ers.usda.gov/datafiles/Livestock__Meat_International_Trade_Data/Annual_and_Cumulative_Year to Date_US_Livestock_and_Meat_Trade_by_Country/BeefVeal_Yearly.pdf](http://www.ers.usda.gov/datafiles/Livestock__Meat_International_Trade_Data/Annual_and_Cumulative_Year_to_Date_US_Livestock_and_Meat_Trade_by_Country/BeefVeal_Yearly.pdf)

¹⁰⁵ Reporter Brasil. Signatários do Pacto Nacional pela Erradicação do Trabalho Escravo. <http://www.reporterbrasil.org.br/pacto/signatarios>

UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

¹⁰⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2014. <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2014/226649.htm>

¹⁰⁷ U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor. *2011 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices - Brazil*. <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2010/wha/154496.htm>.

U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor. *2009 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices*. <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/>.

U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices 2014*. <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm#wrapper>

¹⁰⁸ Reporter Brasil. Signatários do Pacto Nacional pela Erradicação do Trabalho Escravo. <http://www.reporterbrasil.org.br/pacto/signatarios>

In November 2003, the Minister of National Integration signed a decree containing a list of 52 individuals and entities that use or have used slave labor. The individuals and entities on the biannually updated “dirty” list are barred from receiving national subsidies or tax exemptions and from engaging in financial arrangements with a number of public financial institutions. The Bank of Brazil denies financing to landowners who employ slave labor and the Ministry of National Integration recommended that private sector lenders deny them financing as well.¹⁰⁹ By the end of 2013, there were 380 companies on the list.¹¹⁰ Large-scale national and international companies have been blacklisted, including a major apparel brand that was ordered to pay court fees and indemnities and whose appeal to be removed from the list was denied after one of its supplier factories subjected workers to forced labor.¹¹¹ However, some companies on the government’s list avoided sanctions by creating new companies, according to the U.S. Department of State.¹¹²

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video from Al Jazeera on the environmental effects of Brazilian cattle ranching.

¹⁰⁹ U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor. *2011 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices - Brazil*. <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2010/wha/154496.htm>.

U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor. *2009 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices*. <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/>.

U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices 2014*. <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm#wrapper>

¹¹⁰ Bertrand, Natasha. Business Insider. “How Brazil Shames Companies that Enslave People.” November 26, 2014. <http://www.businessinsider.com/how-brazil-shames-companies-that-enslave-people-2014-11>

¹¹¹ Cruza, Elaine Patricia. Agencia Brazil. “Court rejects Zara’s appeal over slavery notification.” April 16, 2014. <http://agenciabrasil.ebc.com.br/en/geral/noticia/2014-04/court-rejects-zaras-appeal-over-slavery-notification>

¹¹² U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices 2014*. <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm#wrapper>

Charcoal



Charcoal is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export charcoal worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports charcoal (UN Comtrade 2012):
Argentina (FL) Brazil (FL, CL) Uganda (CL)	1. South Africa 2. Indonesia 3. Paraguay 4. Poland 5. Argentina 6. Namibia 7. Ukraine 8. Mexico 9. Nigeria 10. Philippines	1. Mexico 2. Argentina 3. Dominican Republic 4. Paraguay 5. China 6. Colombia 7. Indonesia 8. El Salvador 9. Netherlands 10. Brazil

Where is charcoal reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons* report, charcoal is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Argentina and Brazil.¹¹³

The U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* reports that charcoal is produced with forced labor in Brazil and with child labor in Brazil and Uganda.¹¹⁴

Argentina, Brazil, and Uganda are listed as Tier 2 countries by the 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons* Report.¹¹⁵

¹¹³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

¹¹⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

¹¹⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in charcoal production look like?

Labor trafficking in charcoal follows a similar pattern to many agricultural goods in Brazil. Entire families are recruited by brokers to work in the charcoal industry. The sites are usually geographically isolated and are sometimes guarded. Families are far from schools, hospitals, and food and supply stores so they buy everything from the company stores where the inflated prices encourage further debt. Workers are often severely underpaid. The workers are thus prevented from ever raising enough money to return home.¹¹⁶

Charcoal Production and Supply Chain:

Typically, eucalyptus or other wood is grown on plantations and the timber is then brought to subcontractors, who burn the wood to make charcoal. Harvesting timber from protected areas, which contributes to the deforestation of the Amazon and Africa, is often illegal. In the North Kivu Province in the Republic of Congo, armed rebel groups control charcoal production.

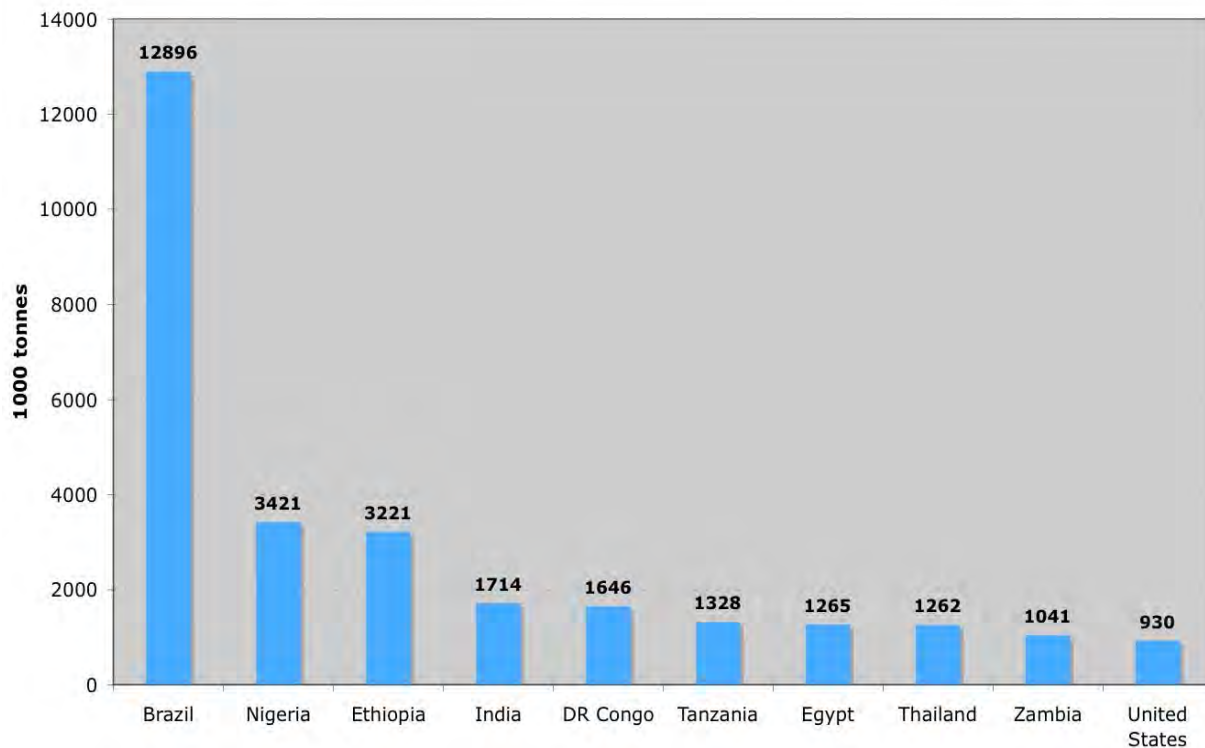
Brazil produces the most charcoal in the world. Forty-seven percent of the charcoal produced in Latin America and the Caribbean in 2009 was produced in Brazil. Two million tons of wood charcoal exports, or 4 percent of global production, came out of Brazil in 2009.¹¹⁷ According to the ILO, the majority of Brazilian pig iron derived from charcoal is exported to the United States. Charcoal used for fuel rarely enters the international supply chain.¹¹⁸

¹¹⁶ Smith, Michael; Voreacos, David. Bloomberg News. "Slaves in Amazon Forced to Make Material Used in Cars." <http://www.bloomberg.com/apps/news?pid=newsarchive&sid=a4j1VKZq34TM>

¹¹⁷ Steierer, Florian. *Highlights on Wood Charcoal: 2004-2009*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), Forestry Department. January 12, 2011. http://faostat.fao.org/Portals/_Faostat/documents/pdf/Wood%20charcoal.pdf

¹¹⁸ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Combating Forced Labor: A Handbook for Employers and Business: Good Practice Case Studies*. 2008. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_099629.pdf

Top Ten Countries by Wood Charcoal Production, 2004
 ©2009 "Ranking America" (<http://rankingamerica.wordpress.com>)



Data from FAOStat
<http://faostat.fao.org/site/339/default.aspx>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in charcoal production affect me?



Charcoal can either be used domestically as a fuel or as a crucial ingredient in pig iron, itself an ingredient in steel used primarily in auto manufacturing.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Charcoal production accounts for some 12 percent of the companies on Brazil's "dirty list," a list of companies found to be using forced labor published annually by the government.¹¹⁹ According to the U.S.

¹¹⁹ Costa, Patrícia Trindade Maranhão. *Fighting Forced Labor: The Example of Brazil*. International Labor Organization. 2009. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_111297.pdf

Department of Labor's report, *2012 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, the Government of Brazil has "taken an exemplary approach to the elimination of child and forced labor, including forced child labor, through both broad policy measures and targeted actions in specific industries, including charcoal production."

Because charcoal has been linked to the production of pig iron, which is used in automobile supply chains, industry groups have acted against labor trafficking in charcoal. In Brazil, the Citizen's Charcoal Initiative (ICC) established a membership process that requires participants to follow a code of conduct, to participate in audits, and to refrain from doing business with any company whose membership was revoked.¹²⁰

In the United States, the auto industry, which is a large buyer of Brazilian pig iron, formed the Automotive Industry Action Group (AIAG) and conducted a supplier training. Since the issue initially came to global attention, a number of companies have dropped suppliers known to have sourced charcoal made with forced labor. For example, Ford and Kohler stopped purchasing from National Mineral Trading, and, beginning in 2010, Nucor steel company requires its suppliers to join the ICC.¹²¹

How can I learn more?

[Visit](#) the website of the NGO Repórter Brasil (Portuguese).

[Read](#) an ILO case study on addressing labor trafficking in the charcoal sector.

¹²⁰ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Combating Forced Labor: A Handbook for Employers and Business: Good Practice Case Studies*. 2008. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_099629.pdf

¹²¹ Murningham Post. "Pig Iron and Modern Slavery." August 12, 2010. <http://murninghampost.com/2010/08/12/pig-iron-and-modern-slavery/>

Smith, Michael and David Voreacos. "Brazil: Enslaved Workers Make Charcoal Used to Make Basic Steel Ingredient." *Seattle Times*. January 21, 2007. <http://www.corpwatch.org/article.php?id=14328>

Citrus



Citrus fruits are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export citrus fruits worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports citrus fruits (UN Comtrade 2012):
Belize (CL) Turkey (CL) United States (FL, CL) ¹²²	1. Spain 2. South Africa 3. Turkey 4. China 5. United States 6. Mexico 7. Egypt 8. Netherlands 9. Morocco 10. Argentina	1. Mexico 2. Chile 3. Spain 4. South Africa 5. Peru 6. Morocco 7. Australia 8. Guatemala 9. Dominican Republic 10. Israel

Where are citrus fruits reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor report*, child labor is found in the production of citrus fruits in Belize and Turkey. Belize is cited as a Tier 3 Watch List country by the U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, while Turkey is listed as a Tier 2 country.¹²³ Cases of forced labor have been identified in the U.S. in the past, tied to predatory third-party labor providers.¹²⁴ Children working in citrus in the U.S. have also been

¹²² Evidence of children working in the U.S. citrus sector is anecdotal, and the scope is unknown. Human Rights Watch. *Fields of Peril*. May 2010. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2010/05/05/fields-peril/child-labor-us-agriculture>
Coalition of Immokolee Workers. *Florida Slavery: Yesterday and Today*. <http://www.ciw-online.org/images/slavery%20brief%20final%20photos.pdf>

¹²³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

¹²⁴ Coalition of Immokolee Workers. *Florida Slavery: Yesterday and Today*. <http://www.ciw-online.org/images/slavery%20brief%20final%20photos.pdf>

identified, as children work in a variety of U.S. crops, although the scope and scale of the children working in citrus specifically has not been identified.¹²⁵

What does trafficking and/or child labor in citrus fruit production look like?

In Belize, children in rural areas work in citrus production either after school or during their time off from school.¹²⁶ Children work during harvest seasons to supplement family income. Boys generally work in the fields, and girls take care of younger siblings or they cook.¹²⁷ During harvest season, many farmers contract out work, and hired workers may be accompanied by their children.¹²⁸

Work in citrus production has some specific hazards: work is often conducted at high heights on top of ladders; workers may also carry heavy bags and are at risk for musculoskeletal disorders.¹²⁹

Citrus Production and Supply Chain:

Citrus production involves four steps: selecting a favorable rootstock to plant citrus trees, planting the tree on suitable soil, watering and fertilizing the trees, and protecting the trees from disease and weather. Sometimes companies will contract out the harvesting of the fruits to individuals. These individuals may then sub-contract out harvesting work, leaving the company with little visibility into the harvesting process.¹³⁰

Within the fresh fruit market, exported fruits usually pass through the packing house for washing, sorting, grading, and packing. The fruits are then sent off to the wholesale market where they are sold to consumers.¹³¹

How do trafficking and/or child labor in citrus fruit production affect me?



The United States is one of the largest consumers of citrus fruits, oranges in particular.¹³²

¹²⁵ Human Rights Watch. *Fields of Peril*. May 2010. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2010/05/05/fields-peril/child-labor-us-agriculture>

¹²⁶ International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC). *Internationally Recognized Core Labor Standards in Belize*. Report for the WTO General Council Review of the Trade Policies of Belize. Geneva. November 5, 2010. http://www.ituc-csi.org/IMG/pdf/Belize_final.pdf

¹²⁷ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Child Labor in Belize: A Qualitative Study*. 2003. http://www.ilo.org/ipec/Informationresources/WCMS_IPEC_PUB_296/lang--en/index.htm

¹²⁸ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Child Labor in Belize: A Qualitative Study*. 2003. http://www.ilo.org/ipec/Informationresources/WCMS_IPEC_PUB_296/lang--en/index.htm

¹²⁹ Western Farms Press. "Safety Tips for a Good Citrus Harvest." 2003. <http://westernfarmpress.com/safety-tips-given-good-citrus-harvest>

¹³⁰ United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Citrus Fruit*. 2009. UNCTAD.org

¹³¹ United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Citrus Fruit*. 2009. UNCTAD.org

¹³² Boriss, Haley. *Citrus*. Agricultural Resources Marketing Center. http://www.agmrc.org/commodities__products/fruits/citrus/citrus-profile/

The United States is the top importer of citrus products from Belize. In the 2007/2008 season alone, the United States bought USD 24 million worth of citrus from Belize. Other popular purchasers include Japan and the EU.¹³³

Examples of what are governments, corporations, and others doing:

In an effort to prevent children from missing school in order to engage in agricultural work, the Turkish government raised the age of compulsory education to 17 in 2012. The government increased the number of labor inspectors in the country by 141 and also launched new programs to address the issue of child labor.¹³⁴ In Belize, there was an awareness raising campaign conducted by the Ministry of Labor and the Department of Human Services in 2011 in order to deter child labor in citrus production. The Belize government also created a 10 year National Plan of Action for Children and Adolescents starting in 2010.¹³⁵

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) an in-depth qualitative study on child labor in Belize.

[Watch](#) a video child labor in agriculture in Brazil.

¹³³ United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Citrus Fruit*. 2009. UNCTAD.org

¹³⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. *Turkey*. 2012
<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2012TDA/turkey.pdf>

¹³⁵ International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC). *Internationally Recognized Core Labor Standards in Belize*. Report for the WTO General Council Review of the Trade Policies of Belize. Geneva. November 5, 2010. http://www.ituc-csi.org/IMG/pdf/Belize_final.pdf

Coal



Coal is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Top ten countries that export coal worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Top ten countries from which the US imports coal (UN Comtrade 2012):

Afghanistan (CL)
China (FL)
Colombia (CL)
India (FL)
Mongolia (CL)
North Korea (FL)
Pakistan (FL, CL)
Ukraine (CL)

1. Indonesia
2. Australia
3. Russia
4. United States
5. South Africa
6. Colombia
7. Kazakhstan
8. Vietnam
9. Netherlands
10. China

1. Colombia
2. Canada
3. Indonesia
4. Venezuela
5. Ukraine
6. China
7. Russia
8. New Zealand
9. Mexico
10. Japan

Where is coal reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, coal is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in China and India.¹³⁶

The 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, reports that coal is produced with forced labor in China, North Korea, and Pakistan, and with child labor in Afghanistan, Colombia, Mongolia, Pakistan, and Ukraine.¹³⁷

¹³⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2015/index.htm>

¹³⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014 http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRR_Report2014.pdf

Afghanistan, Colombia, India and Mongolia are listed by the U.S. Department of State as Tier 2 countries in the 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*. Pakistan, Ukraine and China are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries. North Korea is listed as a Tier 3 country.¹³⁸

What does trafficking and/or child labor in coal look like?

In China, prisoners are forced to work in coal mines for “re-education.” Prisoners working in the coal mines have reported that their earnings are confiscated, they work over 12 hours per day, and they face extreme occupational hazards.¹³⁹ In 2006, coal mining accidents claimed the lives of 4,746 mine workers, an average of roughly 13 workers per day. Furthermore, 45 percent of industrial accidents in China occur in the coal mining industry, though it makes up only 4 percent of the Chinese work force.¹⁴⁰

Debt bondage is reportedly found in coal mining in Pakistan. Many coal miners in Pakistan are poor migrants who are recruited via labor brokers. The labor brokers are engaged by mine owners and pay workers in advance, thus indebting them. Workers are required to pay back their advance via deductions and cannot leave until the advance is paid off. Indebtedness may be passed down to a worker’s children.¹⁴¹

Children engaged in coal mining in Colombia are reportedly exposed to toxic gases, explosives and dangerous chemicals, and they work long hours. They work breaking rocks, digging with picks or their bare hands, removing water from mines, and lifting heavy loads.¹⁴²

¹³⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2015/index.htm>

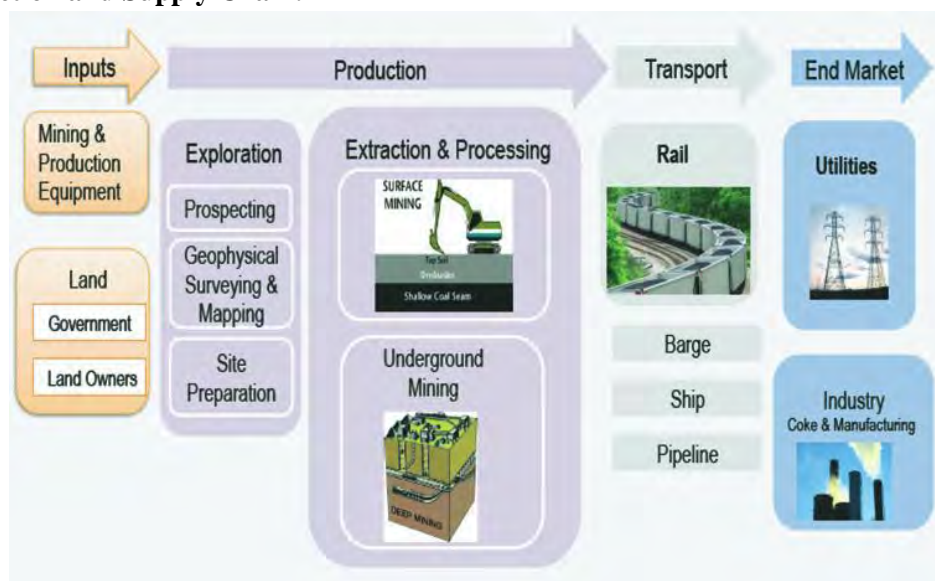
¹³⁹ Radio Free Asia. “Former Prisoners Describe Forced Labor in China’s Coal Mines.” July 10, 2004. http://www.rfa.org/english/news/social/china_inmates-20041007.html

¹⁴⁰ Mehmood, Amber. *Chinese coal mines—the industrial death trap*. The Aga Khan University. September 2009. http://ecommons.aku.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1006&context=pakistan_fhs_mc_emerg_med.

¹⁴¹ International Labor Organization. *A Rapid Assessment of Bonded Labor in Pakistan’s Mining Sector*. 2004. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_082032.pdf

¹⁴² U.S. Department of Labor. *Technical Cooperation Project Summary*. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/projects/summaries/Colombia_CL.pdf

Coal Production and Supply Chain:



Source: Coal News. *The Future of Coal: A View from Washington to the Fall Meeting of the West Virginia Coal Mining Institute.*

<http://www.coalnews.net/papers/February2013/HTML/index.html#/10/zoomed>

Coal can be mined through two processes: surface mining and underground mining. Surface mining is used when coal is near the surface. Underground mining is generally more common than surface mining, and it is more hazardous because workers are required to work underground.¹⁴³

Approximately 85 percent of global coal is used in the country where deposits are mined.¹⁴⁴ However, coal from mines with low production costs and favorable locations near to sea ports can be delivered competitively to overseas consumers with low natural energy resources.

How do trafficking and/or child labor in coal production affect me?



Coal is primarily used as a fuel source and for electricity generation. It is also used in steel production and cement manufacturing. Global coal consumption has increased rapidly over the past 15 years, and China, the United States, India, Russia, and Japan collectively use over 75 percent of the world's coal.¹⁴⁵

¹⁴³ World Coal. *Coal Mining*. <http://www.worldcoal.org/coal/coal-mining/>.

¹⁴⁴ Better Coal. *Terms of Reference for Developing a Code for Responsible Coal Mining*. <http://bettercoal.org/docs/terms-of-reference.pdf>

¹⁴⁵ World Coal Association. *Uses of Coal*. <http://www.worldcoal.org/coal/uses-of-coal/>

Of the top ten coal exporting countries to the United States, three (Columbia, Ukraine, and China) produce coal with forced or child labor.¹⁴⁶

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Bettercoal, a multi-company initiative, has developed the Bettercoal Code, which establishes voluntary standards for social and environmental responsibility in coal mining. The standards can be used as the basis for self-assessments and third-party verification.¹⁴⁷

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) this account of a coal mine collapse in Afghanistan.

¹⁴⁶ Wodopia, F. J. *Global Energy and Policy Coal*. UNCTAD. March 2013.

http://unctad.org/meetings/en/Presentation/SUC_MYEM2013_20032013_F%20J%20%20WOPODIA.pdf.

¹⁴⁷ Better Coal. *Terms of Reference for Developing a Code for Responsible Coal Mining*. <http://bettercoal.org/docs/terms-of-reference.pdf>

Cocoa



Cocoa is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce cocoa worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export cocoa worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ¹⁴⁸	Top ten countries that import cocoa worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ¹⁴⁹
Cameroon (CL, FL)	1. Côte d'Ivoire	1. Côte d'Ivoire	1. Netherlands
Côte d'Ivoire (CL, FL)	2. Ghana	2. Ghana	2. United States
Ghana (CL)	3. Indonesia	3. Cameroon	3. Germany
Guinea (CL)	4. Brazil	4. Ecuador	4. Belgium
Nigeria (CL, FL)	5. Cameroon	5. Belgium	5. Malaysia
Congo, Republic of the (FL)	6. Nigeria	6. Netherlands	6. France
Sierra Leone (CL)	7. Ecuador	7. Nigeria	7. Spain
Togo (FL)	8. Peru	8. Dominican Republic	8. Italy
	9. Dominican Republic	9. Malaysia	9. Singapore
	10. Colombia	10. Peru	10. Turkey

Where is cocoa reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, cocoa is listed as being produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Cameroon, Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire (CDI) and Togo.¹⁵⁰

¹⁴⁸ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

¹⁴⁹ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

¹⁵⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

According to the U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, cocoa is produced with child and forced labor in CDI and Nigeria and with child labor in Cameroon, Ghana, Guinea, and Sierra Leone.¹⁵¹

Nigeria, Togo and Sierra Leone are listed as Tier 2 countries by the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*. Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, and Republic of the Congo are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.¹⁵²

What does trafficking and/or child labor in cocoa production look like?

In CDI, trafficking has been documented among migrant workers – particularly teenage boys coming from neighboring countries of Burkina Faso and Mali. A report by Anti-Slavery International found that these boys had been promised work by recruiters, but upon their arrival at the isolated cocoa farms, were subjected to unsafe work and living conditions and not paid.¹⁵³ There have been reports of similar recruitment systems in Nigeria but significantly less research has been conducted there.¹⁵⁴ Older teenagers who have migrated voluntarily also work in cocoa production.¹⁵⁵ Children migrating voluntarily may be motivated by the desire to earn an independent income to support themselves or their families, to seek schooling, or to build social capital or life experience.¹⁵⁶

The U.S. Department of State Reported that in the Republic of Congo, “some child trafficking victims are also subjected to forced labor... in agricultural sectors, including in cocoa fields in Sangha department.”¹⁵⁷

Child labor occurs in cocoa production as well. According to a report from Tulane University, 1.8 million children in West Africa are involved in growing cocoa.¹⁵⁸ Most children working in cocoa production work within family structures.¹⁵⁹ Some of this labor is “kinship” or foster labor, that is, children living

¹⁵¹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*.

<https://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/list-of-goods/>

¹⁵² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

¹⁵³ Robson, Paul. Anti-Slavery International. Ending Child Trafficking in West Africa Lessons from the Ivorian cocoa sector. 2011. http://www.antislavery.org/includes/documents/cm_docs/2011/c/cocoa_report_for_website.pdf

¹⁵⁴ International Institute of Tropical Agriculture. Labor practices in the cocoa sector of southwest Nigeria with a focus on the role of children. 2002. http://www.iita.org/c/document_library/get_file?p_l_id=98898&folderId=104025&name=DLFE-1141.pdf

¹⁵⁵ Massart, Guy S. International Cocoa Initiative. *A Study of Child Mobility and Migrant Flows to the Cocoa-Producing Communities in Ghana*. 2012. As cited in: *Children at the Heart*. 2016.

https://www.cocoalife.org/~media/CocoaLife/en/download//article/FULL_REPORT_Ghana_Mondelez_Embode_ChildrenattheHeart.pdf

¹⁵⁶ Massart, Guy S. International Cocoa Initiative. *A Study of Child Mobility and Migrant Flows to the Cocoa-Producing Communities in Ghana*. 2012. As cited in: *Children at the Heart*. 2016.

https://www.cocoalife.org/~media/CocoaLife/en/download//article/FULL_REPORT_Ghana_Mondelez_Embode_ChildrenattheHeart.pdf

Hashim, Iman; Thorsen, Dorte. *Child Migration in Africa*. 2011. <http://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:387010/FULLTEXT01.pdf>

¹⁵⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

¹⁵⁸ Tulane University. 2013/14 *Survey Research on Child Labor in West African Cocoa Growing Areas*. July 15, 2015.

http://www.childlaborcocoa.org/images/Payson_Reports/Tulane%20University%20University%20Survey%20Research%20on%20Child%20Labor%20in%20the%20Cocoa%20Sector%20-%2030%20July%202015.pdf

¹⁵⁹ Embode; Commissioned by Mondelez International. *Children at the Heart*. 2016.

https://www.cocoalife.org/~media/CocoaLife/en/download//article/FULL_REPORT_Ghana_Mondelez_Embode_ChildrenattheHeart.pdf

and working with extended family members within well-established kinship networks.¹⁶⁰ Many cocoa growing communities are rural and isolated, lacking infrastructure and adequate educational opportunities, which can raise the risk for child labor.¹⁶¹

Children working in cocoa can be exposed to pesticides and are often injured by machetes used in harvesting.¹⁶² They are also vulnerable to musculoskeletal disorders, eye injuries, skin rashes, and coughing. They often lack access to protective equipment.¹⁶³

A 2015 report published by Tulane University compared the 2008-2009 cocoa harvest cycle to the 2013-2014 harvest cycle in terms of active child labor in both CDI and Ghana. The report found that child labor in Ghana decreased by 6 percent between the two harvest cycles, from 0.93 million children in 2008-2009 to 0.88 million children in 2013 - 2014.¹⁶⁴ The report found that in CDI, child labor increased by 46 percent between the two harvest cycles, rising from 0.79 million children in 2008 - 2009 to 1.15 million children in 2013-2014. One noted root cause of the increase was the overall increase in cocoa production.¹⁶⁵

Cocoa Production and Supply Chain:

According to the World Cocoa Foundation, between five and six million cocoa farmers exist worldwide and between 40 and 50 million people depend on cocoa for their livelihood.¹⁶⁶ While most labor on small farms is likely provided by family members of the producer, hired workers have also been noted.¹⁶⁷

¹⁶⁰ Boas, Morten and Anne Huser. *Child Labor and Cocoa Production in West Africa*. Fafo. 2006. <http://www.fafo.no/pub/rapp/522/522.pdf>

¹⁶¹ International Cocoa Initiative. *Sustainable Development Goals: Child Labour in the Cocoa Sector*. March 2017. <http://www.cocoainitiative.org/news-media-post/sustainable-development-goals-child-labour-in-the-cocoa-sector/>

¹⁶² Hawksley, Humphrey. "Ivory Coast Cocoa Farms Child Labor: Little Change." *BBC News*. November 10, 2011. <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-africa-15681986>

¹⁶³ Mull, Diane L and Steven R Kirkhorn. *Child Labor in Ghana Cocoa Production: Focus upon Agricultural Tasks, Ergonomic Exposures, and Associated Injuries and Illnesses*. Public Health Reports. December 2005.

¹⁶⁴ Tulane University. *2013/14 Survey Research on Child Labor in West African Cocoa Growing Areas*. July 15, 2015. http://www.childlaborcocoa.org/images/Payson_Reports/Tulane%20University%20-%20Survey%20Research%20on%20Child%20Labor%20in%20the%20Cocoa%20Sector%20-%2030%20July%202015.pdf

¹⁶⁵ Tulane University. *2013/14 Survey Research on Child Labor in West African Cocoa Growing Areas*. July 15, 2015. http://www.childlaborcocoa.org/images/Payson_Reports/Tulane%20University%20-%20Survey%20Research%20on%20Child%20Labor%20in%20the%20Cocoa%20Sector%20-%2030%20July%202015.pdf
World Cocoa Foundation. *Reducing Child Labor is a Shared Responsibility*. July 30, 2015. <http://worldcocoafoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/FINAL-WCF-Press-Release-Response-2015-Tulane-Report-July-30.pdf>

¹⁶⁶ World Cocoa Federation. *Cocoa Market Update*. March 2012. <http://worldcocoafoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/Cocoa-Market-Update-as-of-3.20.2012.pdf>

¹⁶⁷ Fair Labor Association. *Sustainable Management of Nestlé's Cocoa Supply Chain in the Ivory Coast—Focus on Labor Standards*. June 2012. http://www.fairlabor.org/sites/default/files/documents/reports/cocoa-report-final_0.pdf
International Cocoa Initiative. *Researching the Impact of Increased Cocoa Yields on the Labour Market and Child Labour Risk in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire*. 2016. <http://www.cocoainitiative.org/knowledge-centre-post/labour-market-research-study-full-study/>
Marjolien, Selten, et. al. *Certification and wage labour in the cocoa sector in Ghana*. 2015. <http://www.cocoaconnect.org/publication/certification-and-wage-labour-cocoa-sector-ghana>
UTZ. *Impact of UTZ Certification on Cocoa Producers in Ghana*. 2016. <https://www.utz.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Impact-of-UTZ-certification-on-cocoa-producers-in-Ghana-2011-2014.pdf>

Over 70 percent of cocoa is grown in the West African countries of CDI, Ghana, Nigeria, and Cameroon.¹⁶⁸ CDI alone represents 40 percent of global cocoa production. The majority of West African cocoa comes from small family farms under five acres in size. Due to the small average size of producers, cooperatives and other producer organizations can play an important role in enabling market access. These cooperatives may participate in voluntary certification programs.¹⁶⁹

Many cocoa farmers live on less than one dollar a day.¹⁷⁰ Reports have noted that low-incomes for producers impacts the well-being of workers on farms.¹⁷¹ Input costs include tools, protective clothing/boots, hired labor/sharecropping (if applicable), local transportation, cooperative membership (if applicable), pesticides, seedlings.¹⁷²

Farmers harvest cocoa pods, often using machetes. The pods are opened and the beans are removed. After the beans ferment for several days, and the pulp melts away, the beans are spread out to dry in the sun. After the beans are dried, they're stored in sacks before being picked up by collectors or transporters. After processing, the beans are exported to the global market, where they are purchased by manufacturers.¹⁷³

¹⁶⁸ World Cocoa Federation. *About Cocoa*. <http://www.worldcocoafoundation.org/learn-about-cocoa/tree-to-table/how-chocolate-is-made.asp>

World Cocoa Foundation. *Our Approach*. <http://worldcocoafoundation.org/our-work/our-approach/>

¹⁶⁹ GEFAC mbH. *Study on the state of farmer cooperatives in the cocoa sector of Côte d'Ivoire*. 2015.

http://www.kakaoforum.de/fileadmin/user_uploads/Studien_und_Pr%C3%A4sentationen/GISCO_COOP_Report_GEFAC_Draft_3_ENG_20150501.pdf

F.E., Omoregbee; D.U., Okoedo-Okojie. Assessment of the Role of Cooperative Societies in Cocoa Production by Smallholders in Owan-West Local Government Area of Edo State, Nigeria. 2008. <http://www.agrosciencejournal.com/public/agro7-8.pdf>.

Fairtrade International, Fairtrade Africa. *Fair Trade Cocoa in West Africa*. 2014.

www.fairtrade.net/fileadmin/user_upload/content/2009/resources/Fairtrade-cocoa-WestAfrica-report_2014.pdf

¹⁷⁰ International Cocoa Initiative. *Sustainable Development Goals: Child Labour in the Cocoa Sector*. March 2017.

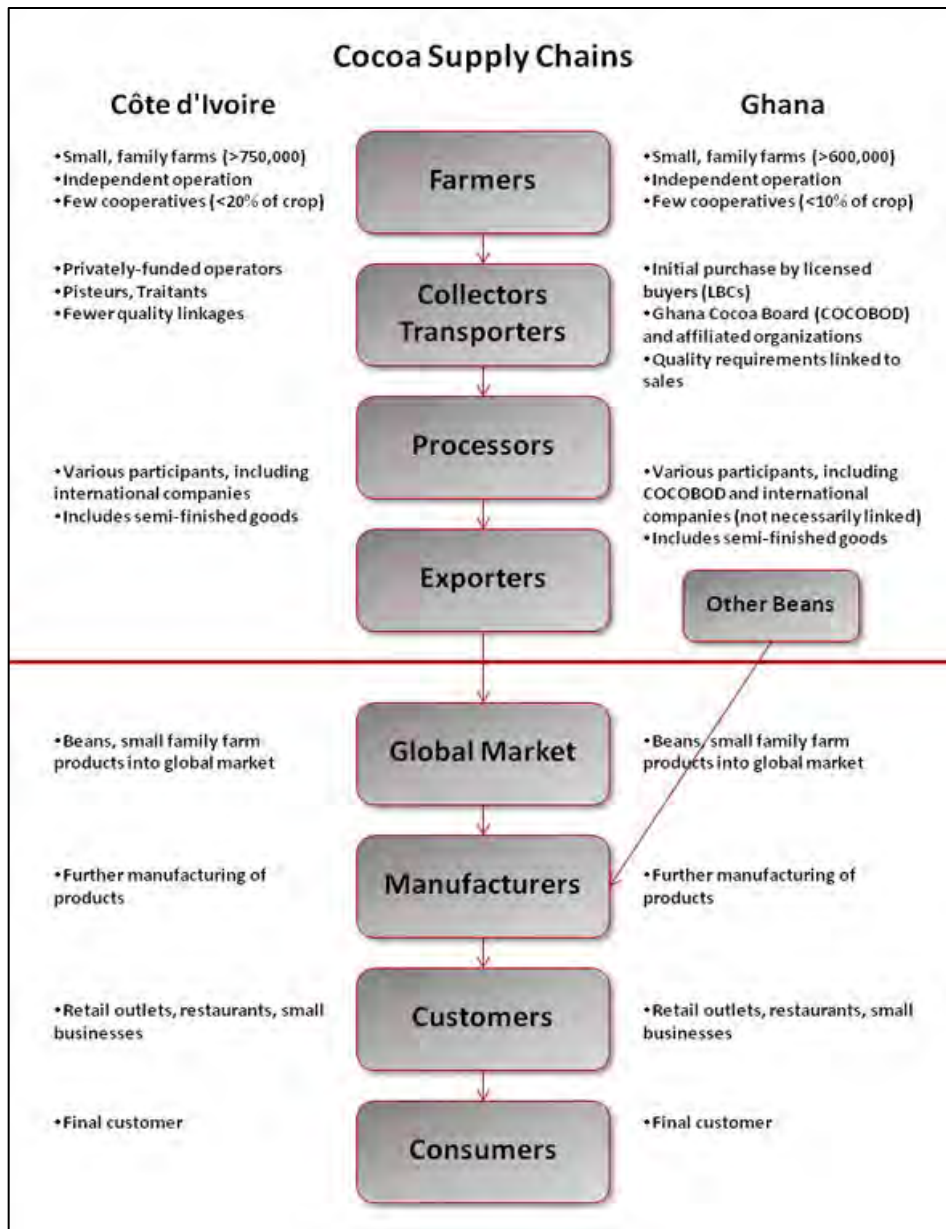
<http://www.cocoainitiative.org/news-media-post/sustainable-development-goals-child-labour-in-the-cocoa-sector/>

¹⁷¹ IDH and Fair Price. The True Price of Cocoa from Ivory Coast. 2016. <http://www.chocolatemakers.nl/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/TP-Cocoa.pdf>

International Labor Rights Forum. Fairness Gap. 2014. <http://www.laborrights.org/publications/fairness-gap>

¹⁷² Cocoa Barometer. [Cocoabarometer.org](http://cocoabarometer.org)

¹⁷³ International Cocoa Organization (ICCO). *How Exactly is Cocoa Harvested?* <https://www.icco.org/faq/58-cocoa-harvesting/130-how-exactly-is-cocoa-harvested.html>



Source: US Department of Labor. Bureau of International Labor Affairs. Reducing Child Labor and Forced Labor. Cocoa Supply Chains (Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana)

Most of the processing takes place in the United States or Europe, notably Germany, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Belgium and the United Kingdom. Though cocoa processing and trade is centralized, industry groups argue that tracing cocoa usage to the actual farms where cocoa is grown is not currently possible in many cases due to the high number of middlemen, which prevents industry groups from directly monitoring their suppliers.¹⁷⁴

¹⁷⁴ Hawksley, Humphrey. BBC News. "Ivory Coast Cocoa Farms Child Labor: Little Change." November 10, 2011. <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-africa-15681986>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in cocoa production affect me?



Cocoa is the key ingredient of chocolate but also an important element of many cosmetics and soaps, pharmaceutical products, and baked goods which feature cocoa butter.

Europe consumes nearly 50 percent of the world's chocolate, and the United States consumes approximately 25 percent.¹⁷⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Due to high-profile advocacy from a number of organizations alleging the use of forced child labor in cocoa production, the confectionary industry and the Governments of Ghana, CDI, and the United States signed the Harkin-Engle Protocol committed to addressing child and forced labor in Ghana and CDI.¹⁷⁶ As part of this effort, the governments of Ghana and CDI successfully completed household surveys of child labor in the cocoa sector, the results of which were independently verified by third parties. Civil society, business, and government representatives oversaw this process through a multi-stakeholder body known as the International Cocoa Verification Board. An extension, known as the Joint Action Plan, was launched on September 13, 2010. The Action Plan commits a combined USD 17 million over ten years to build capacity in cocoa growing communities and to increase efforts to reduce the worst forms of child labor in cocoa production in Ghana and CDI by 70 percent by 2020.¹⁷⁷

In 2015, the U.S. Department of Labor committed USD 12 million in funding to combat child labor in cocoa growing regions in west Africa.¹⁷⁸

The International Cocoa Initiative (ICI) is an industry-funded multi-stakeholder initiative that focuses on the elimination of child labor in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire. Under this goal, the ICI works to mobilize community child labor protection committees and provides awareness raising around child labor and child-protection issues, as well as working to improve access to education and other social services in cocoa growing communities.¹⁷⁹ The ICI has reported that in the communities in which it works, school enrollment rates have increased by more than 20 percent. The ICI has developed and implemented – in

¹⁷⁵ CNN Freedom Project. "Who Consumes the Most Chocolate?" January 7, 2012.

<http://thecnnfreedomproject.blogs.cnn.com/2012/01/17/who-consumes-the-most-chocolate>

¹⁷⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. *A Story of Chocolate and Child Labor*. <https://blog.dol.gov/2015/07/30/a-story-of-chocolate-and-child-labor/>

¹⁷⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. *A Story of Chocolate and Child Labor*. <https://blog.dol.gov/2015/07/30/a-story-of-chocolate-and-child-labor/>

¹⁷⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. *A Story of Chocolate and Child Labor*. <https://blog.dol.gov/2015/07/30/a-story-of-chocolate-and-child-labor/>

¹⁷⁹ Internationalcocoainitiative.org

partnership with companies – the Child Labor Monitoring and Remediation System, which reportedly has high rates of child labor identification.¹⁸⁰ CLMRS was developed and piloted in one company’s supply chain in Côte d’Ivoire, before being adopted by nine companies in the 2015 CocoaAction Strategy. The CocoaAction strategy committed these companies to extend CLMRS so 300,000 farmers are covered by 2020. ICI and seven of its member companies expand CLMRS coverage to almost 100,000 farmers.¹⁸¹

The World Cocoa Foundation, funded by cocoa industry members, seeks to improve livelihoods in cocoa farming communities and families worldwide.¹⁸² In May 2014, the WCF and cocoa companies established CocoaAction which works in consultation with the governments of Ghana and CDI to advance sustainability and improve livelihoods in a planned 1,200 cocoa growing communities.¹⁸³

Product certification is a consumer-facing tool that provides economic, social and environmental standards for producers and producer groups. The major sustainability standards with a labor component in African cocoa production are Fair Trade, Rainforest Alliance and UTZ. In addition to the social and environmental standards, Rainforest Alliance and UTZ focus on increasing producer productivity and product quality. Fair Trade focuses on increasing profit shares earned by producers and coops; Fair Trade buyers pay a higher price which farmers receive in a minimum price as well as a premium paid to cooperatives. Fair Trade chocolate production represents about 38 percent of certified cocoa globally. Côte d’Ivoire and Ghana both produce Fair Trade Certified cocoa. Nearly 9 percent of global cocoa production is certified by Rainforest Alliance.¹⁸⁴ About 13 percent of global cocoa production is certified by UTZ.¹⁸⁵

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a short video by the International Labor Organization (ILO) on child labor in Cameroon.

[Read](#) a manual by the ILO on best practices for reducing child labor in cocoa farms.

¹⁸⁰ International Cocoa Initiative. *Sustainable Development Goals: Child Labour in the Cocoa Sector*. March 2017. <http://www.cocoainitiative.org/news-media-post/sustainable-development-goals-child-labour-in-the-cocoa-sector/>

¹⁸¹ International Cocoa Initiative. *Sustainable Development Goals: Child Labour in the Cocoa Sector*. March 2017. <http://www.cocoainitiative.org/news-media-post/sustainable-development-goals-child-labour-in-the-cocoa-sector/>

¹⁸² World Cocoa Foundation. *Our Approach*. <http://worldcocoafoundation.org/our-work/our-approach/>

¹⁸³ World Cocoa Foundation. *Reducing Child Labor is a Shared Responsibility*. July 30, 2015.

<http://worldcocoafoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/FINAL-WCF-Press-Release-Response-2015-Tulane-Report-July-30.pdf>

¹⁸⁴ Potts, Jason; et. al. International Institute for Sustainable Development; International Institute for Environment and Development; Finance Alliance for Sustainable Trade; ENTWINED Research Consortium and the Sustainable Trade Initiative. *State of Sustainability Initiatives*. 2014. https://www.iisd.org/pdf/2014/ssi_2014.pdf

¹⁸⁵ Potts, Jason; et. al. International Institute for Sustainable Development; International Institute for Environment and Development; Finance Alliance for Sustainable Trade; ENTWINED Research Consortium and the Sustainable Trade Initiative. *State of Sustainability Initiatives*. 2014. https://www.iisd.org/pdf/2014/ssi_2014.pdf

Coffee



Coffee is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce coffee worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export coffee worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ¹⁸⁶	Top ten countries that import coffee worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ¹⁸⁷
Côte d'Ivoire (CDI) (FL, CL)	1. Brazil	1. Brazil	1. United States
Colombia (CL)	2. Vietnam	2. Colombia	2. Germany
Costa Rica (CL)	3. Colombia	3. Vietnam	3. France
Dominican Republic (CL)	4. Indonesia	4. Germany	4. Italy
Guatemala (CL)	5. Ethiopia	5. Switzerland	5. Japan
Guinea (CL)	6. India	6. Italy	6. Canada
Honduras (CL)	7. Honduras	7. Indonesia	7. Belgium
El Salvador (CL)	8. Guatemala	8. Belgium	8. Netherlands
Kenya (CL)	9. Peru	9. Ethiopia	9. Spain
Mexico (FL, CL)	10. Uganda	10. United States	10. United Kingdom
Nicaragua (CL)			
Panama (CL)			
Sierra Leone (CL)			
Tanzania (CL)			
Togo (FL)			
Uganda (CL)			
Vietnam (CL)			

¹⁸⁶ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

¹⁸⁷ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

Where is coffee reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the 2016 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, coffee is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Côte d'Ivoire, Mexico, and Togo.¹⁸⁸

The U.S. Department of Labor's 2016 *List of Goods Made with Forced Labor and Child Labor* indicates that coffee is produced with forced labor and child labor in Côte d'Ivoire (CDI) and with child labor in Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Guinea, Honduras, El Salvador, Kenya, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, and Vietnam.¹⁸⁹

Verité research has identified indicators of forced labor in the Guatemalan and Mexican coffee sectors.¹⁹⁰ Investigations by Danwatch and Finnwatch have uncovered indicators of forced labor in the Brazilian coffee sector,¹⁹¹ while a 2016 Danwatch report found indicators of forced labor in the Guatemalan coffee sector,¹⁹² and a recent Univision/Weather Channel documentary found child labor, degrading living conditions, and a lack of inspections in the Mexican coffee sector.¹⁹³

Colombia is listed as a Tier 1 country by the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*. CDI, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Kenya, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Sierra Leone, Togo, Uganda, and Vietnam are listed as Tier 2 countries. Costa Rica, Guinea and Tanzania are Tier 2 Watch List Countries.¹⁹⁴

What does trafficking and/or child labor in coffee production look like?

Few large-scale studies have been carried out on human trafficking in the coffee sector; however, in-depth research carried out by Verité in Guatemala and anecdotal reports in other countries confirm its existence. Some larger plantations, such as in Guatemala, may recruit workers via labor brokers, leaving workers vulnerable to debt bondage and other indicators of forced labor.¹⁹⁵ Other risk factors that make workers more vulnerable include the hiring of temporary and migrant workers, as well as workers' inability to leave coffee farms until the end of harvest, as is sometimes the case in Brazil, Mexico, and Guatemala.

¹⁸⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

¹⁸⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016. https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPRA_Report2016.pdf

¹⁹⁰ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Coffee in Guatemala*. 2012. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Guatemala%20Coffee%20Sector__9.16.pdf

¹⁹¹ FinnWatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016.

https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf

DanWatch. *You may be drinking coffee grown under slavery-like, life-threatening conditions*. March 10, 2016.

<https://www.danwatch.dk/en/nyhed/du-risikerer-at-drikke-kaffe-dyrket-under-slavelignende-forhold/>

¹⁹² Hjerl Hansen, Julie. *Bitter Coffee – Guatemala*. Danwatch. September 8, 2016.

<https://www.danwatch.dk/en/undersogelse/bitter-coffee-guatemala/>

¹⁹³ The Weather Channel and Telemundo. "The Source: The human cost hidden within a cup of coffee." January 19, 2017.

<http://thesourcefilm.com/>

¹⁹⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

¹⁹⁵ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Coffee in Guatemala*. 2012.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Guatemala%20Coffee%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Minimum wage violations are also common, for example, in Guatemala, even on farms producing gourmet coffee.¹⁹⁶

According to the U.S. Department of State, “several managers of a coffee plantation involved in the forced labor of indigenous Guatemalan children” were arrested in Mexico.¹⁹⁷

Smallholder coffee farms rely heavily on family labor, and children are likely to work on family farms. On larger plantations, children may work alongside their parents either to supplement their families’ income, to help parents meet their production quotas, or because the children of migrant parents have nowhere else to go during the day if they are not enrolled in school.¹⁹⁸ Children involved in coffee production take on a variety of tasks including picking and sorting berries, pruning trees, weeding, fertilizing, and transporting beans and other supplies. Work in coffee production leaves children vulnerable to injuries from tools and equipment, hearing loss due to machinery, musculoskeletal injuries, respiratory illness, pesticide exposure, sun and heat exposure, snake and insect bites, long working hours, and withdrawal from school.¹⁹⁹

A 2016 study by Finnwatch reported that child labor, including among children as young as 5-6 years old, appeared to be common on coffee plantations visited in Honduras.²⁰⁰ Working children in that study were not the children of the farm owners, but instead were hired directly or worked alongside their parents.²⁰¹

Case Study:

Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Coffee in Guatemala

Verité conducted research in the coffee industry in Guatemala and found indicators of forced labor in coffee estates among migrant workers, workers who lived near the estates, and workers who lived on the estates year-round. Although the workers were free to enter and leave the estates, there were some restrictions on their movement during working hours, and guards were present. Workers were subjected to threats and verbal abuse, and many were fearful of their employers. Researchers also found indicators of forced labor, including induced indebtedness, the use of unscrupulous labor brokers, the confiscation of identification documents, and the absence of written contracts. Some workers were threatened with a loss of employment, food, or future employment if they tried to leave the estates before the end of the harvest season or if they failed to harvest enough coffee.²⁰²

¹⁹⁶ Finnwatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016. https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf

¹⁹⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

¹⁹⁸ Global Exchange. *Coffee FAQ*. <http://www.globalexchange.org/fairtrade/coffee/faq#1>

Fair Trade USA. *Child Labor in Coffee Supply Chains*. January 27, 2017. https://fairtradeusa.org/press-room/press_release/child-labor-coffee-supply-chains

¹⁹⁹ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Safety and Health Fact Sheet: Hazardous Child Labour in Agriculture: Coffee*. 2004.

²⁰⁰ Finnwatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016. https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf

²⁰¹ Finnwatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016. https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf

²⁰² Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Coffee in Guatemala*. 2012.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Guatemala%20Coffee%20Sector__9.16.pdf

According to the Guatemalan Labor Code, manual workers must be paid every fifteen days. However, in the Guatemalan coffee sector, workers were usually paid every month or at the end of the harvest, which encouraged the workers to stay on the estates until the harvest season was over. Many workers were paid according to a quota system. Workers were subject to hazardous working conditions, including the use of pesticides, without consistent medical care. Almost all workers interviewed by Verité (98.9 percent) reported that the estates on which they were last employed used child laborers, some as young as five years old. Children working in the coffee industry are forced to interrupt their education and are subject to dangerous working conditions.²⁰³

A November 2015 study carried out by Danwatch confirmed the presence of forced labor indicators. Researchers found that many workers were subject to physical confinement and abuse at the workplace and that some internal migrants temporarily living on the estates were housed in unsanitary and uncomfortable living quarters and were not given sufficient rations.²⁰⁴

A number of recent studies have been conducted on the Brazilian coffee sector, including one by Finnwatch in 2015 and another by Catholic Relief Services and Repórter Brasil carried out from October 2013 through mid-2014. Both found indicators of forced labor on a number of farms. Brazil's 2014 "Dirty List" named 16 farms from which 400 workers were freed by labor inspectors, and in 2016, 213 workers were freed from an additional ten farms. Most of those workers had been recruited by labor brokers, referred to as *gatos*, who sometimes retain workers' documents or charge fees for various services that are subsequently deducted from worker salaries, including transportation, food, accommodation, supervision, and payroll. Workers' freedom of movement was restricted due to document retention, as well as by threats of violence. Between 40 and 50 percent of temporary workers in Brazil's coffee sector did not have employment contracts, leaving them without access to benefits and vulnerable to other violations. Wage violations were common, with some workers reporting irregular, late, and underpayment of wages, or even no payment at all. Workers were subjected to dangerous working conditions on Brazilian coffee farms, with many workers receiving little or no access to personal protective equipment, shelter from the sun, or drinking water.²⁰⁵

²⁰³ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Coffee in Guatemala*. 2012. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Guatemala%20Coffee%20Sector__9.16.pdf

²⁰⁴ DanWatch. *You may be drinking coffee grown under slavery-like, life-threatening conditions*. March 10, 2016. <https://www.danwatch.dk/en/nyhed/du-risikerer-at-drikke-kaffe-dyrket-under-slavelignende-forhold/>

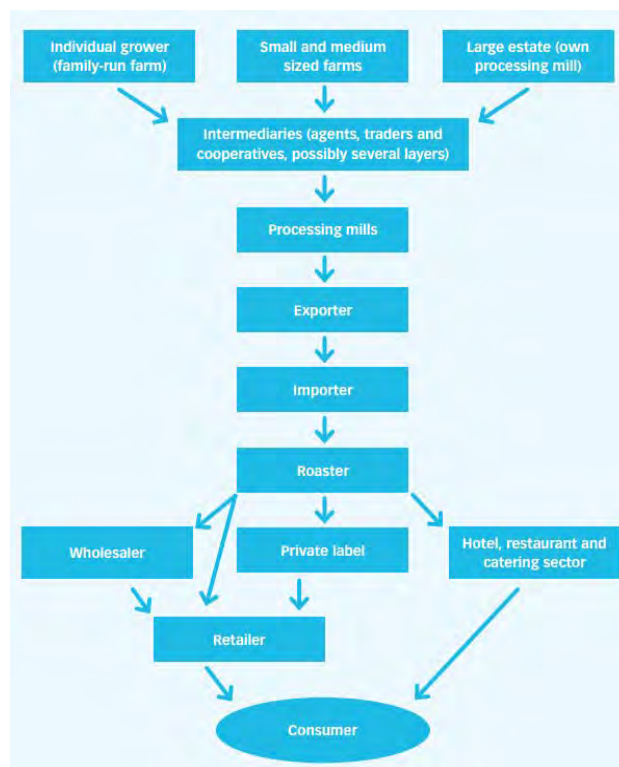
²⁰⁵ Finnwatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016. https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf
Catholic Relief Services and Repórter Brasil. *Farmworker Protections and Labor Conditions in Brazil's Coffee Sector*. Coffeelands Program. 2016. <http://coffeelands.crs.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/CRS-Policy-Brief-Farmworker-Protections-and-Labor-Conditions-in-Brazil%E2%80%99s-Coffee-Sector.pdf>

Coffee Production and Supply Chain:

The majority of coffee is grown by smallholder farms.²⁰⁶ Coffee is also grown on larger plantations that employ both permanent and temporary labor.²⁰⁷ Coffee production provides a livelihood for over 26 million people worldwide.²⁰⁸

Coffee plants bear fruit approximately three to four years after planting, and the fruit turns red when it is ready to be harvested. Harvesting the coffee bean is labor intensive. Beans are either “strip picked” or “selectively picked.” If beans are strip picked, all beans are harvested at one time. When beans are selectively picked, only the ripe berries are picked. Picking selectively is more labor intensive, and often reserved for higher quality beans. There are one or two major harvests per year and pickers average approximately 100-200 pounds of coffee beans a day. Workers are normally paid by the weight of beans picked.²⁰⁹

After coffee is harvested, the seeds are dried either by the sun or, on more mechanized plantations, by machine. Beans are then hulled, sorted, and graded for quality before being roasted. Labor trafficking may occur at all stages of production, but it is most likely to occur in harvesting.



Typical Coffee Supply Chain (Finnwatch 2016)

²⁰⁶ Oxfam. *Grounds for Change*. April 2006. <https://www.oxfam.org/sites/www.oxfam.org/files/coffee.pdf>

²⁰⁷ Finnwatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016.

https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf

²⁰⁸ International Coffee Organization (ICO). *Employment generated by the coffee sector*. 2010.

<http://www.ico.org/documents/icc-105-5e-employment.pdf>

²⁰⁹ National Coffee Association. *10 Steps to Coffee from Seed to Cup*. <http://www.ncausa.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=69>

Coffee prices are set by the New York “C” contract market. Trading and speculation can lead to fluctuating prices. Changes in global supply also affect prices. Droughts or other supply chain disruptions – particularly in Brazil, the world’s largest producer – increase the price. Specialty coffee may be imported at a higher negotiated price, but according to Global Exchange, farmers often do not benefit from this premium, which provides a disincentive for increased quality in production.²¹⁰ Coffee prices tend to be volatile,²¹¹ and this volatility can put strong downward pressure on coffee farmers and plantations to decrease all input costs, including labor, which is often the only input over which they have control. Labor reportedly accounts for up to 70 percent of production costs.²¹² When prices are particularly low, farmers sell their beans for less than the cost of production, leaving many coffee producing families far below the poverty line.²¹³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in coffee production affect me?



Coffee is one of the most commonly consumed beverages in the world. According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), coffee is the second most traded commodity worldwide after oil.²¹⁴ The United States imports the most coffee from Brazil, Vietnam, Colombia, Guatemala, and Mexico.²¹⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

There are a number of sustainability certifications including 4C Association, Fairtrade, Rainforest Alliance, and UTZ Certified. Some companies have their own certifications and standards, such as Nespresso AAA Sustainable Quality and Starbucks Coffee and Farmer Equity (C.A.F.E.) Practices. Approximately 40 percent of global production was produced with voluntary certification in 2012.²¹⁶ These certifications have varying levels of social standards, and many do not cover common indicators of trafficking, such as recruitment fees, document retention, indebtedness, and restrictions on workers’ freedom of movement. Some, such as Organic certification, include no standards on social compliance,

²¹⁰ Global Exchange. *Coffee FAQ*. <http://www.globalexchange.org/fairtrade/coffee/faq#1>

²¹¹ Oxfam. *Grounds for Change*. April 2006. <https://www.oxfam.org/sites/www.oxfam.org/files/coffee.pdf>

²¹² Fair Trade USA. *Child Labor in Coffee Supply Chains*. January 27, 2017. https://fairtradeusa.org/press-room/press_release/child-labor-coffee-supply-chains

²¹³ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Safety and Health Fact Sheet: Hazardous Child Labour in Agriculture: Coffee*. 2004.

²¹⁴ UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Commodities Atlas: Coffee*. 2004.

http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditcom20041ch4_en.pdf

²¹⁵ UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

²¹⁶ Potts, Jason, Matthew Lynch, Ann Wilkings, Gabriel Huppé, Maxine Cunningham, and Vivek Voora. *The State of Sustainability Initiatives Review: Standards and the Green Economy*. International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) and the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). 2014. https://www.iisd.org/pdf/2014/ssi_2014.pdf

and therefore provide no safeguards against labor violations.²¹⁷ Furthermore, many of the certifications utilize a “square root” methodology to select farms for inspections, meaning that in large markets, just 0.5 percent of farms are inspected every three years, meaning that it would take hundreds of years to inspect all of the farms in the supply chain.²¹⁸

Verité research, along with investigations carried out by Danwatch, Finnwatch, Repórter Brasil, and Univision/The Weather Channel have detected child labor, trafficking indicators, and other violations on certified farms, including among temporary contract workers hired by cooperative farms during the labor intensive harvest season, so it is imperative that compliance be monitored. A Finnwatch investigation in Brazil uncovered signs of trafficking on certified farms.²¹⁹

Coffee company Keurig Green Mountain partnered with Verité in 2015 to research recruitment and working conditions and worker needs in the Guatemalan coffee sector and to conduct trainings for workers, government officials, local NGO representatives, and coffee producers, traders and brands. The project, with funding from both Keurig and the U.S. Department of State’s Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor, also includes mapping Keurig’s supply chain and building a grievance reporting and information dissemination (GRID) system to monitor and improve labor practices.²²⁰ Nestlé and Jacobs Douwe Egberts (JDE), which together account for almost half of the global coffee market, have also responded to allegations of forced labor on farms they source from by updating their human rights policies and requiring compliance from their suppliers.²²¹

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) a summary of the global coffee trade.

[Read](#) Verité’s full report on force labor indicators in Guatemala’s Coffee industry.

[Read](#) Finnwatch’s in-depth investigation of the Brazilian coffee sector.

[Check out](#) Danwatch’s work on the Brazilian and Guatemalan coffee sectors.

²¹⁷ Specialty Coffee Association. *Sustainable Coffee Certifications: A Comparison Matrix*. 2009.

<https://www.scaa.org/PDF/SustainableCoffeeCertificationsComparisonMatrix.pdf>

<http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdf/UW/UW35100.pdf>

²¹⁸ The Weather Channel and Telemundo. “The Source: The human cost hidden within a cup of coffee.” January 19, 2017.

<http://thesourcefilm.com/>

²¹⁹ Finnwatch. *Brewing up a sustainable coffee supply chain*. April 2016.

https://www.finnwatch.org/images/pdf/FW_Coffee_report_18102016.pdf

²²⁰ Verité. *Improving Supply Chain Transparency, Monitoring and Accountability in Guatemala’s Coffee Sector*. Vision. July 2015. <https://www.verite.org/improving-supply-chain-transparency-monitoring-and-accountability-in-guatemalas-coffee-sector/>

²²¹ DanWatch. *You may be drinking coffee grown under slavery-like, life-threatening conditions*. March 10, 2016.

<https://www.danwatch.dk/en/nyhed/du-risikerer-at-drikke-kaffe-dyrket-under-slavelignende-forhold/>

Coltan, Tungsten & Tin



Coltan, tungsten and tin are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export coltan, tungsten and tin worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports coltan, tungsten and tin (FAOSTAT 2012):
<p><i>Coltan:</i> Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (FL, CL)</p> <p><i>Tungsten:</i> Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (FL, CL)</p> <p><i>Tin:</i> Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (FL, CL) Bolivia (CL)</p>	<p><i>Coltan:</i> Not in database</p> <p><i>Tungsten:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Russia 2. Canada 3. Bolivia 4. Rwanda 5. Portugal 6. Spain 7. Oman 8. South Korea 9. Belgium 10. Germany <p><i>Tin:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Australia 2. Bolivia 3. Rwanda 4. Brazil 5. United States 6. Singapore 7. Zimbabwe 8. Guyana 9. Nigeria 10. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified) 	<p><i>Coltan:</i> Not in database</p> <p><i>Tungsten:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bolivia 2. Spain 3. Portugal 4. Canada 5. Peru 6. Brazil 7. Colombia 8. Thailand 9. Mongolia 10. United Kingdom <p><i>Tin:</i> Not in database</p>

Where are coltan, tungsten and tin reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, coltan, tungsten and tin, three widely-used minerals, are all produced with forced labor and child labor in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC).²²²

The 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* also reports child labor and forced labor in coltan, tungsten and tin in the DRC, as well as child labor in tin mining in Bolivia.²²³ The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists the DRC and Bolivia as Tier 2 Watch List countries.²²⁴

What does trafficking and/or child labor in coltan, tungsten and tin production look like?

In the DRC, armed groups control many of the mines. In some cases, the forces that control mining sites, often representatives of the armed forces or rebel groups, make local miners work at gunpoint without pay at their mining site for short periods of time – a process known as "solango."²²⁵ The groups controlling the mines are often the only source of credit in these impoverished regions, and they give loans to miners for money, food, and tools. Miners are then required to pay back these loans at hugely inflated rates, which can force them into a cycle of debt bondage. In addition, false or exaggerated criminal charges may be used to compel miners into service. Child soldiers are also conscripted into work at the mines.²²⁶

Tin is also mined with child labor in Bolivia. Children generally mine tin in Bolivia in artisanal mines or mines abandoned by commercial mining companies. Children, known as 'jucus,' are engaged in pushing carts, drilling, and extracting and cleaning ore. Children and adults working in clandestine mines work without adequate safety equipment, ventilation or proper lighting. They are vulnerable to illness, lung damage from dust, repetitive motion stress injuries, injuries from falls, carrying heavy loads, and working long hours.²²⁷ Many mining sites are hundreds of years old and poorly maintained, so workers are also at risk of death in collapsing mine shafts.²²⁸ In 2008, at least 60 children died from mine collapse. An estimated 3,000 children, some as young as six, work in mining in Bolivia.²²⁹

Coltan, Tungsten and Tin Production and Supply Chain:

According to the Electronics Industry Transparency Initiative, "10 million people, 16 percent of the Congolese population, are directly or indirectly dependent on small scale mining."²³⁰ Currently, mining

²²² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

²²³ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014.

http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRR_Report2014.pdf

²²⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

²²⁵ Pöyhönen, Päivi, Kristina Areskog Bjurling and Jeroen Cuvelier. *Voices from the Inside: Local Views on Mining Reform in Eastern DR Congo*. FinnWatch and SwedWatch. October 2010. http://somo.nl/publications-en/Publication_3586

²²⁶ Fitzpatrick, Terry. "Several Types of Slavery Linked to Congo's Mining Industry." *Huffington Post*. September 2, 2010. http://www.huffingtonpost.com/free-the-slaves/several-types-of-slavery-_b_702827.html

²²⁷ World Vision. *[Bolivia] If You Fall, No One's Gonna Carry You Out: Children Who Work in Tin Mines*. 2007.

[http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/\\$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf](http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf)

²²⁸ Forrero, Juan. "As Bolivian Miners Die, Boys Are Left to Toil." *New York Times*. March 24, 2003.

<http://www.nytimes.com/2003/03/24/world/as-bolivian-miners-die-boys-are-left-to-toil.html>

²²⁹ National Public Radio (NPR). "Thousands Of Children As Young As 6 Work In Bolivia's Mines." November 30, 2013

<http://www.npr.org/2013/11/30/247967228/thousands-of-children-as-young-as-6-work-in-bolivia-s-mines>

²³⁰ World Bank. *Democratic Republic of Congo Growth with Governance In the Mining Sector*. May 2008.

<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTOGMC/Resources/336099-1156955107170/drcgrowthgovernanceenglish.pdf>

associated with human trafficking and other human rights abuses is largely found in the eastern provinces of North and South Kivu. After the minerals are mined, they are bought by individual traders known as “negociants” who maintain relationships with the parties controlling the mines. The negociants sell the minerals to trading houses, where they are sorted. The minerals then are purchased by exporters called “comptoirs.” Some comptoirs may also buy minerals directly from the mines. These comptoirs are licensed and registered with the Congolese government. European and Asian companies use the comptoir’s “legal” status as a justification to buy from the DRC. The comptoir is not required to provide any documentation, so information on the minerals’ origin can be easily obscured at this step. To be used or sold on the global market, the minerals must be refined. This is most commonly performed by companies in East Asia, who may combine Congolese minerals with minerals from other countries.²³¹

As Global Witness notes, “when it comes to tracing supply chains back to their sources, refiners are the critical link. After the mineral ore is refined into metal, it becomes impossible to distinguish tin or tantalum that originated in Congo from other sources, and supplies from all over the globe are mixed together at this step in the chain.” The refiners then sell the minerals to manufacturing companies. Challenges in the supply chain include the dispersed and informal nature of mining and the illegal transfer of minerals from the DRC to Uganda, Rwanda, and other neighboring countries.²³²

Global Witness reports that the largest importers of coltan are Belgium, China, Thailand, and South Africa. The largest purchasing countries for tin are Belgium, Thailand, the UK, Malaysia, and Rwanda, and the largest purchasing countries of tungsten are Belgium, the UK, the Netherlands, China, and Austria. For electronics purchased in the United States, minerals are usually shipped and processed in Asia before being sold as finished products.²³³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in coltan, tungsten and tin production affect me?



Coltan, tungsten and tin are commonly used in electronics such as cell phones and computers.

Coltan: The source of the minerals niobium and tantalum. In the context of the DRC, coltan generally refers to tantalum, which is used widely in the capacitors of common electronics like cell phones and laptops.

²³¹ Global Witness. *Faced with a Gun, What Can You Do? War and the Militarization of Mining in Eastern Congo*. July 31, 2009. <http://www.globalwitness.org/library/faced-gun-what-can-you-do>

²³² Global Witness. *Faced with a Gun, What Can You Do? War and the Militarization of Mining in Eastern Congo*. July 31, 2009. <http://www.globalwitness.org/library/faced-gun-what-can-you-do>

²³³ Global Witness. *Faced with a Gun, What Can You Do? War and the Militarization of Mining in Eastern Congo*. July 31, 2009. <http://www.globalwitness.org/library/faced-gun-what-can-you-do>

Tungsten: Derived from wolframite, tungsten is used in electronics due to its high conductivity. It is also used as an alloy to strengthen steel.

Tin: Often found alongside coltan, tin from cassiterite has a wide variety of uses from the production of tin cans to tin solder in electronics.

Together, these minerals are sometimes referred to as the “3 T”s, an abbreviation of tantalum, tungsten and tin.

Examples of what governments, corporations and others are doing:

The United Nations (UN) Security Council has issued a number of resolutions regarding the DRC with specific reference to conflict minerals. Additionally, the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights released a report that outlines human rights abuses from 1993 to 2003 and “sets out measures to hold perpetrators of the most serious crimes to account. Recommendations include setting up a special court or chamber in an existing Congolese court.”²³⁴

In July 2010, the U.S. Congress passed Section 1502 of the Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act, which “requires companies using cassiterite, coltan, wolframite, and gold to find out whether the metals originated in the DRC or neighboring countries.” If the metals do originate from this area, then the companies must thoroughly review their supply chain to see if the mining of the metals “benefited abusive armed groups in eastern DRC.”²³⁵ Most recently, the U.S. Chamber of Commerce threatened to overturn important parts of the Dodd-Frank Act. Microsoft, General Electric, and Motorola Solutions announced, in response to The Chamber’s statements, that they did not support any stance against Section 1502. Rights groups are calling on other major electronic companies to speak out as well.²³⁶ This provision in the Dodd-Frank act has been criticized for essentially causing a boycott on all minerals from the DRC because some companies claim it is difficult to verify the source due to the extremely weak and chaotic regulatory environment. A reduction in purchases of DRC minerals could have a negative effect on artisanal miners and the economy as a whole.²³⁷ However, several companies, including Intel, Philips, and HP, have committed to sourcing ethical minerals from within the DRC by working with NGOs to create traceability and tracking systems. Intel announced in 2014 that they would source only conflict free minerals from the DRC.²³⁸

²³⁴ Global Witness. *Do No Harm: A Guide for Companies Sourcing from the DRC*. July 8, 2010.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/do-no-harm-guide-companies-sourcing-drc>

²³⁵ Global Witness. “Electronics Companies Must Break from US Chamber on Conflict Minerals.” June 27, 2012.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/electronics-companies-must-break-us-chamber-conflict-minerals>

²³⁶ Global Witness. “Electronics Companies Must Break from US Chamber on Conflict Minerals.” June 27, 2012.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/electronics-companies-must-break-us-chamber-conflict-minerals>

Global Witness. *Conflict Minerals: Legislation*. May 2012. <http://www.globalwitness.org/campaigns/conflict/conflict-minerals/legislation>

Global Witness. “Congo Government Enforces Law to Curb Conflict Mineral Trade.” May 21, 2012.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/congo-government-enforces-law-curb-conflict-mineral-trade>

²³⁷ Seay, Laura. “Congo Conflict Minerals Bill Hurts the Miners it Hopes to Help.” *The Christian Science Monitor*. July 18, 2011. <http://www.csmonitor.com/World/Africa/Africa-Monitor/2011/0718/Congo-conflict-minerals-bill-hurts-the-miners-it-hopes-to-help>

²³⁸ Gunther, Marc. “Intel Unveils Conflict-free Processors: Will the Industry Follow Suit?” *The Guardian*. January 13, 2014. <http://www.theguardian.com/sustainable-business/intel-conflict-minerals-ces-congo-electronics>

The DRC government is also getting involved in curtailing the sale of conflict minerals. As of February 2012, the government requires “all mining and mineral trading companies operating in the country [to carry] out supply chain due diligence, in line with international standards set by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), to ensure their purchases are not supporting warring parties in eastern DRC.” The DRC enforced the law last May, suspending two mineral traders who violated the Congolese law.²³⁹

The United Nations has a significant presence in the DRC through its Stabilization Mission in the DRC (MONUSCO). As Enough! points out, “At [USD]1 billion a year, the UN peacekeeping mission is by far the biggest investment the international community—and the United States, which pays nearly 30 percent of the tab—is making in support of peace in the Congo.”²⁴⁰

A number of due diligence systems have emerged for mineral sourcing in the DRC. The OECD is developing a voluntary due diligence policy for coltan, tungsten, tin, and gold mining in conflict and high-risk scenarios. In October 2010 this OECD guidance system was endorsed by 11 African countries, including Zambia, Uganda, Rwanda, the DRC, Congo, Tanzania, Sudan, South Africa, Kenya, Central African Republic, and Burundi. The OECD guidance lays out key steps for companies with conflict minerals in their supply chain. These steps include improving visibility into chain of control, strengthening engagements with suppliers, conducting risk assessments, establishing a robust grievance mechanism, responding to identified risks, conducting third-party assessments and reporting on progress.²⁴¹

The Electronics Industry Citizenship Coalition and the Global e-Sustainability Initiative introduced the Conflict Free Smelter Program, which requires third party auditing. As of 2014, approximately 200 companies reportedly participate in the initiative.²⁴²

A number of international organizations focus on labor abuses in the mineral sector of the DRC. In addition to Global Witness, these include Enough! and its RESOLVE campaign and MakeITFair.

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) the “Story of Electronics” from MakeITFair.

[Read](#) an article from Free the Slaves about the different types of forced labor in mining in the DRC or [go](#)

²³⁹ Global Witness. “Electronics Companies Must Break from US Chamber on Conflict Minerals.” June 27, 2012.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/electronics-companies-must-break-us-chamber-conflict-minerals>

Global Witness. *Conflict Minerals: Legislation*. May 2012. <http://www.globalwitness.org/campaigns/conflict/conflict-minerals/legislation>

Global Witness. “Congo Government Enforces Law to Curb Conflict Mineral Trade.” May 21, 2012.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/congo-government-enforces-law-curb-conflict-mineral-trade>

²⁴⁰ Enough Project. “Congo’s Ban on Mining an Incomplete Solution to Conflict Minerals, Says Enough Project.” September 16, 2010. <http://www.enoughproject.org/news/congos-ban-mining-incomplete-solution-conflict-minerals-says-enough-project>

²⁴¹ Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. “OECD Standards Taken up in Fight against Conflict Minerals.” October 4, 2010.

http://www.oecd.org/document/1/0,3343,en_2649_34889_46130881_1_1_1_1,00.html

²⁴² Electronics Industry Citizenship Coalition. *About the Conflict Free Sourcing Initiative*. <http://www.conflictreesourcing.org/about/>

[in-depth](#) with reports by Global Witness.

[Read](#) about the need for a certification system in the DRC mineral sector.

Copper



Copper is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export copper worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ²⁴³	Top ten countries that import copper worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ²⁴⁴
Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (FL, CL) Zambia (FL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chile 2. Germany 3. United States 4. Japan 5. China 6. Zambia 7. Russia 8. South Korea 9. Italy 10. Taiwan 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. China 2. Germany 3. United States 4. Italy 5. South Korea 6. Taiwan 7. France 8. Belgium 9. India 10. Malaysia

Where is copper reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, forced labor or forced child labor is involved in copper production in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Zambia.²⁴⁵

²⁴³ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

²⁴⁴ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

²⁴⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

The U.S. Department of Labor 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* notes child labor in the production of copper in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).²⁴⁶ The U.S. Department of State lists Zambia as a Tier 2 country in the *Trafficking in Persons Report*. The DRC is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country.²⁴⁷

What does trafficking and/or child labor in copper production look like?

Children involved in copper mining are most likely working in artisanal production schemes. Miners, including children, spend their days in hand-dug mine shafts, which are often unstable, collecting stones infused with copper. Children and adults working in mines are without safety equipment, ventilation, or proper lighting. They are vulnerable to illness, collapsing mine shafts, lung damage from dust, repetitive motion stress injuries, injuries from falls, carrying heavy loads, and working long hours. At some mining sites, children are involved in ancillary activities such as fetching water, transporting stone, and preparing and selling food. In some cases, women and girls may be sexually exploited in mining camps.

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Chinese-owned mines in Zambia exploit South and East Asian men.²⁴⁸ The U.S. Department of State also reports that children in Zambia may be forced by gangs to load copper onto trucks in the copper belt region.²⁴⁹

Human Rights Watch (HRW) has also reported serious exploitation, including indicators of human trafficking, of adult Zambian workers in Chinese-state owned copper mines. Human Rights Watch documented that workers in Chinese-state owned copper mines face threats and retaliation for refusing dangerous work, lack of protective equipment, and exploitation of contract miners.²⁵⁰ HRW found continued abuses in 2013. Zambian President Michael Sata, whose presidential campaign promised an emphasis on labor rights, made efforts to improve oversight of the mines, but the enforcement of labor laws and worker protections, especially with regard to freedom of association, working hours and health and safety conditions, remained insufficient.²⁵¹ In 2015 and 2016, it was reported that the Chinese economic downturn significantly decreased mining activity and many workers were laid off or are at risk of losing their jobs, angering local unions and economically devastating towns in the copper belt.²⁵²

²⁴⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016.

https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPR_Report2016.pdf

²⁴⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

²⁴⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

²⁴⁹ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *You Will Be Fired If You Refuse: Labor Abuses in Zambia's Chinese State-owned Copper Mines*. November 4, 2011. <http://www.hrw.org/reports/2011/11/04/you-ll-be-fired-if-you-refuse>

²⁵⁰ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *You Will Be Fired If You Refuse: Labor Abuses in Zambia's Chinese State-owned Copper Mines*. November 4, 2011. <http://www.hrw.org/reports/2011/11/04/you-ll-be-fired-if-you-refuse>

²⁵¹ Human Rights Watch. "Zambia: Safety Gaps Threaten Copper Miners Government, Chinese State-Owned Subsidiaries Make Uneven Progress" February 20, 2013.

<https://www.hrw.org/news/2013/02/20/zambia-safety-gaps-threaten-copper-miners>

²⁵² Lusaka Times. November 2015. Mopani Lays off Over 4000 Workers as Mines Minister Condemns Decisions.

<https://www.lusakatimes.com/2015/11/19/mopani-lays-off-over-4-000-workers-as-mines-minister-condemns-decision/>

Bloomberg News. September 7, 2015. Glencore Zambian Move to Halt 26 Percent of Country's Copper Output.

<http://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2015-09-07/glencore-zambian-move-to-halt-26-of-country-s-copper-output>

Davies, Matthew. BBC. "Low Copper Prices Cripple Zambian Towns." February 12, 2016. <http://www.bbc.com/news/business-35559473>

Reports have demonstrated serious environmental impact from copper mining, including long term water pollution in Zambia.²⁵³ This environmental degradation can lead to increasingly vulnerable local populations.

In the Democratic Republic of Congo, there are reports of children as young as 8 years old working in copper mines. World Vision, released a reported widespread child labor and job-related sickness or injury in addition to reports of worker death and serious injury. Child workers interviewed for this report discussed working long days and being unable to attend school. The report noted that 40 percent of artisanal miners in the DRC are children.²⁵⁴

Amnesty International has recently reported human rights and labor violations occurring in copper mines in Myanmar. Copper mines in Myanmar co-owned by Chinese companies and the Myanmar military have forced residents off their land, threatening the displaced peoples' ability to provide for themselves through agriculture. This mining expansion has also been linked to environmental disasters, included floods and earthquakes. Local authorities are utilizing repressive laws to prevent activists and local villagers from protesting the mines.²⁵⁵ Al Jazeera News has also reported that Canadian and Chinese owned mines are the cite of protests and violence. Al Jazeera described the mining area in Myanmar as having "numerous incidents spanning two decades including mass evictions, the use of "excessive force" by security forces, and "serious" pollution linked to the project."²⁵⁶

Case Study:

Child labor in copper mining in the DRC

In 2012, a BBC documentary showed children and juveniles in the DRC working in copper mining operations owned by Swiss-based company, Glencore. Miners without safety equipment were filmed climbing down mineshafts in the Tilwezembe concession. Glencore executives claimed that although they maintained ownership of the concession, they had halted operations and the mines had been overtaken by artisanal mining operations. However, the BBC documented that trucks from the mine traveled to a processing plant owned by Glencore's partner in the Congo. According to the BBC, it also appears that copper from Tilwezembe was sent to a Glencore smelter in Zambia after leaving the processing plant.²⁵⁷

A Bloomberg News article described the life of Adon, a homeless, orphaned 13-year-old working in artisanal copper mining operations in the DRC. Adon found work in the mines after he was thrown out of his uncle's house for accused witchcraft. He was injured in a collapsing mine shaft accident caused by

²⁵³ The Guardian. *Zambian Villagers Take Mining Giant Vedanta to Court in UK over Toxic Leaks*. August 1, 2015.

²⁵⁴ Talaga, Tanya. "Children as young as 8 working in Congo copper mines" *Toronto Star*. May 23, 2013.

"https://www.thestar.com/news/world/2013/05/23/children_as_young_as_8_working_in_congo_copper_mines_in_democratic_republic_of_congo.html

World Vision. "Child labor: Children reveal horror of working in mines" June 12, 2013. <https://www.worldvision.org/child-protection-news-stories/child-labor-children-reveal-horror-working-mines>

²⁵⁵ Amnesty International. "Myanmar: Suspend copper mine linked to ongoing human rights abuses" February 10, 2017. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/latest/news/2017/02/myanmar-suspend-copper-mine-linked-to-ongoing-human-rights-abuses/>

²⁵⁶ Henton, George. "Foreign firms and human rights abuses in Myanmar Forced evictions and violence at copper mines in northern Myanmar continue after decades of profit-making, report says." *Al Jazeera News*. February 10, 2015.

<http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2015/02/foreign-firms-human-rights-abuses-myanmar-150210040854291.html>

²⁵⁷ Sweeney, John. "Panorama Questions Over Glencore Mines." *BBC*. April 16, 2012. <http://www.bbc.com/news/17702487>

flooding that killed four of his friends. Adon was paid a flat rate of three dollars a day by a middle man, which he felt was reasonable because there were some middlemen who did not pay at all.²⁵⁸

Copper Production and Supply Chain:

After ore is mined, it is sold to middle men who sell to regional smelters. The middlemen may also be direct agents of the smelters.²⁵⁹ Smelters are often owned by international companies.²⁶⁰ The smelted product, called a “blister” is used to create “semi-finished” products such as rods, tubes, and wires. These are used in consumer and industrial goods.²⁶¹ Once the ore gets to the smelter it can be difficult to keep track of what mines the ore is coming from since the ores are all refined together.

How do trafficking and/or child labor in copper production affect me?



According to U.S. Geological Survey, copper is most frequently used for “power transmission and generation, building wiring, telecommunication, and electrical and electronic products.” Copper wires and plumbing are used in construction, telecommunications, and vehicles.²⁶²

Examples of what governments, corporations and others are doing:

The 2016 U.S. State Department Tip report reported that Zambia’s Ministry of Community Development and Social Services (MCDSS) launched awareness raising campaigns throughout the areas of the country most impacted by trafficking and other labor violations. The campaign, called “Safe Migration: My Right, My Responsibility,” was disseminated through local stakeholders in Eastern, Copperbelt, Central, Southern, and Lusaka Provinces. The MCDSS also conducted trainings for officials in how to recognize and raise awareness of human trafficking indicators in the same areas over community radio stations.²⁶³

²⁵⁸ Clark, Simon, Michael Smith and Franz Wild. “China Lets Child Workers Die Digging in Congo Mines for Copper.” *Bloomberg News*. July 22, 2008. <http://www.bloomberg.com/apps/news?pid=newsarchive&sid=aW8xVLQ4Xhr8>

²⁵⁹ Clark, Simon, Michael Smith and Franz Wild. “China Lets Child Workers Die Digging in Congo Mines for Copper.” *Bloomberg News*. July 22, 2008. <http://www.bloomberg.com/apps/news?pid=newsarchive&sid=aW8xVLQ4Xhr8>

²⁶⁰ Sweeney, John. “Panorama Questions Over Glencore Mines.” *BBC*. April 16, 2012. <http://www.bbc.com/news/17702487>

²⁶¹ International Copper Study Group (ICSG). “Copper Production.” *The World Copper Factbook 2013*. <http://www.icsg.org/index.php/component/jdownloads/finish/170/1188>

²⁶² U.S. Geological Survey (USGS). “Copper Statistics and Information.” <http://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals/pubs/commodity/copper/>

²⁶³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

The United Nations Foundation also has founded the International Copper Association, which was 43 member countries. However, this organization is primarily focused on environmental issues surrounding copper use and production and does not cite mining or labor as one of its key concerns.²⁶⁴

²⁶⁴ United Nations International Copper Association. <http://www.unfoundation.org/what-we-do/partners/corporations/international-copper-association.html?referrer=https://www.google.com/>

Corn



Corn is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce corn worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export corn worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports corn (UN Comtrade 2012):
Bolivia (CL)	1. United States	1. United States	1. Brazil
Guatemala (CL)	2. China	2. Brazil	2. Canada
The Philippines (CL)	3. Brazil	3. Argentina	3. Argentina
United States (CL)	4. India	4. Ukraine	4. Chile
	5. Mexico	5. France	5. Mexico
	6. Argentina	6. Hungary	6. Turkey
	7. Ukraine	7. India	7. Paraguay
	8. Indonesia	8. Paraguay	8. Romania
	9. France	9. Romania	9. Peru
	10. Canada	10. Russia	10. France

Where is corn reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, corn is reportedly produced using child labor in Guatemala, Bolivia, and the Philippines.

Guatemala and the Philippines are listed by the U.S. Department of State as Tier 2 countries in the 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*. Bolivia is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country.²⁶⁵

In the U.S., children reportedly work detassling corn. This is not necessarily considered a hazardous task but in recent years, several hazardous incidents involving teens working to detassel corn have been documented. In 2010, two juveniles working in corn fields died of electrocution.²⁶⁶

²⁶⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>
<http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2014/226649.htm>

²⁶⁶ Hinkel, Dan; Black, Lisa. Chicago Tribune. "Detassling Corn a Summer Rite of Passage for Many Rural Teens." August 1, 2011. http://articles.chicagotribune.com/2011-08-01/news/ct-met-cornfield-deaths-sidebar-20110801_1_detasseling-rural-teens-child-labor

What do trafficking and/or child labor in corn production look like?

While the growth, production, and harvesting stages of large-scale corn farming operations are frequently fully mechanized, many small farming operations in developing countries rely on manual labor. Forced and child labor may be used for the de-tasseling of corn, particularly corn grown for human consumption. Due to the seasonal nature of the corn harvest, local teenagers and migrant workers are sometimes employed during the harvest months to work in the fields and transport grain. Violations of labor laws in the corn industry include inadequate housing, low wages, forced indebtedness, and the inability to leave the farm premises. Trafficking victims in corn production may be required to work fourteen hour work days, six to seven days per week. In many cases laborers are only allowed to buy food at inflated prices from stores owned by their employers.²⁶⁷

Case Study:

Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Corn in Bolivia

A 2011 Verité report found indicators of forced labor, particularly induced indebtedness, among workers in the corn sector in the Chaco region of Bolivia. Salaried corn workers took out loans from their bosses, and in some cases, felt they would never earn enough to pay back those advances. Some employers paid wages only in food. In other cases, employers provided food but at highly inflated prices, adding to worker debt. Self-employed workers who lacked cash to purchase inputs such as seeds and fertilizers took in-kind loans from intermediaries. The producers were then required to pay back the loan with their harvest, which intermediaries value below market price. Workers had low literacy levels and often could not calculate their own levels of debt. As agriculture is performed by the family unit in the Chaco region, researchers found that child labor is endemic with children as young as five beginning to work.²⁶⁸

Corn Production and Supply Chain:

There are many steps in the corn production process, and as demand grows and technology improves the necessity of human labor decreases. Intercropping systems tend to require more human labor while strip cropping, whether continuous corn systems or a corn-soybean rotation, are usually entirely mechanized in developed countries. In many developing countries corn production still requires more human labor. Corn farmers must take into consideration when and how to plant their seeds; the recommended seeding rate and planting date change every year. The chosen rate of seeding will determine whether humans can take part in the planting of corn, and the row spacing will determine the ease and comfort level with which people will be able to care for and harvest plants. As seedlings and young corn plants grow, pesticides and herbicides that are harmful to human health are often used. In organic farming, the weeding and natural pest management that must be conducted is very labor-intensive. Once the corn has been picked, either manually or mechanically, it is divided into corn for fodder, or animal feed, and for grain.²⁶⁹

²⁶⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. *2011 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. 2011. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2011TDA.pdf>

²⁶⁸ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. 2011.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

²⁶⁹ National Corn Growers Association. *2013 World of Corn*. 2013.

<http://www.ncga.com/upload/files/documents/pdf/WOC%202013.pdf>

National Corn Growers Association. *2011 World of Corn*. 2011. <http://www.ncga.com/uploads/useruploads/woc-2011.pdf>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in corn production affect me?



Each American consumes the equivalent of 25 pounds of corn each year. Corn is a very versatile product with food, feed and industrial uses. In the United States, the majority of corn grown is used for animal feed. Corn is also used in food and industrial products including starch, sweeteners, corn oil, beverage and industrial alcohol, and fuel ethanol. Other products that use corn include paints, adhesives, candles, drywall, plastic, textiles, soaps, carpeting, rubber tires, drywall, and fiberglass.²⁷⁰

The United States is the world's largest producer and one of the largest exporters of corn, with nearly 20 percent of its annual crop exported. In addition, the United States imports a large portion of the corn it consumes annually.²⁷¹

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) this report from Verité on indicators of human trafficking for forced labor in corn production in Bolivia

²⁷⁰ National Corn Growers Association. *2013 World of Corn*. 2013.

<http://www.ncga.com/upload/files/documents/pdf/WOC%202013.pdf>

²⁷¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *Detailed World Agricultural Trade Flows*. 2011. <http://faostat.fao.org/DesktopModules/Faostat/WATFDetailed2/watf.aspx?PageID=536>

Cotton



Cotton is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce cotton (lint and seed) worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export cotton worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ²⁷²	Top ten countries that import cotton worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ²⁷³
Argentina (CL)	<i>Cotton lint:</i>	1. China	1. China
Azerbaijan (CL)	1. India	2. India	2. Bangladesh
Benin (FL, CL)	2. China	3. United States	3. Vietnam
Brazil (CL)	3. United States	4. Pakistan	4. Turkey
Burkina Faso (FL, CL)	4. Pakistan	5. Hong Kong	5. Hong Kong
Cameroon (FL)	5. Brazil	6. Vietnam	6. Indonesia
China (FL, CL)	6. Uzbekistan	7. Turkey	7. Republic of
Egypt (CL)	7. Australia	8. Italy	Korea
India – Cottonseed (hybrid) (FL, CL)	8. Turkey	9. Brazil	8. Italy
Kazakhstan (FL, CL)	9. Argentina	10. Germany	9. United States
Kyrgyz Republic (FL, CL)	10. Greece		10. Mexico
Mali (CL)	<i>Cottonseed:</i>		
Pakistan (FL)	1. China		
Paraguay (CL)	2. India		
Tajikistan (FL, CL)	3. United States		
Togo (FL)	4. Pakistan		
Turkey (CL)	5. Brazil		
Turkmenistan (FL, CL)	6. Uzbekistan		
Uzbekistan (FL, CL)	7. Turkey		

²⁷² International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

²⁷³ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

Zambia (CL)

8. Australia

9. Argentina

10. Mexico

Where is cotton reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, cotton is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Kyrgyz Republic, Mali, Tajikistan, Togo, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan.²⁷⁴

The U.S. Department of Labor's 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* notes forced and child labor in Benin, Burkina Faso, China, India (cottonseed), Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. Child labor is noted in Argentina, Azerbaijan, Brazil, Egypt, Kyrgyz Republic, Mali, Paraguay, Turkey, and Zambia. Forced labor is noted in Pakistan.²⁷⁵

Argentina, Azerbaijan, Benin, Brazil, Burkina Faso, Egypt, India, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Paraguay, Tajikistan, Togo, Turkey and Zambia are listed by the U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* as Tier 2 countries. Cameroon, China, Mali and Pakistan are Tier 2 Watch List countries. Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan are listed as Tier 3 countries.²⁷⁶

What do trafficking and/or child labor in cotton production look like?

The nature of forced labor in cotton varies greatly from region to region. For example, in Pakistan hereditary debt ties families and communities to the land they work on.²⁷⁷ In Uzbekistan and China, forced labor is seasonal and enforced by mandatory labor requirements organized by the national or regional governments. In other cases, such as Benin, forced labor is tied to migrant workers, including migrant children.

In much of the world, particularly in West Africa, cotton is grown in a small-holder context. Children often work on their family's plot. Some children may be involved in worst forms of child labor if they are exposed to dangerous conditions including long hours, heat, and pesticides, and forego their education. In other cases, children perform age-appropriate light tasks and continue to participate in schooling, which does not necessarily constitute a worst form of child labor.

Child migration in West African countries, such as Burkina Faso, Mali, and Benin, is also relatively common. Boys aged ten and above migrate from their rural homes to work on farms in other regions of the country, most often traveling to cotton-producing regions to assist in the cotton harvest. In some cases, these children migrate within well-established family or community "kinship" systems. This migration is not always voluntary as some children are pushed into conditions of forced labor. Some children working for farmers may not be paid until the end of the harvest cycle, if they are paid at all.

²⁷⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

²⁷⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. *2016 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016.

https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPR_Report2016.pdf

²⁷⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

²⁷⁷ Better Cotton Initiative. *BCI scoping research on labour and social issues in global cotton cultivation*. 2006. <http://bettercotton.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/BCI-scoping-research-PUBLIC.pdf>

Many times payment is deferred even longer, and the end wages are often much less than promised.²⁷⁸ Some migrant juvenile workers may be paid in goods rather than cash according to verbal agreements with the farmer. For example, a worker may request a new bicycle and clothes at the end of the harvest.²⁷⁹ In other cases, migration may be under coercion or outright trafficking. In 2012, Interpol rescued over 400 child trafficking victims from Burkina Faso, some of whom were reportedly working on cotton farms.²⁸⁰

Government-sanctioned child labor and trafficking is a somewhat unique feature of cotton production. Until recently, the Uzbek government required children to perform seasonal work harvesting cotton. Child labor in the Uzbek harvest has been banned, and the government conducted monitoring in conjunction with the ILO in the 2013 and 2014 harvests.²⁸¹ However, there are reports that adults and older students are being required to work in cotton fields.²⁸² It has been estimated that a million people – primarily civil servants – worked in cotton in 2015 and 2016 under pressure from the government of Uzbekistan, some with the threat of losing their employment if they did not comply.²⁸³ The ILO noted in regards to the 2015 harvest season that while some recruited workers appeared to be volunteers, “certain indicators of forced labor were observed.”²⁸⁴ The Uzbek German Forum for Human Rights reported that while cooperating with international monitoring efforts to some degree, the government also persecuted and harassed monitors in 2015.²⁸⁵ Cotton farmers in Uzbekistan typically lease the land from the government and must meet assigned cotton production quotas. However, the government also sets the price of cotton, and maintains a monopoly on purchasing as well as sales of agricultural inputs.²⁸⁶

Trafficking in the cotton sector in Turkmenistan follows similar dynamics as those at play in Uzbekistan. The government coerces farmers to produce cotton at assigned quotas and the state owns all the land in the country, which farmers lease. Farmers are then required to sell their produced cotton to the state at artificially low prices. Public sector workers are required to harvest the cotton under threat of losing their jobs and private sector businesses may also be required to provide labor or financial assistance to the

²⁷⁸ de Lange, Albertine. “Going to Kompienga.” *A Study of Child Labour Migration and Trafficking in Burkina Faso’s South-Eastern Cotton Sector*. Amsterdam: International Research on Working Children (IREWOC). August 2006. http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/lange_d_alb06gtkompienga_061106.pdf

²⁷⁹ de Lange, Albertine. “Going to Kompienga.” *A Study of Child Labour Migration and Trafficking in Burkina Faso’s South-Eastern Cotton Sector*. Amsterdam: International Research on Working Children (IREWOC). August 2006. http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/lange_d_alb06gtkompienga_061106.pdf

²⁸⁰ Interpol. *Nearly 400 victims of child trafficking rescued across Burkina Faso in INTERPOL-led operation*. November 22, 2012. <https://www.interpol.int/News-and-media/News/2012/PR096>

²⁸¹ International Labor Organization. *Observation (CEACR) - adopted 2013, published 103rd ILC session (2014)*. 2014. http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:13100:0::NO:13100:P13100_COMMENT_ID:3149080

²⁸² Kelley, Annie. “Uzbekistan ban on child labour forces more adults into cotton workforce.” *The Guardian*. November 13, 2014. <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2014/nov/14/uzbekistan-ban-child-labour-forces-adults-cotton-work>

²⁸³ Cotton Campaign. *Uzbekistan’s Forced Labor Problem*. <http://www.cottoncampaign.org/uzbekistans-forced-labor-problem.html>

²⁸⁴ International Labor Organization. *Third Party Monitoring of the use of child labour and forced labour during the Uzbekistan 2015 Cotton Harvest*. November 2015. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---iproc/documents/publication/wcms_427620.pdf

²⁸⁵ Uzbek German Forum for Human Rights. *Harvest Report 2015*. 2015. <http://harvestreport2015.uzbekgermanforum.org/?page=executive-summary>

²⁸⁶ Human Rights Watch. *Uzbekistan: Forced Labor Widespread in Harvest*. 2013. <https://www.hrw.org/news/2013/01/25/uzbekistan-forced-labor-widespread-cotton-harvest>

annual harvesting effort.²⁸⁷ In Tajikistan, some elementary school children work in the cotton harvest. According to a 2012 monitoring report from the International Organization for Migration (IOM), much of this work is voluntary, but some may be coerced by schools.²⁸⁸

In the cottonseed industry in India, forced child labor is reportedly used in some regions for the cross-pollination of cottonseed plots. According to the India Committee of the Netherlands, tribal children from South Rajasthan and North Gujarat are trafficked to North Gujarat.²⁸⁹

Children can be involved in all stages of the supply chain: cultivation, harvesting, ginning, and manufacturing. In cultivation and harvesting, child laborers are forced to work long hours – exhaustion, heat stroke, and malnutrition are common. Children are also exposed to harsh chemicals as cotton uses more insecticide than any other crop, making up 16 percent of global use. Exposure to these chemicals can cause tremors, nausea, weakness, blurred vision, extreme dizziness, headaches, depression, and even paralysis or death. In ginning, children work without protective equipment, inhaling contaminated air, which leads to respiratory problems.²⁹⁰

Cotton Production and Supply Chain:

The cotton industry is one of the largest agricultural industries, employing an estimated 300 million people.²⁹¹ Cotton harvesting is labor intensive, and in much of the world, cotton is grown by small-holder farmers.

After harvesting by machine or hand, raw cotton is transported to gins where it is processed. Cotton yarn is then woven into textiles, which are made into garments and home goods. In turn, cotton seed is processed such that the meal is separated from the oil; the former is used in animal feed and the latter is used as cooking oil.

These production stages may occur across multiple countries, particularly for garments and textiles, making it difficult to determine where fibers in a given consumer item come from. For example, fibers from Egypt, Mali, and the United States may all be combined into one garment at a textile mill in Indonesia.

²⁸⁷ Cotton Campaign. *Turkmenistan's Forced Labor Problem*. <http://www.cottoncampaign.org/turkmenistans-forced-labor-problem.html>

²⁸⁸ International Organization for Migration. *Children and Student Participation in Tajikistan's Cotton Harvest Annual Assessment 2012*. http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main_page=product_info&cPath=41_7&products_id=974

²⁸⁹ India Committee of the Netherlands. **“Trafficking of children to cottonseed fields of Gujarat.” January 2015.** <http://www.indianet.nl/150120e.html>

²⁹⁰ World Vision. *Forced and Child Labour in the Cotton Industry*. March 2012. <http://campaign.worldvision.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/Forced-and-child-labour-in-the-cotton-industry-fact-sheet.pdf>

²⁹¹ World Vision. *Forced and Child Labour in the Cotton Industry*. March 2012. <http://campaign.worldvision.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/Forced-and-child-labour-in-the-cotton-industry-fact-sheet.pdf>



Source: Reinhart. "About Cotton."
<http://reinhart.com/our-business/about-cotton/>

India and China are the largest producers and exporters of cotton.²⁹² Both countries produce cotton products as well. China is a major importer of cotton, and is followed far behind by India, Pakistan, and the United States.²⁹³

²⁹² Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

²⁹³ UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Cotton: Chain*. 2004. <http://r0.unctad.org/infocomm/anglais/cotton/chain.htm>

UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Cotton: Market*. 2012. <http://r0.unctad.org/infocomm/anglais/cotton/market.htm>

UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Cotton Production and Consumption Graphs*. <http://r0.unctad.org/infocomm/anglais/cotton/market.htm>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in cotton production affect me?



Cotton produced using forced and/or child labor ends up in the clothes we wear, the textiles in our houses, and, through cottonseed oil, the food we eat.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The Better Cotton Initiative (BCI), a multi-stakeholder group, aims to improve environmental practices of cotton production and improve livelihoods and working conditions by developing “Better Cotton” as a “sustainable mainstream commodity.” BCI has set a goal of Better Cotton totally 30 percent of global production by 2020. Better Cotton bales are segregated and traceable from farm to gin. Farmers in more than 20 countries produce Better Cotton that is sourced by retailers and brands including Adidas, H&M, IKEA, Levi Strauss & Co., Marks and Spencer and Nike.²⁹⁴

The Cotton Campaign is a multi-stakeholder group that advocates for the end of trafficking in cotton production, particularly in Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan. Among other actions, the Campaign has called on the World Bank to “suspend lending to the agriculture sector in Uzbekistan until the Uzbek government changes its policy of forced labor in the cotton industry.”²⁹⁵

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video by the Environmental Justice Foundation.

[Read](#) a case study by the UN Global Compact on labor trafficking in cotton.

[Read about](#) the Better Cotton Initiative.

²⁹⁴ United Nations Global Compact. *Better Cotton Initiative*. <http://supply-chain.unglobalcompact.org/site/article/26>

²⁹⁵ Cotton Campaign. Blog. <http://www.cottoncampaign.org/harvest-2016>

Cotton Campaign. *Uzbek and global activists petition World Bank President to Suspend Payments*. March 9, 2016. <http://www.cottoncampaign.org/uzbek-and-global-activists-petition-world-bank-president-to-suspend-payments.html>

Diamonds



Diamonds are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export diamonds worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports diamonds (UN Comtrade 2012):
Angola (FL, CL)	1. India	1. Israel
Central African Republic (CL)	2. Belgium	2. India
Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (FL, CL)	3. Israel	3. Belgium
Guinea (FL, CL)	4. United States	4. South Africa
Liberia (FL, CL)	5. Hong Kong	5. Switzerland
Sierra Leone (FL, CL)	6. United Kingdom	6. China
<i>Diamonds (cut and polished)</i>	7. Botswana	7. United Arab Emirates
India (CL)	8. Russia	8. Botswana
	9. China	9. Hong Kong
	10. Canada	10. Russia

Where are diamonds reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, diamonds are produced with forced or forced child labor in DRC, Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone.²⁹⁶ The U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* reports that diamonds are produced with forced labor in Angola and Sierra Leone, and with child labor in Angola, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone.²⁹⁷

In some cases, diamonds may be cut and polished with child labor in India.²⁹⁸

²⁹⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

²⁹⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014 http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TPRA_Report2014.pdf

²⁹⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: India*. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/india.htm>

Hussain, Sakina Sadat. NBC News. "A Diamond's Journey: Grime Beyond the Glitter." June 26, 2009. http://www.nbcnews.com/id/15842528/ns/world_news/t/diamonds-journey-grime-behind-glitter/

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists India, Sierra Leone, Angola and Liberia as Tier 2 countries. Guinea and DRC are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries. Central African Republic is listed as a Tier 3 country.²⁹⁹

What does trafficking and/or child labor in diamond production look like?

According to anecdotal reports, trafficking in Angola's diamond sector is a result of bonded labor in which "sponsors" pay for a miner's expenses and are reimbursed through a portion of the mined diamonds.³⁰⁰ In Sierra Leone, miners, mostly young men, enter into bonded labor whereby they receive tools and housing but no compensation for their work.³⁰¹

In Angola, Zimbabwe, DRC, Sierra Leone, and Liberia, diamonds have been linked with the funding of violent and protracted civil wars, which inspired the phrase 'blood diamonds.' In June 2009, Human Rights Watch (HRW) reported that Zimbabwe's army used forced and child labor to mine diamonds in eastern Zimbabwe, specifically in the Marange fields.³⁰² Citizens that did not cooperate with the operation were allegedly beaten and tortured. There is evidence of an army led massacre of 200 local miners in 2008.³⁰³ In some cases, even after the official cessation of wars, military and rebel groups continue to control the mines.

In Sierra Leone and other post-conflict societies, children, particularly orphans or children living without their parents, may work in the diamond mines as a means to support themselves and their families. Mining, though extremely hazardous, offers livelihood opportunities that are lacking in countries with collapsed economies. Due to their small size, children are used for excavation work in small pits. Children involved in diamond mining are engaged in a worst form of child labor and are exposed to heavy minerals and chemicals, mudslides, and collapsing pit walls. Mining camps around pits reportedly have high rates of HIV/AIDS as well.³⁰⁴

In India, children are reportedly involved in cutting and polishing diamonds. These children are exposed to repetitive stress injuries, eyesight strain, and toxic dust.³⁰⁵

Case Study:

The Kimberly Process: Protection against abuses in diamond production?

The Kimberly Process (KP) emerged in response to the increased use of conflict or 'blood' diamonds to fund violent civil wars in Africa. It is a "joint government, industry and civil society initiative to stem the

²⁹⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

³⁰⁰ Allen, Michael. "The 'Blood Diamond' Resurfaces." *The Wall Street Journal*. June 19, 2010. <http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052748704198004575311282588959188.html>

³⁰¹ Boas, Morten and Anne Hatloy. *Living in a Material World: Children and Alluvial Diamond Mining in Kono District, Sierra Leone*. Fafo. 2006. <http://www.fafo.no/pub/rapp/515/515.pdf>

³⁰² Human Rights Watch (HRW). "Stop Blood Diamonds." 2010. http://www.kintera.org/c.nIWIgN2JwE/b.5657811/k.FB1A/Stop_Blood_Diamonds/siteapps/advocacy/ActionItem.aspx

³⁰³ British Broadcasting Company (BBC). "Zimbabwe Army 'Runs Diamond Mine.'" June 26, 2009. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/8120931.stm>

³⁰⁴ Cahill, Petra. "A Diamond's Journey: Grim Reality Tarnishes Glitter." *NBC News*. June 26, 2009. http://www.nbcnews.com/id/15842524/ns/world_news/t/diamonds-journey-grim-reality-tarnishes-glitter/#.U2K21vldUyg

³⁰⁵ Hassain, Hakina Sadat. "A Diamond's Journey: Grime behind the Glitter." *NBC News*. June 26, 2009. http://www.nbcnews.com/id/15842528/ns/world_news/t/diamonds-journey-grime-behind-glitter/#.U2FJh1fijW5

flow of conflict diamonds.”³⁰⁶ The Kimberly Process Certification Scheme is intended to guarantee that diamonds are “conflict free.” However, this process does not cover all human rights abuses but is limited to “rough diamonds used by rebel movements or their allies to finance conflict aimed at undermining legitimate governments.” The NGO Global Witness stated in 2010 that “due to the weaknesses in the Kimberley Process, and the lack of self-regulation by the diamond industry, it is still very difficult for consumers to know if they are buying a ‘clean’ diamond.”³⁰⁷

These debates came to a head recently in Zimbabwe, where efforts by the KP to address human rights concerns were widely seen as ineffective when the appointed monitor released disputed diamonds for shipment and sale without approval. While human rights advocates have asked that diamonds from Zimbabwe be boycotted, shipments have continued to enter the global market.³⁰⁸ On June 23, 2011, KP chairman Mathieu Yamba officially lifted the ban on diamond exports from the Marange fields, despite evidence that “serious human rights abuses and rampant smuggling” still occurred. Human Rights Watch (HRW) called on the KP to address the labor abuses in Zimbabwe’s diamond fields. HRW stated that “serious abuses in Zimbabwe’s Marange diamond fields in recent years have exposed the KP’s inability to effectively address human rights violations by government security forces related to diamond mining.”³⁰⁹

In part due to the increasing criticism of the KP, Martin Rapaport, head of the Rapaport diamond trading company, endorsed a more stringent social standard in diamond production. He called for diamonds “that are legal and not directly involved in severe human rights violations ... freely, fairly and legally traded.” The phrase “directly involved in severe human rights violations” is defined as diamonds whose “physical production involves murder, rape, physical violence, or forced servitude.”³¹⁰

Diamond Supply Chain and Production:

Diamonds are mined through hard-rock, open-pit, or alluvial mining. Alluvial mining, where miners pan for diamonds in water, is most likely to include artisanal and small-scale mining as little specialized equipment is required. This type of diamond production is most likely to feature forced and/or child labor.

After mining, raw diamonds are sent to one of a few global diamond sorting and cutting centers. These include Tel Aviv, Israel, Antwerp, Belgium and Surat, India. At these centers diamonds from all locations are mixed together, making traceability difficult. Some producing countries, such as Zimbabwe, are also beginning to cut and polish their own diamonds.

New York and London are major centers of diamond sales. The diamond industry is very centralized, with just a few major corporations like De Beers accounting for the majority of global production and trade.

³⁰⁶ The Kimberley Process (KP). *Kimberley Process Certification Scheme*. www.kimberleyprocess.com/download/getfile/4

³⁰⁷ Global Witness. “Industry Must Refuse Diamonds Certified by Rogue Monitor.” November 16, 2010.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/industry-must-refuse-zimbabwe-diamonds-certified-rogue-monitor>

³⁰⁸ Global Witness. “Industry Must Refuse Diamonds Certified by Rogue Monitor.” November 16, 2010.

<http://www.globalwitness.org/library/industry-must-refuse-zimbabwe-diamonds-certified-rogue-monitor>

³⁰⁹ Human Rights Watch (HRW). “Zimbabwe: Diamond Abuses Show Need for Reforms.” June 4, 2012.

<http://www.hrw.org/news/2012/06/04/zimbabwe-diamond-abuses-show-need-reforms>

³¹⁰ Rapaport Diamond Network. *Human Rights and the Diamond Industry-The Way Forward*.

<http://www.diamonds.net/cms/Conference/2010/conferencevideos.aspx>

Eight and a half billion rough diamonds, or 65 percent of the global trade, are from African countries, including those that have been cited for forced and/or child labor.³¹¹

How do trafficking and/or child labor in diamond production affect me?



Diamonds are used in jewelry and industrial tools.

With the slogan “A diamond is forever,” De Beers marketed diamond rings as the symbol of love and fidelity. Approximately 75 percent of American brides wear a diamond ring.³¹² Globally, demand for diamonds is predicted to increase 4.5 percent in 2014, driven by Chinese and American consumption.³¹³

Industrial uses of diamonds, such as cutting and drilling, account for 70 percent of all diamonds, generally those of lesser quality.³¹⁴

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In addition to the Kimberly Process (see case study), initiatives with a focus on diamonds include the Madison Dialogue, the Responsible Jewelry Council (RJC), and the Diamond Development Initiative. The Madison Dialogue and RJC are both voluntary company initiatives with multi-stakeholder consultative components. The RJC launched a certification system for diamonds and gold in 2009, but its systems have been criticized for loopholes.³¹⁵

How can I learn more?

[Watch](#) the National Geographic video “Diamonds of War: Africa’s Blood Diamonds”

[Listen](#) to the 2010 Diamond Conference: “Human Rights and the Diamond Industry – The Way Forward.”

[Read](#) a feasibility study on Fair Trade diamonds.

³¹¹ World Diamond Council. *Diamond Industry Fact Sheet*.

<http://www.worlddiamondcouncil.org/download/resources/documents/Fact%20Sheet%20%28The%20Diamond%20Industry%29.pdf>

³¹² Sullivan, Courtney J. “How Diamonds Became Forever.” *New York Times*. May 3, 2013.

<http://www.nytimes.com/2013/05/05/fashion/weddings/how-americans-learned-to-love-diamonds.html>

³¹³ Biesheuvel, Thomas. “De Beers Sees Diamond Demand Growing 4.5% on US, China.” *Bloomberg News*. February 24, 2014.

<http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2014-02-14/de-beers-sees-diamond-demand-growing-4-5-on-u-s-china.html>

³¹⁴ World Diamond Council. *Diamond Industry Fact Sheet*.

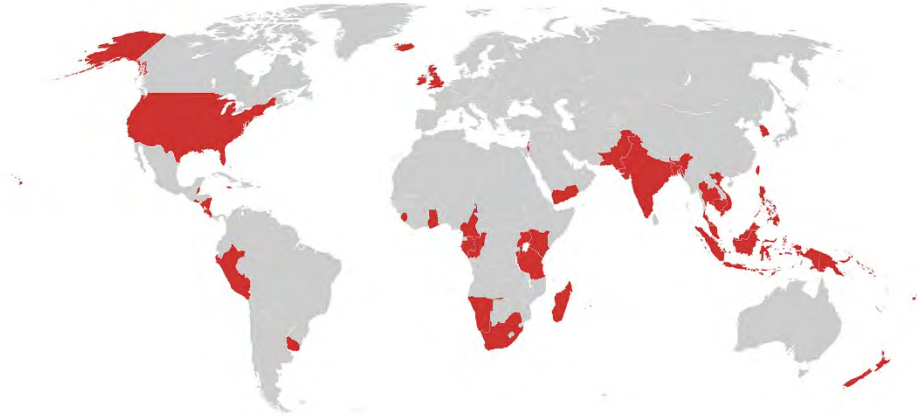
<http://www.worlddiamondcouncil.org/download/resources/documents/Fact%20Sheet%20%28The%20Diamond%20Industry%29.pdf>

³¹⁵ Earthworks. *How RJC Certification Fails to Create Responsible Jewelry*. May 22, 2013.

http://www.earthworkSACTION.org/library/detail/more_shine_than_substance#.U2E-l1fjW4

[Visit](#) the website of Global Witness, which in 2003 was co-nominated for the Nobel Prize for its work on blood diamonds.

Fish



Fish is reportedly caught/harvested/processed with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:		Top ten countries that export fish worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ³¹⁶	Top ten countries that import fish worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ³¹⁷
Bangladesh (FL, CL)	Namibia (FL)	1. China	1. United States
Belize (FL)	New Zealand (FL)	2. Norway	2. Japan
Burundi (FL)	Nicaragua (CL)	3. United States	3. China
Cambodia (CL)	Pakistan (FL)	4. Vietnam	4. Spain
Cameroon (FL)	Palau (FL)	5. India	5. France
Cormoros (FL)	Papua New Guinea (FL)	6. Canada	6. Italy
Congo, Republic of (FL)	Peru (CL)	7. Chile	7. Germany
Costa Rica (FL)	Philippines (FL, CL)	8. Sweden	8. Sweden
El Salvador (CL)	Seychelles (FL)	9. Spain	9. Korea
Fiji (FL)	Sierra Leone (FL)	10. Russia	10. Hong Kong
Gabon (FL)	Singapore (FL)		
Ghana (FL, CL)	Solomon Islands (FL)		
Iceland (FL)	South Africa (FL)		
India (FL)	Taiwan (FL)		
Indonesia (FL, CL)	Tanzania (FL, CL)		
Ireland (FL)	Thailand (FL)		
Israel (FL)	Uganda (FL, CL)		
Jamaica (FL)	United Kingdom (FL)		
Kenya (FL, CL)	United States (FL)		
Korea (Republic of) (FL)	Uruguay (FL)		
Madagascar (FL)	Vietnam (FL, CL)		
	Yemen (CL)		

³¹⁶ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

³¹⁷ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

Malaysia (FL)
Mauritius (FL)
Micronesia (FL)

Where are fish reportedly caught, harvested and processed with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, forced labor or forced child labor is reported in the fishing/seafood sector in the following countries: Bangladesh, Belize, Burundi, Cameroon, Comoros, Republic of Congo, Fiji, Gabon, Ghana, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Jamaica, Kenya, Korea, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mauritius, Micronesia, Namibia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, South Africa, Taiwan, Tanzania, Thailand, Uganda, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, and Vietnam.³¹⁸

The U.S. Department of Labor's 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* notes that fish/seafood products are produced with forced labor and child labor in Bangladesh, Ghana, and Indonesia. The list notes forced labor in the production of fish products in Thailand. Child labor is noted in Cambodia, El Salvador, Kenya, Nicaragua, Peru, Philippines, Tanzania, Uganda, Vietnam and Yemen.³¹⁹

The U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists the Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Korea, New Zealand, Philippines, Taiwan, United Kingdom and United States as Tier 1 countries. El Salvador, Fiji, Indonesia, Jamaica, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Micronesia, Namibia, Nicaragua, Palau, Peru, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Uganda, Uruguay and Vietnam are listed as Tier 2 countries. Cameroon, Republic of Congo, Costa Rica, Gabon, Ghana, Malaysia, Seychelles, Solomon Islands, Tanzania, and Thailand are Tier 2 countries. Bangladesh, Belize, Burundi, Comoros, and Papua New Guinea are Tier 3. Yemen is listed as a special case.³²⁰

Gathering region-specific data on forced labor in ocean fishing is difficult because many fishing vessels travel in international waters and have crews from multiple countries. In many instances, the country of vessel ownership, the port state, the vessel's flag state, the coastal state, and the nationality of the workers on board will all be different. For example, the U.S. Department of State reported in 2015 that fishers from Indonesia, the Philippines, Vietnam, Sri Lanka, North Korea and Fiji were subject to indicators of forced labor on Taiwanese flagged vessels in Solomon Islands' territorial waters.³²¹

³¹⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>
Note that this includes workers in forced labor or found to be in conditions of forced labor in recent years both in vessels leaving or docking in a country's ports or active in a country's territorial waters.

³¹⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. *2016 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*.
<https://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/list-of-goods/>

³²⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>
Note that this includes workers in forced labor or found to be in conditions of forced labor in recent years both in vessels leaving or docking in a country's ports or active in a country's territorial waters.

³²¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015.
<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in fishing look like?

Verité and the ILO have identified several contributing factors to forced labor in fishing. Employment in the fishing sector is highly dependent on the local context, the size of the vessel, and the type of fishing undertaken. Fishers employed on larger boats may have relatively formal employment agreements with the captain of the vessel or fleet ownership, but contracts are rare. Workers may be recruited through formal or informal labor recruiters, to whom they owe debt for their job placement. Often workers recruited through brokers will have no advanced knowledge of their actual employer. On small boats, employment relationships are predominantly casual. The relationship may be based on traditional relationships such as patronage, leading to a high level of dependence between the worker and boss. Further complicating the employment relationship, payment on both large and small fishing vessels is often based on the traditional “share” system in which worker pay is based on an allotment of net proceeds from the catch after expenses for output (food, fuel, etc.) are deducted. Under the “share” system, workers are considered ‘partners’ in the fishing venture rather than employees, and are therefore denied legal protections available to other classes of workers.³²²

The “share” system also means that crew members share financial risk with owners. If a voyage does not clear a profit, workers may not be compensated, leaving them vulnerable to debt. Fishers may also have their pay docked for items consumed on board including cigarettes, alcohol, medicine, and in some cases, food. These items are often deducted at highly inflated rates. In some cases, a workers’ family may also take loans from the boat ownership while the fisher is at sea. These loans are also deducted from the fisher’s pay at high interest. The many fishers who are paid under some version of the “share” system often lack visibility of the calculation of profit and therefore their wages. For example, workers interviewed in the Philippines tuna sector noted that they are barred from observing the catch being weighed, leaving them reliant on the word of the ownership and leading to a perception of being cheated.³²³

Rates of abuse are high on fishing vessels. Regardless of formal employment relationships, crews are generally overseen by a captain or boss. The captain or boss has a high financial stake in a profitable voyage, incentivizing abusive management practices including actual or threatened physical abuse (hitting, threats or actual violence with weapons, denial of rest), verbal abuse (yelling, threats), and other

³²² Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Fish in Indonesia: Platform (Jermal) Fishing, Small-Boat Anchovy Fishing, and Blast Fishing*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Indonesian%20Fishing%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Tuna in the Philippines*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Philippines%20Tuna%20Sector__9.16.pdf

International Labor Organization (ILO). *Caught at Sea: Forced Labour and Trafficking in Fisheries*. 2013.
http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_214472.pdf

³²³ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Fish in Indonesia: Platform (Jermal) Fishing, Small-Boat Anchovy Fishing, and Blast Fishing*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Indonesian%20Fishing%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Tuna in the Philippines*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Philippines%20Tuna%20Sector__9.16.pdf

forms of intimidation.³²⁴ In extreme cases, crew members have reported witnessing murders of crew members at the hands of bosses onboard vessels.³²⁵

Workers aboard fishing vessels are inherently isolated, particularly on larger vessels that can stay at sea for extended periods of time, leaving workers with limited means of escape or avenues to report abuse. Fishing operations take place across national and maritime boundaries, leaving workers under the legal jurisdiction of the country in which the vessel is flagged. In cases where the vessel is using a flag of convenience, workers have severely limited legal protection.³²⁶

The ILO identifies fishing as a highly hazardous sector. Fishers routinely face hazards and dangerous conditions of work including rough weather, exposure to sun and salt water without protective clothing, slippery/moving work surfaces, regular use of knives/other sharp objects, inadequate sleeping quarters, inadequate sanitation, and lack of fresh food/water. In addition, the work itself is highly labor intensive. When setting nets or hauling a catch, workers may be required to work around the clock for days without breaks. Workers report high degrees of fatigue, which further increases the risk of accidents. In informal fishing, children are involved in diving for fish, because they are believed to have stronger lungs. These children may dive without any protective gear, putting them at high risk for injury or death. Fish processing, which can take place on board larger vessels or in port cities, carries its own risks. For example, workers who pack fish on ice often report frost bite symptoms in the fingers. Few workers are provided adequate health and safety gear. When injuries and illness do occur, medical care is rarely provided. Adult and child workers interviewed by Verité reported high levels of injury to fishing crew, as well as high rates of illness. Due to the highly hazardous nature of the work, fishing is generally considered a worst form of child labor.³²⁷

³²⁴ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Fish in Indonesia: Platform (Jermal) Fishing, Small-Boat Anchovy Fishing, and Blast Fishing*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Indonesian%20Fishing%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Tuna in the Philippines*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Philippines%20Tuna%20Sector__9.16.pdf

International Labor Organization (ILO). *Caught at Sea: Forced Labour and Trafficking in Fisheries*. 2013.
http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_214472.pdf

³²⁵ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Caught at Sea: Forced Labour and Trafficking in Fisheries*. 2013.
http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_214472.pdf

³²⁶ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Fish in Indonesia: Platform (Jermal) Fishing, Small-Boat Anchovy Fishing, and Blast Fishing*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Indonesian%20Fishing%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Tuna in the Philippines*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Philippines%20Tuna%20Sector__9.16.pdf

International Labor Organization (ILO). *Caught at Sea: Forced Labour and Trafficking in Fisheries*. 2013.
http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_214472.pdf

³²⁷ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Fish in Indonesia: Platform (Jermal) Fishing, Small-Boat Anchovy Fishing, and Blast Fishing*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Indonesian%20Fishing%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Tuna in the Philippines*. 2012.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Philippines%20Tuna%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Labor rights abuses can also take place at the level of processing or canning. Burmese and Cambodian workers are also trafficked into working in fish processing plants in Thailand, through the same mechanisms that boat workers are recruited.³²⁸

Verité research found child labor in fish drying workshops in Indonesia. Girls as young as ten work alongside their mothers and are responsible for sorting, boiling, salt processing, and drying the fish. Because this work is conducted overnight, many of the girls drop out of school due to exhaustion.³²⁹ In the Philippines tuna canning sector, Verité found indicators of exploitive labor among the primarily female workers of the facility. There has been a shift towards a highly “casual” labor system. Workers are hired through manpower cooperatives or recruiters and therefore do not have a direct relationship with the canning facilities. Several workers reported wage deductions and forced overtime.³³⁰

Case Study:

Forced Child Labor, Lake Volta, Ghana

In Ghana, recruiters, many of whom are fishers themselves, approach the parents of young children and arrange to take them for training in fishing boats in the Lake Volta region. At the end of the training period, which may last up to five years, they are promised a payment of cash or goods.³³¹ Sometimes the brokers promise parents additional educational access and job training. They may also offer parents an advance for their child’s work. However, abusive work conditions and lack of interim payment may mean that children enter into a situation of human trafficking.³³² Children are reportedly controlled by physical violence, threats and withholding of adequate food, as well as intense social pressure.³³³ These children are predominantly boys, but recent studies have found that girls are affected as well. In certain communities, this practice is reportedly widespread with some sending villages reporting that up to 50 percent of children from that area will leave to work on Lake Volta.³³⁴

Human Trafficking in Thai Fishing Sector

In Thailand recent media stories and NGO reports have documented horrific abuses of migrant workers in the seafood sector.

International Labor Organization (ILO). *Caught at Sea: Forced Labour and Trafficking in Fisheries*. 2013.

http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_214472.pdf

³²⁸ Mirror Foundation. 2011. *Trafficking and Forced Labour of Thai Males in Deep-sea Fishing (Bangkok)*. As cited in:

International Labor Organization (ILO). *Employment Practices and Working Conditions in Thailand’s Fishing Sector*. 2013.

www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_220596.pdf

³²⁹ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Fish in Indonesia: Platform (Jermal) Fishing, Small-Boat Anchovy Fishing, and Blast Fishing*. 2012.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Indonesian%20Fishing%20Sector__9.16.pdf

³³⁰ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Tuna in the Philippines*. 2012.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Philippines%20Tuna%20Sector__9.16.pdf

³³¹ UN Office on Drugs and Crime. *Child Trafficking in Ghana*. 2010. <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/frontpage/child-trafficking-in-ghana.html>

³³² International Justice Mission. *Child Trafficking into Forced Labor on Lake Volta, Ghana*. 2016.

<https://www.ijm.org/sites/default/files/resources/ijm-ghana-report.pdf>

³³³ International Justice Mission. *Child Trafficking into Forced Labor on Lake Volta, Ghana*. 2016.

<https://www.ijm.org/sites/default/files/resources/ijm-ghana-report.pdf>

³³⁴ International Justice Mission. *Child Trafficking into Forced Labor on Lake Volta, Ghana*. 2016.

<https://www.ijm.org/sites/default/files/resources/ijm-ghana-report.pdf>

The labor shortage in the Thai fishing sector sets up a cycle of exploitation for workers.³³⁵ As vessels stay at sea for longer periods of time seeking fish due to decreasing fish-stocks, they operate outside law enforcement oversight. Larger vessels may stay out for up to a year while smaller vessels transship caught fish. The unappealing nature of these long voyages increases the sector's dependence on migrant workers.³³⁶

Migrant workers from Burma and Cambodia pay fees to brokers, often hoping to find jobs in construction or manufacturing. Instead, they may be sold to boat captains and subject to extreme violence, horrific conditions and up to 20 hours a day of forced work. Some were locked in chains and kept at sea for years.³³⁷

Verité research on migrant workers in the Thai fishing sector, published in 2016, confirmed many of these findings. Verité found that workers were in debt-bondage after deceptive recruitment. Several workers interviewed reported that they had been “sold” to a boat captain by a labor broker. Workers reportedly could not leave without facing financial penalties. Vessel-based workers reported that they had restricted freedom of movement, even while in port.³³⁸

Trafficking in the Irish Fishing Sector

A 2015 investigation by the Guardian found that fishers from Ghana, the Philippines, Egypt, and India were working under conditions of forced labor. Workers interviewed reported being recruited by labor agencies and some reported debt arising from illegal recruitment fees. Workers reported abusive conditions, including lower than legal minimum wage. Because they were undocumented, they were confined to the vessel even while it was in port as they feared being deported.³³⁹

³³⁵ Undercurrent News. “Thai Fishing Industry in Labor Shortage.” January 22, 2015.

³³⁶ Verité. *Recruitment Practices and Migrant Labor Conditions in Nestlé's Thai Shrimp Supply Chain*. 2016.

https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/NestleReport-ThaiShrimp_prepared-by-Verite.pdf

³³⁷ Environmental Justice Foundation. *Slavery at Sea: The Continued Plight of Trafficked Migrants in Thailand's Fishing Industry*. March 4, 2014. <http://ejfoundation.org/node/1062>

Hodal, Kate; Kelly, Chris. The Guardian. “Trafficked into slavery on Thai trawlers to catch food for prawns.” June 10, 2014.

<http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2014/jun/10/-sp-migrant-workers-new-life-enslaved-thai-fishing>.

McDowell, Robin; Mendoza, Martha; Mason, Margie. Associated Press. “Are Slaves Catching the Fish You Buy?” March 25,

2015. <http://bigstory.ap.org/article/b9e0fc7155014ba78e07f1a022d90389/ap-investigation-are-slaves-catching-fish-you-buy>

Stoakes, Emanuel; Kelly, Chris; Kelly, Annie. The Guardian. “Revealed: how the Thai fishing industry trafficks, imprisons and enslaves.” July 20, 2015. <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2015/jul/20/thai-fishing-industry-implicated-enslavement-deaths-rohingya>.

Urbina, Ian. New York Times. “Sea Slaves: The Human Misery That Feeds Pets and Livestock.” July 27, 2015.

http://www.nytimes.com/2015/07/27/world/outlaw-ocean-thailand-fishing-sea-slaves-pets.html?_r=1.

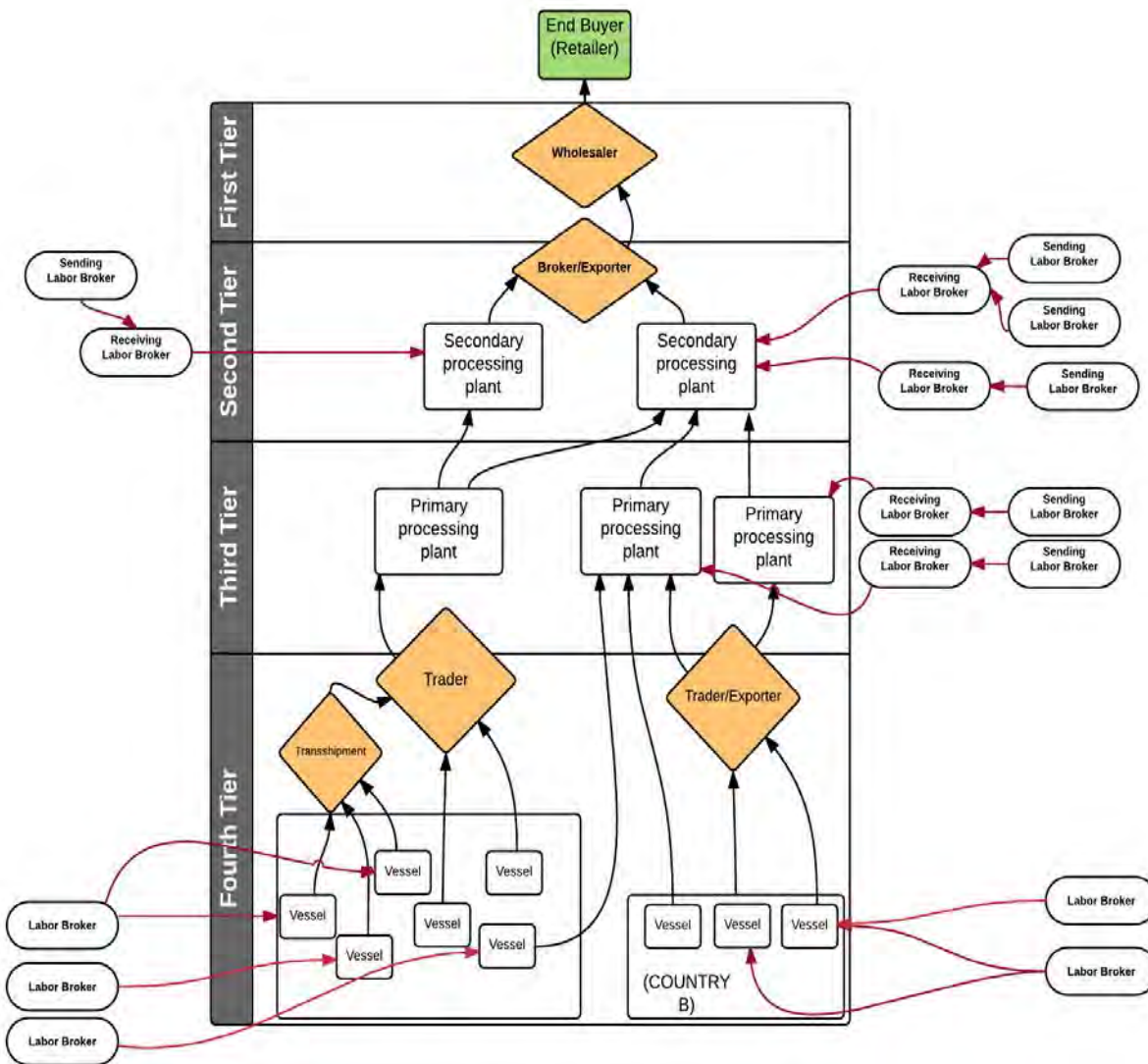
³³⁸ Verité. *Recruitment Practices and Migrant Labor Conditions in Nestlé's Thai Shrimp Supply Chain*. 2016.

https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/NestleReport-ThaiShrimp_prepared-by-Verite.pdf

³³⁹ Lawrence, Felicity; McSweeney, Ella; Kelly, Annie; Heywood, Matt; Susman, Dan; Kelly, Chris; Domokos, John. “Revealed: trafficked migrant workers abused in Irish fishing industry.” The Guardian. November 2, 2015.

<https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2015/nov/02/revealed-trafficked-migrant-workers-abused-in-irish-fishing-industry>

Fish Supply Chain:



The seafood sector is characterized by complex supply chains. In fact, 'chain' is a slightly misleading term because the layers, including multiple levels of middlemen, can be so intricate and opaque as to more closely resemble a web. Fish and shellfish are harvested in open waters or raised via aquaculture in ponds, tanks, or bounded coastal waters. Some wild-caught fish may be transported from the catching vessel by transshipment vessel to market. After harvest, fish are sold via auction, broker or market system and then packed and transported to processing facilities or wholesalers. Processors convert the fish to consumer products such as canned, frozen, or smoked products, and fillets or other fresh products. Some fish may pass through multiple levels of processing, while others, such as certain kinds of shellfish, are transported live. Wholesalers receive both processed products, as well as more minimally processed fresh fish, from both foreign and domestic sources. The wholesalers then distribute the products to retailers and restaurants, where they are purchased by consumers.

How do trafficking and/or child labor in fishing affect me?



Of all fish caught, 80 percent is used for food and 20 percent is made into fishmeal and oil.³⁴⁰

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) reports that “for two thirds of the world’s population, including most of the world’s poor, fish provides at least 40 percent of protein consumption.”³⁴¹ Americans consumed about 11.5 pounds of seafood in 2015, of which about 90 percent was imported.³⁴² About half of fish imported into the U.S. is wild-caught. In addition, a significant amount of fish landed in the U.S. is exported to foreign countries for processing, and then re-imported to the U.S. for consumption.³⁴³

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

After reports of human trafficking in the seafood sector, Thailand rolled out wide-ranging activities to combat trafficking, although NGOs note that implementation has been inconsistent.³⁴⁴ The Thai Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (MSDHS) rolled out the 2013 National Action Plan to Prevent and Suppress Human Trafficking (NAP) in the 2012-2013 fiscal year. The NAP lays out activities to combat human trafficking in Thailand, in the fishing sector specifically. Stakeholders, including the Environmental Justice Foundation (EJF) have been critical of the plan and of the government follow-through as of 2014. EJF states that implementation of the NAP “fail[s] to address many of the systemic issues identified by the U.S. Department of State as undermining efforts to combat human trafficking within Thailand.”³⁴⁵ And EJF investigation found that corruption is also a serious problem, with local officials enabling human trafficking.³⁴⁶ To address the root cause of the labor shortage in the fishing sector, the government passed new labor laws that mandated a minimum wage, as well as other working conditions such as employment contracts and holidays. However, the U.S.

³⁴⁰ UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Commodity Atlas: Fishery Products*. 2004.

http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditccom20041ch9_en.pdf

³⁴¹ UN Conference on Trade and Development. *Commodity Atlas: Fishery Products*. 2004.

http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditccom20041ch9_en.pdf

³⁴² White, Cliff. “American Seafood Consumption up in 2015.” SeafoodSource. October 27, 2016.

<http://www.seafoodsource.com/news/supply-trade/american-seafood-consumption-up-in-2015-landing-volumes-even>

³⁴³ Fishwatch. *Sustainable Seafood: The Global Picture*. <https://www.fishwatch.gov/sustainable-seafood/the-global-picture>

³⁴⁴ Humanity United. *Assessing Government and Business Responses to the Thai Seafood Crisis*. 2016.

https://humanityunited.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/FF_HU_Assessing-Reponse_FINAL_US-copy.pdf

³⁴⁵ Environmental Justice Foundation (EJF). *Slavery at Sea: The Continued Plight of Trafficked Migrants in Thailand's Fishing Industry*. 2014. http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/EJF_Slavery-at-Sea_report_2014_web-ok.pdf

³⁴⁶ Environmental Justice Foundation (EJF). *Slavery at Sea: The Continued Plight of Trafficked Migrants in Thailand's Fishing Industry*. 2014. http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/EJF_Slavery-at-Sea_report_2014_web-ok.pdf

Department of State reported that “law enforcement, inadequate human and financial resources, lack of systemic data linkages among relevant agencies, and fragmented coordination among regulatory agencies in the fishing industry contributed to overall impunity for exploitative labor practices in this sector.”³⁴⁷

In 2015, the government strengthened the legal framework governing the fishing sector, including legislation around working conditions, distant water fishing and vessel monitoring (VMS) requirements.³⁴⁸ The government also created databases to collect and share information on human trafficking as well as fishing vessels, licenses, and crews.³⁴⁹

Thai seafood companies, with U.S. and European retailers, created the Shrimp Sustainable Supply Chain Task Force (Task Force) in 2014. The Task Force is developing traceability and auditing systems and codes of conduct for vessels. A Vessel Watch subgroup is developing the Code of Conduct for ports, brokers and vessels. The Task Force is also aiming to “drive Fishery Improvement Projects (FIPs) in the Gulf of Thailand and Andaman Sea.” A review of actions in the Thai seafood sector by Humanity United noted question around the potential long-term success of the Task Force and urged the group to seek additional representation from “national organisations and workers’ groups.”³⁵⁰

Singapore’s Response to Migrant Workers Seeking Assistance in Port

The U.S. Department of State reported that the government of Singapore funds Seafarers’ Welfare Centers to help fishers who seek assistance in Singapore’s ports. However, because many migrant workers are ineligible to receive work permits, they are not eligible to receive legal redress in Singapore.³⁵¹

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a series of videos by the EJF on flags of convenience and pirate fishing.

[Read](#) a report by Verité on trafficking in the Philippines.

[Read](#) a report by Verité on human trafficking for forced labor indicators in the supply chain of fish in Indonesia.

[Read](#) a report by Verité on human trafficking for forced labor indicators in the supply chain of tuna in the Philippines

[Read](#) a report by the EJF about labor abuses in fishing.

[Read](#) a report by the International Transport Workers Federation on labor abuses in fishing and transport.

³⁴⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

³⁴⁸ Humanity United. *Assessing Government and Business Responses to the Thai Seafood Crisis*. 2016. https://humanityunited.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/FF_HU_Assessing-Reponse_FINAL_US-copy.pdf

³⁴⁹ Humanity United. *Assessing Government and Business Responses to the Thai Seafood Crisis*. 2016. https://humanityunited.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/FF_HU_Assessing-Reponse_FINAL_US-copy.pdf

³⁵⁰ Humanity United. *Assessing Government and Business Responses to the Thai Seafood Crisis*. 2016. https://humanityunited.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/FF_HU_Assessing-Reponse_FINAL_US-copy.pdf

³⁵¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

Flowers



Flowers are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Top ten countries that export flowers worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Top ten countries from which the US imports flowers (UN Comtrade 2012):

Afghanistan (CL)

Burma – sunflowers (FL)

Ecuador (CL)

India (FL)

United States (FL)

1. Netherlands

2. Colombia

3. Ecuador

4. Malaysia

5. Ethiopia

6. China

7. Thailand

8. Mexico

9. Spain

10. Germany

Not Available

Where are flowers reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* notes the possibility of trafficking in the Indian floriculture sector.³⁵²

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, flowers are harvested using child labor in Ecuador and Afghanistan. Sunflowers are reportedly produced using forced labor in Burma.³⁵³

³⁵² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

³⁵³ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014 http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRR_Report2014.pdf

There is some evidence that migrant workers experience indicators of forced labor in the plant nursery sector in the United States³⁵⁴

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Afghanistan, Ecuador and India as Tier 2 countries. Burma is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country. The United States is listed as a Tier 1 country.³⁵⁵

What does trafficking and/or child labor in flower production look like?

In 2000, the International Labor Organization reported that 20 percent of 60,000 flower workers in Ecuador were children who were forced to work in the industry for financial reasons, instead of attending school. Children in flower production are exposed to physically strenuous labor, long hours, and dangerous chemicals in the form of pesticides and herbicides. Fair Trade USA reported that workers (including children) in the flower industry are exposed to health risks from inhaling pesticides and fuel fumes and can develop asthma.³⁵⁶ These workers work seven days a week and are rarely allowed sick time or days off. Fair Trade USA claims that medical care and educational resources are very limited for workers in the cut flower industry.³⁵⁷

The International Labor Rights Fund (ILRF) reports that workers in the flower sector are routinely required to work overtime (up to 20 hours a day) without extra pay, particularly around high periods such as before Valentine's Day.³⁵⁸

Women, who are heavily represented in the flower sector, are subjected to endemic sexual violence and harassment, facilitated by solitary work conditions and long hours. Incidents are rarely reported, as women fear reprisal from their supervisors. Furthermore, the very poor women who often work in the flower sector may fear losing their jobs altogether if they report the abuse.³⁵⁹

In the United States, a lawsuit against Imperial Nurseries charges that agents of Imperial confiscated Guatemalan H-2B workers' passports to prevent their escape, forced them to work nearly 80 hours a week for far less than minimum wage, denied them emergency medical care, and threatened them with jail and deportation if they complained. Workers interviewed by Verité indicated that their freedom of movement was severely curtailed. Eight workers were housed in a small two bedroom apartment in a dangerous neighborhood in Hartford, CT where they were either afraid to talk to people or were unable to do so due to language barriers. They also reported that they were specifically told not to leave the apartment and

³⁵⁴ Verité. *Immigrant Workers in US Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. 2010. https://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

³⁵⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

³⁵⁶ Fair Trade USA. "Fair Trade Romance? Why Fair Trade Flowers Matter on Valentine's Day." Triple Pundit. February 7, 2013. <http://www.triplepundit.com/2013/02/fair-trade-romance-fair-trade-flowers-matter-valentines-day/>

³⁵⁷ Fair Trade USA. "Fair Trade Romance? Why Fair Trade Flowers Matter on Valentine's Day." Triple Pundit. February 7, 2013. <http://www.triplepundit.com/2013/02/fair-trade-romance-fair-trade-flowers-matter-valentines-day/>

³⁵⁸ International Labor Rights Fund (ILRF). *Flowers*. <http://www.laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/fairness-in-flowers>

³⁵⁹ International Labor Rights Fund (ILRF). *Sexual Harassment in the Workplace: The Cut Flower Industry*. April 2005. <http://www.laborrights.org/sites/default/files/publications-and-resources/Ecuador.pdf>

that two Mexican supervisors were housed with them to ensure that they did not escape. The employers threatened to report workers to immigration services if they tried to leave.³⁶⁰

How do trafficking and/or child labor in flower production affect me?



Flowers are in high demand in the United States as representations of love and affection during the holiday season. Almost ninety percent of America's Valentine's Day flowers are imported, and most of those flowers are from Colombia and Ecuador.³⁶¹ Ecuador is known to employ children in their cut flower industry.³⁶² The International Business Times found that, during the Valentine's Day season, workers were forced to work up to twenty hours per day, and the increased demand for labor increased the chances that children would be hired.³⁶³ The U.S. International Trade Commission reports that importing flowers from growers in South America and Africa is preferred over domestic production due to lower worker wages, lower land and resource costs, and weaker currency value.³⁶⁴

³⁶⁰ Verité. *Immigrant Workers in US Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. 2010. https://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

³⁶¹ Thakur, Monami. "Valentine's Day: Demand for Rose Soars in US, 90 Percent Imported." *International Business Times Media, Inc.* February 14, 2012. <http://www.ibtimes.com/valentines-day-demand-rose-soars-us-90-percent-imported-photos-554189#>

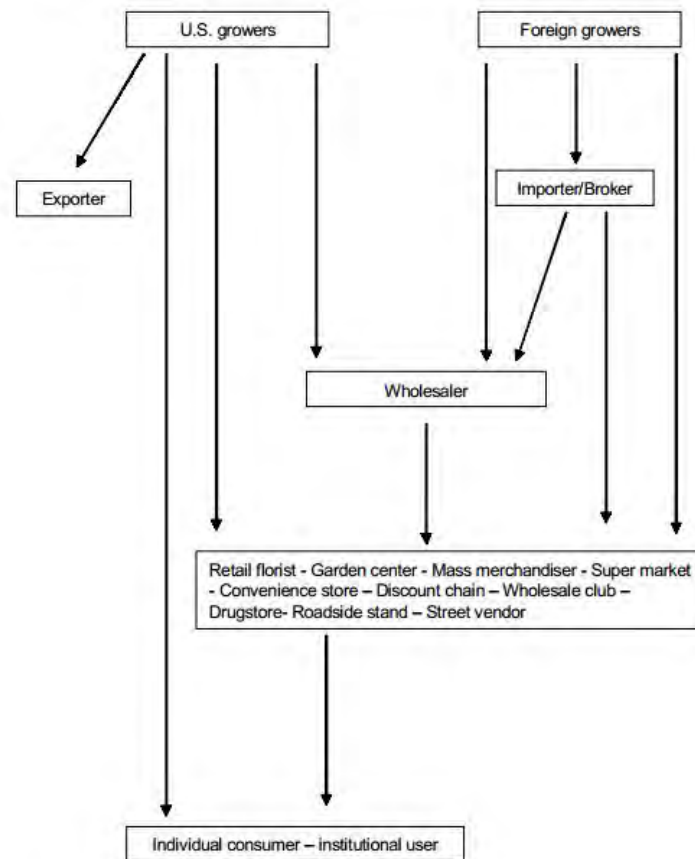
³⁶² U.S. Department of Labor. *2011 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. 2011. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2011TDA.pdf>

³⁶³ Thakur, Monami. "Valentine's Day: Demand for Rose Soars in US, 90 Percent Imported." *International Business Times Media, Inc.* February 14, 2012. <http://www.ibtimes.com/valentines-day-demand-rose-soars-us-90-percent-imported-photos-554189#>

³⁶⁴ U.S. International Trade Commission, Office of Industries. *Industry & Trade Summary: Cut Flowers*. February 2003. <http://www.usitc.gov/publications/332/pub3580.pdf>

Flower Production and Supply Chain:

Major distribution channels for fresh cut flowers in the United States



Source: US International Trade Commission, Office of Industries. *Industry & Trade Summary: Cut Flowers*. February 2003.

<http://www.usitc.gov/publications/332/pub3580.pdf>

In South America, seeds, seedlings, and flower cuttings are often imported from labs to be planted in greenhouses or fields. Some plants can last a number of years and produce hundreds of blooms. Flower plants can take weeks to mature and produce blooms, during which time workers must care for the plants, often by applying harmful pesticides and herbicides. After plants mature, flowers are cut, usually by hand, and shipped to the United States and Europe for sale.³⁶⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The ‘Ecuador without Child Labor’ government policy aims to gather child labor data, raise awareness and strengthen labor inspections. Under the policy, government agencies partner with private sector actors

³⁶⁵ U.S. International Trade Commission, Office of Industries. *Industry & Trade Summary: Cut Flowers*. February 2003. <http://www.usitc.gov/publications/332/pub3580.pdf>

to coordinate actions and promote joint programs to address child labor in agriculture, livestock, construction and flower sectors.³⁶⁶

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) this video on labor conditions on U.S. owned flower plantations

³⁶⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Ecuador*. 2013.
<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/ecuador.htm>

Gold



Gold is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:		Top ten countries that export gold worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ³⁶⁷	Top ten countries that import gold worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ³⁶⁸
Bolivia (CL)	Mongolia (CL)	1. Switzerland	1. Switzerland
Burkina Faso (FL, CL)	Nicaragua (CL)	2. Hong Kong	2. Hong Kong
Burundi (FL)	Niger (FL, CL)	3. United Kingdom	3. India
Cameroon (FL)	Nigeria (FL, CL)	4. United States	4. United Kingdom
Central African Republic (FL)	North Korea (FL)	5. United Arab Emirates	5. United Arab Emirates
Colombia (CL)	Peru (FL, CL)	6. Canada	6. United States of America
DRC (FL, CL)	Philippines (CL)	7. Australia	7. Thailand
Ecuador (CL)	Senegal (FL, CL)	8. Turkey	8. Canada
Ethiopia (CL)	Sudan (CL)	9. Peru	9. Saudi Arabia
Ghana (FL, CL)	Suriname (CL)	10. India	10. Germany
Guinea (FL, CL)	Tanzania (CL)		
Indonesia (CL)	Uganda (CL)		
Mali (FL, CL)	Vietnam (FL)		

Where is gold reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2016 Trafficking in Persons Report, gold is listed as being produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic (CAR), the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Ghana, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Peru, Senegal, and Vietnam.³⁶⁹

³⁶⁷ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

³⁶⁸ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

³⁶⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, gold is produced with child labor in Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Indonesia, Mali, Mongolia, Nicaragua, Niger, Philippines, Senegal, Sudan, Suriname, Tanzania, Uganda, and with forced labor in North Korea.³⁷⁰ The list states that both forced labor and child labor are present within the gold sectors of Burkina Faso, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Peru.³⁷¹

The U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Colombia and the Philippines as Tier 1 countries and Burkina Faso, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Peru, Uganda and Vietnam as Tier 2 countries. Bolivia, Cameroon, DRC, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Senegal, and Tanzania are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries. Burundi, CAR, North Korea, Sudan, and Suriname are listed as Tier 3 countries.³⁷²

What does trafficking and/or child labor in gold production look like?

Trafficking risk in illegal gold mining is linked with the presence of criminal groups and violence. Ongoing violence contributes to an environment of lawlessness and corruption, creating a population of workers that is fearful and desperate for work. The mere presence of armed groups in an area can restrict workers' freedom of movement, which in turn increases reliance on employers and reduces workers' ability to seek outside help in addressing abuses at their workplaces, especially if workers are far from home. Governments also cannot carry out monitoring of labor conditions or law enforcement in violent areas. The work involved in illegal gold mining is dirty, dangerous, and difficult, making it unattractive to all but the most desperate people. Victims of displacement, minorities, and individuals who lack identity documents often work in mines due to a lack of alternative employment options. Moreover, the environmental damage and displacement caused by illegal mining itself produce more vulnerable people who may have no choice but to participate in illegal mining to survive.³⁷³

In Peru and Colombia, illegal gold mines are often controlled by criminal groups, and the revenue generated from this activity has surpassed the revenue generated by cocaine trafficking in the world's top two cocaine producers.³⁷⁴ In the CAR, the Seleka and militia groups extract "taxes" from artisanal miners in areas they control, which are used to fund the conflict.³⁷⁵ In other cases, these groups outright control illegal mines and the workers in them.³⁷⁶ Similarly, in the DRC, armed groups control several types of mines, including gold mines. Miners may be forced to work under threat of violence or may be required

³⁷⁰ U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016. https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPR_Report2016.pdf

³⁷¹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016. https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPR_Report2016.pdf

³⁷² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

³⁷³ Verité. *The Nexus of Illegal Gold Mining and Human Trafficking in Global Supply Chains*. 2016. https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Verite-Report-Illegal_Gold_Mining-2.pdf

³⁷⁴ https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Verite-Report-Illegal_Gold_Mining-2.pdf

³⁷⁵ Gridneff, Ilya. "Blood Gold Flows Illegally From Central African Republic." Bloomberg. March 8, 2015.

<https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2015-03-08/blood-gold-exports-pour-illegally-from-central-african-republic>

³⁷⁶ Flynn, Daniel. "Gold, diamonds feed Central African religious violence." Reuters. July 29, 2014.

<http://www.reuters.com/article/us-centralafrica-resources-insight-idUSKBN0FY0MN20140729>

Hojje, Katrina. "Rebels Retain Control of Rich Mine in Central African Republic." VOA News. November 21, 2013.

<http://www.voanews.com/a/rebels-retain-control-mine-central-african-republic/2530046.html>

to pay a “tax” to armed groups. Profits from gold mining, as well as mining of minerals including cassiterite, columbite-tantalite and wolframite, fund the ongoing conflict in the country.³⁷⁷

Discoveries of gold in a region can lead to “rushes” of migration, particularly in areas where people have lost other livelihood options. In the Kedougou region of Senegal, villagers who cannot support their families through agriculture or have lost their land to logging have turned to gold mining out of necessity.³⁷⁸ This rush has precipitated a large-scale migration of migrants from neighboring countries such as Mali, Guinea, Gambia, Ghana, Burkina Faso, Togo, and Nigeria.³⁷⁹

The isolated nature of many mining regions as well as the “rush” nature of production can create highly vulnerable populations in mining camps and towns. There are anecdotal reports that sex trafficking has been noted in rapidly growing mining towns in Kedougou.³⁸⁰ Verité has noted a high risk of both labor and sex trafficking in and around illegal mining operations in Peru.³⁸¹ Research from Free the Slaves has noted that, in Ghana, “Traditional social systems of protection are currently weakened or rarely in use in and around galamsey³⁸² gold mining communities (presumably in part because these are more transient communities).”³⁸³ Human Rights Watch has noted that girls working on or near mining sites in Ghana face “sexual harassment, sexual exploitation and rape.”³⁸⁴

Child labor is also strongly associated with artisanal and illegal mining in a wide variety of countries including Mali,³⁸⁵ Ghana,³⁸⁶ Burkina Faso,³⁸⁷ and the Philippines.³⁸⁸ An ILO expert has stated that, “the

³⁷⁷ Free the Slaves. *The Congo Report: Slavery in Conflict Minerals*. June 2011.

<https://www.freetheslaves.net/document.doc?id=243>

Global Witness. *Faced With A Gun, What Can You Do?* 2009.

<https://www.globalwitness.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/englishsummary.pdf>

Bariyo, Nicholas; Freeman, Francesca; Plevin, Liam. “Inside Congo’s link in the Gold Chain.” *The Wall Street Journal*. April 14, 2013. <https://www.wsj.com/articles/SB10001424127887323820304578410273270663086>

³⁷⁸ International Organization for Migration. “Gold rush in Kédougou, Senegal: Protecting migrants and local communities” *Global Eye on Human Trafficking*. 2012. http://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/globaleyeissue11_29feb2012.pdf

³⁷⁹ International Organization for Migration. “Gold rush in Kédougou, Senegal: Protecting migrants and local communities” *Global Eye on Human Trafficking*. 2012. http://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/globaleyeissue11_29feb2012.pdf

³⁸⁰ International Organization for Migration. “Gold rush in Kédougou, Senegal: Protecting migrants and local communities” *Global Eye on Human Trafficking*. 2012. http://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/globaleyeissue11_29feb2012.pdf

³⁸¹ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013.

<http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

³⁸² Illegal or informal mining sites

³⁸³ Free the Slaves. “Child Slavery, Child Labor and Exploitation of Children in Mining Communities Obuasi, Ghana.” 2013. <http://www.freetheslaves.net/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/Summary-of-Findings-Child-Rights-in-Mining-Ghana-January-2013.pdf>

³⁸⁴ Human Rights Watch. “Precious Metal, Cheap Labor. Child Labor and Corporate Responsibility in Ghana’s Artisanal Gold Mines.” 2015 <https://www.hrw.org/report/2015/06/10/precious-metal-cheap-labor/child-labor-and-corporate-responsibility-ghanas>

³⁸⁵ Human Rights Watch. “Mali: Artisanal Mines Produce Gold With Child Labor Hazardous Work, Mercury Poisoning, and Disease.” 2011. <https://www.hrw.org/news/2011/12/06/mali-artisanal-mines-produce-gold-child-labor>

³⁸⁶ Human Rights Watch. “Precious Metal, Cheap Labor. Child Labor and Corporate Responsibility in Ghana’s Artisanal Gold Mines.” 2015 <https://www.hrw.org/report/2015/06/10/precious-metal-cheap-labor/child-labor-and-corporate-responsibility-ghanas>

³⁸⁷ Price, Larry C. “One Million Children Labor in Africa’s Goldmines.” *PBS Newshour*. July 10, 2013.

http://www.pbs.org/newshour/updates/world-july-dec13-burkinafaso_07-10/

³⁸⁸ Human Rights Watch. ““What ... if Something Went Wrong?” Hazardous Child Labor in Small-Scale Gold Mining in the Philippines.” September 29, 2015. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2015/09/29/what-if-something-went-wrong/hazardous-child-labor-small-scale-gold-mining>

more remote and more informal a small-scale mining activity, the more likely children are to be involved.”³⁸⁹ In many cases, children and juveniles are among the migrant workers in mining, travelling either with their families or independently.³⁹⁰ In general, child laborers in gold mining include both children working voluntarily, as a means of supporting themselves or their families, and children who have been trafficked. The ILO has noted that in general, the wages children earn in mining are less than those earned by adults.³⁹¹

Although not a trafficking risk in itself, artisanal gold mining is highly hazardous and presents serious health hazards to all workers, especially children. The mining shafts in which workers, including teenage boys, often work are usually unstable and children can suffer severe injuries or death from falls and collapsed mine shafts.³⁹² The dust from pulverizing stone can lead to lung damage. Younger children often dig out the pits with sharp tools and carry heavy bags of ore, both of which can lead to musculoskeletal injuries.³⁹³

In artisanal gold mining, powdered ore is mixed with mercury to create an amalgam that workers burn to evaporate the mercury and collect the gold. Women and children often perform this task at mining camps. This process is detrimental to workers’ health, as exposure to mercury can cause developmental and neurological problems, especially among children.³⁹⁴ For women, mercury exposure can lead to birth defects.³⁹⁵ Mercury may be ingested (accidentally during work or through contaminated water), absorbed through the skin (when it is handled with bare hands or miners swim in mercury contaminated water), or inhaled (when the mercury is burnt off pieces of gold). This can result in inflammation of vital organs, the inability to urinate, shock, and death. It can also result in skin lesions, irritation to the lungs, difficulty breathing, and permanent damage to the nervous system.³⁹⁶ Verité research in Peru indicates that in some formal processing plants, workers are also exposed to cyanide with minimal personal protective equipment (PPE) and many workers are exposed to mercury with little or no PPE in illegal gold mining.³⁹⁷

Case Studies:

Gold Production in Burkina Faso and Mali

³⁸⁹ International Labor Organization. “The burden of gold Child labour in small-scale mines and quarries.” August 1, 2005. http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/world-of-work-magazine/articles/WCMS_081364/lang--en/index.htm

³⁹⁰ Thorsen, Dorte. *Children Working in Mines and Quarries – Evidence from West and Central Africa*. UNICEF. April 2012. http://www.unicef.org/wcaro/english/Briefing_paper_No_4_-_children_working_in_mines_and_quarries.pdf

³⁹¹ International Labor Organization. “The burden of gold Child labour in small-scale mines and quarries.” August 1, 2005. http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/world-of-work-magazine/articles/WCMS_081364/lang--en/index.htm

³⁹² Internal Verité research.

³⁹³ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Toxic Toil: Child Labor and Mercury Exposure in Tanzania’s Small-Scale Gold Mines*. August 2013. <http://www.hrw.org/node/118031/>

³⁹⁴ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Toxic Toil: Child Labor and Mercury Exposure in Tanzania’s Small-Scale Gold Mines*. August 2013. <http://www.hrw.org/node/118031/>

³⁹⁵ No Dirty Gold. *Where Gold is Mined*. http://www.nodirtygold.org/stdnt_where.cfm

³⁹⁶ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Peligros, Riesgos y Daños a La Salud de Los Niños y Niñas que Trabajan en la Minería Artesanal*. Organización Internacional del Trabajo. 2005. http://white.oit.org.pe/ipecc/documentos/cartilla_riesgos_min.pdf

³⁹⁷ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

The International Labor Organization (ILO) estimates that the Sahel region in West Africa accounts for a quarter of all child labor in mining. The ILO indicates that 70 percent of all children working in the area are less than 15 years old.³⁹⁸ While the majority of gold in Burkina Faso and Mali is produced by large-scale commercial mines, often owned by foreign companies, small-scale mining offers an opportunity for income in a region ranked among the world's poorest and least developed. The vast majority of child labor is associated with these small-scale mines. Many children working in mines work alongside and live with their families in camps near the mines. In other cases, children, particularly juvenile boys, may migrate by themselves to seek livelihood opportunities.³⁹⁹

Although much of the reporting has focused on children who migrate willingly, either individually or with their families, police have rescued children who were trafficked to gold mines in Burkina Faso.⁴⁰⁰ The U.S. Department of State reported that women and girls are trafficked to gold mining regions for domestic labor and forced prostitution in and around gold mining areas in Mali.⁴⁰¹

Gold Production in Peru

Verité's research indicates that Peru is one of the world's largest producers and exporters of gold. Verité's research also suggests that over 20 percent of Peru's gold is produced illegally and that indicators of vulnerability to trafficking are widespread in the illegal mining sector. Verité found evidence that illegal gold is often "laundered," after which it makes its way into Peru's exports and the global supply chain. Although there are few official statistics on the amount of illegally produced gold that makes its way into global markets, Verité found cases in which gold exported to Switzerland could be traced back to areas in which the vast majority of gold is produced illegally and, or, in situations where indicators of vulnerability to human trafficking were present.⁴⁰²

The Madre de Dios region in southeastern Peru, which accounts for over three-fourths of Peru's gold deposits according to the Peruvian National Institute of Planning, is a major site for both forced and child labor. Peru's Environment Minister, Mr. Antonio Brack, told NPR's Lourdes Garcia-Navarro in a September 2009 interview that "99.9 percent of all mining concessions in Madre de Dios are illegal."⁴⁰³ Workers are recruited from the Andean highlands and promised high wages, food, and lodging; however, these promises are rarely fulfilled. In Madre de Dios, worker interviews conducted by Verité revealed deception regarding terms of employment, induced indebtedness, physical isolation and confinement, withholding and non-payment of wages, physical abuse, the threat of denunciation to authorities, and induced addiction to illegal drugs. Verité also found evidence of sex trafficking and child labor in services

³⁹⁸ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Child Labor in Gold Mining: The Problem*. June 2006. http://www.rimmrights.org/childmining/child_labour_in_gold_mining.htm

³⁹⁹ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Mali: Artisanal Mines Produce Gold with Child Labor*. December 6, 2011. <http://www.hrw.org/news/2011/12/06/mali-artisanal-mines-produce-gold-child-labor>

⁴⁰⁰ Charlton, Angela. "Child Trafficking Victims Freed in Burkina Faso." *Associated Press*. November, 22 2012. <http://bigstory.ap.org/article/child-trafficking-victims-freed-burkina-faso>

⁴⁰¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴⁰² Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

⁴⁰³ National Public Radio (NPR). "Interoceanic Highway Lead to Peru's Gold Mines." September 15, 2009. <http://www.npr.org/templates/transcript/transcript.php?storyId=112861679>

related to gold mining.⁴⁰⁴ The U.S. Department of Labor reported that, “one survey found that only half of the gold workers in Madre de Dios returned home with any earnings, despite the fact that their main objective for working had been to gain income for their families.”⁴⁰⁵ A report published by the ILO in 2015 found multiple indicators of forced labor, especially degrading working and living conditions, in illegal gold mining in Madre de Dios.⁴⁰⁶

Gold Production and Global Supply Chains:

The majority of the world’s gold – an estimated 75 percent in 2009 – is produced by large, multinational companies using advanced technology to extract gold in large-scale mines.⁴⁰⁷ The remaining 25 percent is produced by artisanal mines.⁴⁰⁸

Gold is mined either through hard-rock or alluvial mining. In hard-rock mining, minerals and metals are extracted from rock, which can be done in large open-pit mines or in tunnels that are dug into rock faces. In alluvial mining, minerals and metals are extracted from water. This can be done through panning in rivers; sluicing, in which water is combined with materials (such as sand and dirt) and is channeled into boxes that sift and separate the minerals and metals from the material; and dredging, in which minerals and metal-laced sediment are sucked up from sediment in bodies of water.⁴⁰⁹

After the gold is mined, it must be separated from the material that bears it. In hard-rock mining, the rock is often ground into dust. The gold can either be separated using gravity concentration or chemical processes. Both mercury and cyanide are used and these chemicals must then be burnt off.⁴¹⁰ In artisanal and small-scale mining, mercury is used, and this dangerous process may take place in or around miners’ homes.⁴¹¹

Gold generally passes through several layers of consolidators, intermediaries, and exporters (some of whom may actually be illegal smugglers) before it enters into the processing level.⁴¹² Once gold reaches refineries in countries including the United States and Switzerland, it becomes even more difficult to

⁴⁰⁴ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013.

<http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

⁴⁰⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. *Forced and Bonded Child Labor*. <http://www.dol.gov/ILAB/media/reports/iclp/sweat2/bonded.htm>

⁴⁰⁶ http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@americas/@ro-lima/@sro-lima/documents/publication/wcms_427621.pdf

⁴⁰⁷ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013.

<http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

Larmer, Brook. “The Real Price of Gold.” *National Geographic*. January 2009.

<http://ngm.nationalgeographic.com/2009/01/gold/larmer-text>

⁴⁰⁸ Larmer, Brook. “The Real Price of Gold.” *National Geographic*. January 2009.

<http://ngm.nationalgeographic.com/2009/01/gold/larmer-text>

⁴⁰⁹ Ethical Gold Fund. Mining Process. <http://www.ethicalgoldfund.com/#!mining-process/c248p>

⁴¹⁰ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013.

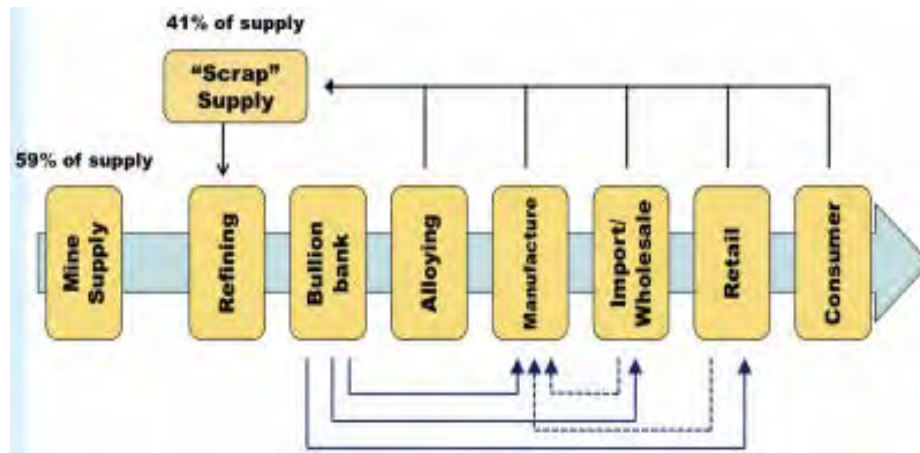
<http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

⁴¹¹ UN Environmental Program (UNEP). A Practical Guide: Reducing Mercury Use in Artisanal and Small Scale Gold Mining. July 2012.

http://www.unep.org/chemicalsandwaste/Portals/9/Mercury/Documents/ASGM/Techdoc/UNEP%20Tech%20Doc%20APRIL%202012_120608b_web.pdf

⁴¹² Verité. *The Nexus of Illegal Gold Mining and Human Trafficking in Global Supply Chains*. 2016. https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Verite-Report-Illegal_Gold_Mining-2.pdf

identify the origin of the gold, as gold from all over the world may be mixed and processed together. Refineries sell gold to banks, jewelry companies, and electronic producers around the world.⁴¹³



Source: Responsible Jewelry Council. *Gold and the Jewelry Supply Chain*. May 18, 2010.
http://www.responsiblejewellery.com/files/RJC_18_May_Philip_Olden.pdf

Verité research has found that literally tons of illegally mined Latin American gold are purchased and used by central banks and major international jewelry and electronics producers, which are the main consumers of gold. A Verité analysis of Dodd-Frank Act compliance found that approximately 90 percent (64 out of the 72 Fortune 500 companies that filed conflict minerals disclosures in 2015) purchased gold from refineries with a pattern of sourcing illegally mined gold from Latin America.⁴¹⁴ A 2016 report by the Global Initiative against Transnational Organized Crime found direct links between some of the biggest exporters of illegally mined gold in both Peru and Colombia, and U.S.-based refineries that source gold to major electronics and jewelry brands, as well as links to the U.S. Federal Mint.⁴¹⁵

How does trafficking and/or labor in gold production affect me?



⁴¹³ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013.
<http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

⁴¹⁴ Verité. *The Nexus of Illegal Gold Mining and Human Trafficking in Global Supply Chains: Lessons from Latin America*. July 2016. https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Verite-Report-Illegal_Gold_Mining-2.pdf

⁴¹⁵ The Global Initiative against Transnational Organized Crime. *Organized Crime and Illegally Mined Gold in Latin America*. April 2016. <http://globalinitiative.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/TGIATOC-OC-and-Illegally-Mined-Gold-in-Latin-America-Report-1718-digital.pdf>

Jewelry accounts for the majority of all gold use. Due to its high conductivity, gold is also used in electronics such as cell phones and laptops. Small amounts of gold are also used in dentistry and medicine. In 2012, consumers possessed approximately 75 to 80 percent of the world's gold in 70,000 to 80,000 tons of jewelry, as well as other consumer goods, coins, and gold bullion. Approximately 20 to 25 percent of the world's gold was held as bullion by central banks, which held about 30,000 tons of bullion, including 8,139 tons by the United States, 3,469 tons by Germany, 3,217 tons by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), 3,025 tons by France, and 2,590 tons by Switzerland.⁴¹⁶

In addition to using a large amount of gold in its banking sector, Switzerland is a global clearinghouse for gold, with much of the gold it imports eventually making its way into gold bullion, jewelry, watches, and electronics that end up in the hands of consumers in countries around the world. Up to 96 percent of the world's gold may go to Switzerland at one point or another.⁴¹⁷

Gold and the Environment:

In addition to being linked to forced labor, gold production is highly destructive environmentally. Cyanide and mercury are used to separate gold particles, and smelting produces 13 percent of all sulfur dioxide annually.⁴¹⁸ The chemicals used in gold production pollute water and surrounding land and affect human health. For example, in Peru, high levels of mercury have been found in Lake Titicaca, much of which comes from the processing of gold in La Rinconada, the highest city in the world;⁴¹⁹ and in the Madre de Dios region, the Amazon Conservation Association (ACA) estimates that 30 to 40 tons of mercury are dumped annually. This causes more than half of the commonly eaten fish to contain unsafe amounts of mercury, leading 78 percent of residents to have unsafe levels of mercury in their blood.⁴²⁰ In Zimbabwe, women living near gold mining areas where mercury is used were found to have extremely high levels of mercury in their breast milk, putting their nursing children at risk.⁴²¹

Acidic water, which is highly toxic, can drain from mining sites, contaminating local water sources. Acidic water can also leach other metals from rocks, such as cadmium, arsenic, lead and iron into water. These can make water unpotable.⁴²²

Additionally, gold production is linked with deforestation. In the Madre de Dios region alone, 370,000 acres of rainforest have been lost to gold mining, and there is no indication that the deforestation will

⁴¹⁶ Bullionmark. *How Much Gold is There?* 2016. <http://www.bullionmark.com.au/how---much---gold---is---there>

⁴¹⁷ Mariani, Daniel. "Switzerland: the World's Gold Hub." *Swissinfo.ch*. October 12, 2012. http://www.swissinfo.ch/eng/business/Switzerland:_the_world_s_gold_hub.html?cid=33706126

⁴¹⁸ No Dirty Gold. *Where Gold is Mined*. http://www.nodirtygold.org/stdnt_where.cfm

⁴¹⁹ Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

⁴²⁰ Amazon Conservation Association. *Fact Sheet: Illegal Gold Mining in Madre de Dios, Peru*. http://www.amazonconservation.org/pdf/gold_mining_fact_sheet.pdf

Collins, Dan. "Peru's Gold Rush Sparks Fear of Ecological Disaster." *BBC*. December 20, 2009. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/8411408.stm>

⁴²¹ Mambondiyani, Andrew. "Zimbabwe's desperate gold rush poisons children with mercury" *Reuters*. July 13, 2015. <http://www.reuters.com/article/us-zimbabwe-gold-mercury-idUSKCN0PN26H20150713>

⁴²² Brilliant Earth. *Gold Mining and the Environment*. <https://www.brilliantearth.com/gold-mining-environment/>

cease.⁴²³ In the Sahel Region in West Africa, gold mining is contributing to drastic deforestation and desertification, as trees are cut down to line mine shafts.⁴²⁴

When local populations are displaced or lose access to their traditional livelihoods due to gold mining, they may become more vulnerable to exploitation in gold mining or other sectors.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is undertaking a high-level initiative to develop a due diligence policy for coltan, tungsten, tin and gold mining in conflict and high-risk scenarios, particularly the DRC. Forced labor is one of the indicators of "intolerable abuses" in this due diligence guide.⁴²⁵

In March 2010, the Fairtrade Labeling Organization (FLO) and the Alliance for Responsible Mining (ARM) launched a Fairmined Standard for Gold and Associated Precious Metals. "Fairmined" gold certified under the standard must meet social, environmental, labor and economic requirements in artisanal mining communities. As of 2017, six artisanal and small-scale mining organizations are Fairmined certified. Fairmined is working across Latin America, Asia, and Africa to improve mining practices. The annual production of Fairmined certified gold is roughly 500 kilograms per year.⁴²⁶

The Responsible Jewelry Council (RJC) is a membership organization which aims to improve conditions in gold and diamond supply chains. In 2009, the RJC initiated a certification program for its members' gold and diamond supply chains requiring obligatory third party auditing.⁴²⁷ In 2012, RJC launched a Chain-of-Custody (CoC) certification. RJC has also partnered with the Alliance for Responsible Mining (ARM) to "improve social, environmental and labor practices...enhance relationships between large-scale mining and artisanal and small-scale mining and increase market access for precious metals from responsible artisanal and small-scale mining."⁴²⁸ In partnership with ARM, in 2016 RJC piloted a combined Fairmined and CoC audit of metals refiner Metalor Technologies SA "with the objective of reducing audit burden, without compromising the quality and rigour of the audit process."⁴²⁹

No Dirty Gold, a campaign from the NGO Earthworks, seeks to promote environmental and social standards in gold mining. As of 2017, more than 115 companies had signed on to the No Dirty Gold's "12 Golden Rules" for sourcing, including eight out of the top ten jewelry retailers, with Target being the

⁴²³ Amazon Conservation Association. *Fact Sheet: Illegal Gold Mining in Madre de Dios, Peru*. http://www.amazonconservation.org/pdf/gold_mining_fact_sheet.pdf

⁴²⁴ The Guardian. "Battling the Effects of Gold Mining in Burkina Faso." September 5, 2011. <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/gallery/2011/sep/05/burkina-faso-gold-in-pictures#/?picture=378427673&index=10>

⁴²⁵ Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). *Draft Due Diligence Guidelines for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas*. 2010. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/13/18/46068574.pdf>

⁴²⁶ Alliance for Responsible Mining. *Fairmined Gold*. <http://www.communitymining.org/en/1-fairmined-gold>

⁴²⁷ Responsible Jewellery Council. *Gold and the Jewelry Supply Chain*. May 18, 2010. http://www.responsiblejewellery.com/downloads/RJC_18_May_Philip_Olden.pdf

⁴²⁸ Responsible Jewellery Council. *Artisanal and Small-scale Mining*. <http://www.responsiblejewellery.com/artisanal-and-small-scale-mining/>

⁴²⁹ Responsible Jewellery Council. *Artisanal and Small-scale Mining*. <http://www.responsiblejewellery.com/artisanal-and-small-scale-mining/>

most recent addition.⁴³⁰ The Madison Dialogue is another industry-focused organization which does not offer a certification program, but instead seeks to build engagement in the gold and diamond supply chains.⁴³¹

In response to the hazards mercury poses to the environment and human health, whether used in gold mining or elsewhere, the UN Environmental Program (UNEP) drafted a convention on mercury, called the Minamata Convention. The convention was agreed to in January 2013, was ratified in the U.S. in June 2013, and has since been signed by 128 countries and ratified by 38 countries worldwide.⁴³² Signatories of the convention agree to measures limiting and controlling the mining, manufacture, storage, and trade of mercury; this includes a ban on the creation of new mercury mines and an agreement to cease operations of already operating mercury mines within 15 years.⁴³³

How can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video by HRW on gold mining in New Guinea.

[Read](#) a Verité report on indicators of forced labor and human trafficking in gold mining in Peru.

[Learn](#) more about the environmental effects of gold at “No Dirty Gold.”

⁴³⁰ No Dirty Gold. *Where Gold is Mined*. http://www.nodirtygold.org/stdnt_where.cfm

⁴³¹ Fair Jewelry Action. *The Madison Dialogue: A Cross-Sector Initiative*. <http://www.fairjewelry.org/the-madison-dialogue-a-cross-sector-initiative/>

⁴³² Minamata Convention on Mercury. *List of Signatories and Future Parties*. <http://www.mercuryconvention.org/Countries>

⁴³³ UN Environmental Program (UNEP). *Minimata Convention on Mercury: Text and Annexes*. October 2013.

http://www.mercuryconvention.org/Portals/11/documents/Booklets/Minamata%20Convention%20on%20Mercury_booklet_English.pdf

Granite and Other Stone



Granite and other stones are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Top ten countries that export granite and other stones worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Top ten countries from which the US imports granite and other stones (UN Comtrade 2012):

Granite:

Benin (CL)
Nigeria (FL, CL)
Sierra Leone (CL)

Gravel (crushed stone):

Guatemala (CL)
Nicaragua (CL)
Nigeria (FL, CL)

Limestone:

Egypt (CL)
Paraguay (CL)

Pumice:

Nicaragua (CL)

Various Stones:

India (FL, CL)
Madagascar (CL)
Nepal (FL, CL)
Zambia (CL)

Granite:

1. India
2. Indonesia
3. China
4. Brazil
5. Norway
6. Sweden
7. Turkey
8. Finland
9. Portugal
10. South Africa

Stones/Gravel (crushed stone):

1. Ukraine
2. Norway
3. Germany
4. Belgium
5. Malaysia
6. United Kingdom
7. Mexico
8. France
9. Indonesia
10. Netherlands

Granite:

1. India
2. Canada
3. China
4. South Africa
5. United Kingdom
6. Uruguay
7. Italy
8. Philippines
9. Zimbabwe
10. Norway

Stones/Gravel (crushed stone):

1. Mexico
2. Canada
3. Bahamas
4. Honduras
5. Norway
6. Jamaica
7. Germany
8. Italy
9. New Zealand
10. Venezuela

Where is stone reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, granite is produced with forced labor in Nigeria and with child labor in Benin, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone.⁴³⁴ Additionally, gravel (crushed stone) is reportedly produced with forced labor in Nigeria and with child labor in Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Nigeria (see the [Gravel and Crushed Stone](#) commodity report for more information). Child labor is reportedly used in limestone production in Egypt and Paraguay and in pumice production in Nicaragua. Various stones are reportedly produced with forced and child labor in India and Nepal and with child labor in Madagascar and Zambia.⁴³⁵

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Nicaragua, Benin, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Guatemala, Madagascar, Paraguay, India, Nepal and Zambia as Tier 2 Countries. Egypt is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country.⁴³⁶

What does trafficking and/or child labor in stone production look like?

In Nigeria, young migrant workers may be at risk of trafficking. Often the workers are young boys or teenagers who may migrate to Nigeria willingly and receive advances from labor brokers, but who end up in situations of trafficking. While there is no confirmed total estimate of labor trafficking victims in Nigerian granite, one estimate states that “at least 6,000 children from Benin alone are forced to work in the country’s granite pits in the southwest.”⁴³⁷

In India, forced and child labor are linked to the quarrying of granite and other stones. It is estimated that around 200,000 children work in sandstone production in India.⁴³⁸ Entire families who take loans may become bonded for generations and forced to work in quarries. Children may inherit the debt and be forced to work to pay it off. Bonded children may also be bought and sold between quarry owners.⁴³⁹

According to one organization, the majority of quarry workers in India are impacted by debt bondage.⁴⁴⁰ In these circumstances, workers take on debt which, when unpaid, may be passed down through generations. According to a study by the India Committee for the Netherlands (2006) families often take on debt during the rainy season in which quarrying is halted and they have no alternative income source. Debts may accumulate due to high interest rates, cost of supplies and tools, and contractor fees.⁴⁴¹

⁴³⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

⁴³⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

⁴³⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴³⁷ Stone World. *Child Laborers are Rescued from Nigerian Granite Quarries*. November 1, 2003. <http://www.stoneworld.com/articles/child-laborers-are-rescued-from-nigerian-granite-quarries>

⁴³⁸ Griffiths, Sophie. “We Can’t Turn a Blind Eye to This.” *Building Magazine*. April 9, 2010. <http://www.building.co.uk/we-can%E2%80%99t-turn-a-blind-eye-child-labour/3161396.article>

⁴³⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced or Indentured Child Labor*. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/list-of-products/index-country.htm>

⁴⁴⁰ Griffiths, Sophie. “We Can’t Turn a Blind Eye to This.” *Building Magazine*. April 9, 2010. <http://www.building.co.uk/we-can%E2%80%99t-turn-a-blind-eye-child-labour/3161396.article>

⁴⁴¹ India Committee of the Netherlands. *From Quarry to Graveyard: Corporate Social Responsibility in the Natural Stone Sector. Labour, Social, Environmental and Economic Issues in the Quarrying, Processing and Trade of Natural Stone from Developing Countries. Focus on India and the Netherlands*. 2006. www.indianet.nl/pdf/fromquarrytograveyard.pdf

Stone Production and Supply Chain:

Imports are divided into dimension stones, which have been shaped, and crushed stone, which has not. The most commonly sold forms of dimension stone in the United States are limestone, granite, and sandstone. Rough stone is used in construction and "dressed" or finished stone in products such as tile, blackboards, and flagging.⁴⁴²

The principal sources of stone imports for the United States are not those countries which produce stone with forced or child labor, with the exception of India.

In 2008, the most significant import sources by value for all dimension stones included Brazil, Italy, China, and Turkey. For granite specifically, the most significant sources were Brazil, China, Italy, and India. Only five percent of all sandstone produced in India is exported.⁴⁴³

The United States is an exporter of dimension stone, particularly granite. The U.S. Geological Survey (2008) states, "although unreported, a significant amount of granite was probably exported back to the U.S. market." Due to the high cost of transport, imported crushed stone accounted for only one percent of domestic use.⁴⁴⁴

How do trafficking and/or child labor in stone production affect me?



Stone is used in a variety of home goods, such as tile and counters, as well as in construction goods, such as gravel and flagging. By some estimates, Americans spend between USD 1.2 billion and USD 1.6 billion on granite countertops alone.⁴⁴⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In Guatemala, an ILO-IPEC funded program is working to withdraw children from rock crushing work by offering improved technology for rock crushing, providing improved educational opportunities and creating awareness among local populations on why child work in quarries is hazardous.⁴⁴⁶

⁴⁴² U.S. Geological Survey (USGS). *Minerals Yearbook 2008: Dimension Stone*.
http://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals/pubs/commodity/stone_dimension/mcs-2010-stond.pdf

⁴⁴³ Griffiths, Sophie. "We Can't Turn a Blind Eye to This." *Building Magazine*. April 9, 2010. <http://www.building.co.uk/we-can%E2%80%99t-turn-a-blind-eye-child-labour/3161396.article>

⁴⁴⁴ U.S. Geological Survey (USGS). *Minerals Yearbook 2008: Dimension Stone*.
http://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals/pubs/commodity/stone_dimension/mcs-2010-stond.pdf

⁴⁴⁵ Fitch, Stephanie. "Granite Countertop Craze Has Cost US More Than First Gulf War." *Forbes*. November 23, 2010.
<http://www.forbes.com/sites/stephanefitch/2010/11/23/granite-countertop-craze-has-cost-u-s-more-than-gulf-war/>

⁴⁴⁶ International Labor Organization. *NGOS: How IPEC Works with Non-Governmental Organizations*.

How can I learn more?

[Read](#) about child labor in stone quarries.

[Watch](#) a video about children working in quarries in Sierra Leone.

Gravel and Crushed Stone



Gravel and crushed stone are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export gravel and crushed stone worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports gravel and crushed stone (UN Comtrade 2012):
Guatemala (CL) Nicaragua (CL) Nigeria (FL, CL)	1. Ukraine 2. Norway 3. Germany 4. Belgium 5. Malaysia 6. United Kingdom 7. Mexico 8. France 9. Indonesia 10. Netherlands	1. Mexico 2. Canada 3. Bahamas 4. Honduras 5. Norway 6. Jamaica 7. Germany 8. Italy 9. New Zealand 10. Venezuela

Where is gravel and crushed stone reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor and Child Labor*, gravel and crushed stone are produced with forced labor in Nigeria and child labor in Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Nigeria.⁴⁴⁷

The U.S. Department of State lists Nicaragua, Nigeria and Guatemala in its *Trafficking in Persons Report* as Tier 2 countries.⁴⁴⁸

What does trafficking and/or child labor look like in gravel and crushed stone production?

In Nigeria, the forced labor of children is employed in the production of gravel and granite. Children often join the workforce instead of attending school.⁴⁴⁹

⁴⁴⁷ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁴⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴⁴⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. *Nigeria*. 2011. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2011TDA/Nigeria.pdf>

In Nicaragua, trafficked migrant workers come from Panama, Costa Rica and other countries in Central America to find work, sometimes in the mining or quarrying sectors.⁴⁵⁰ The chain of production usually involves men heating up large boulders, usually over fire pits that are sometimes heated by toxic materials like tires, and breaking them into chunks. The small rock pieces are then sold or traded down to other workers, often children and women, who break the rocks into smaller pieces or grind them into powder. The gravel is then bagged and sold, often to the industrial sector.⁴⁵¹

In Sierra Leone, entire families work crushing stones that are used for cement production. Men dig large boulders out of the dirt and then heat with fire to make them easier to split with sledgehammers. Women and children use smaller hammers to crush large rocks into pebbles.⁴⁵²

All children involved in the sector face serious hazards. The production of gravel and crushed stone can lead to injury and even death from falling rocks, carrying heavy loads in dangerous mining conditions, and from exposure to contaminants and particle byproducts, which can cause respiratory diseases such as silicosis or tuberculosis.⁴⁵³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in gravel and crushed stone production affect me?



Gravel and crushed stone are used in concrete, cement, asphalt, and other road surfacing materials (U.S. Geographical Survey 2008).

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In Guatemala, there were significant efforts made by the International Labor Organization's International Program to Eliminate Child Labor (ILO-IPEC) to eliminate child labor from the mining of gravel and crushed stone in the Retalhuleu province of Guatemala. The sponsored program took place from 2001 to 2006 and is called the Piedrín Project. Specifically, these efforts included improving the overall education system of the region and increasing at-risk families' income through training of alternative labor skills. This ensures that children can stay in school and delay entry to the workforce. These programs also

⁴⁵⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking of Persons in 2013 Report: Country Narratives*. 2013.

<http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/countries/2013/index.htm>

⁴⁵¹ Wines, Michael. "Africa Adds to Miserable Ranks of Child Workers." *The New York Times*. August 24, 2006.

http://www.nytimes.com/2006/08/24/world/africa/24zambia.html?pagewanted=all&_r=0

⁴⁵² Campell, Greg. "The Rock-Mining Children of Sierra Leone Have Not Found Peace." *The Atlantic*. May 31, 2012.

<http://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2012/05/the-rock-mining-children-of-sierra-leone-have-not-found-peace/257899/>

⁴⁵³ UNICEF. *Children Working in Mines and Quarries: Evidence from Central and West Africa*. April 2012.

http://www.unicef.org/wcaro/english/Briefing_paper_No_4_-_children_working_in_mines_and_quarries.pdf

provided children with social services, health, education, and rehabilitation services, and created a community child labor monitoring system.⁴⁵⁴

⁴⁵⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. *Progressive Eradication of Child Labor in Gravel Production in Retalhuleu, Guatemala*. 2006.
http://www.dol.gov/ilab/projects/americas/Guatemala_Quarries_CLOSED.pdf

Jewels



Jewels/gemstones are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export jewels/gemstones worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports jewels/gemstones (UN Comtrade 2012):
<p><i>Jade & Rubies:</i> Burma (FL, CL)</p> <p><i>Gems:</i> Zambia (CL) Tanzania (CL) Colombia – Emeralds (CL)</p> <p><i>Gem Cutting:</i> India (CL)</p>	<p><i>Rubies, Sapphires, Emeralds (worked but not set):</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. United States 2. Switzerland 3. Thailand 4. Hong Kong 5. United Kingdom 6. India 7. Colombia 8. France 9. Germany 10. Italy 	<p><i>Rubies, Sapphires, Emeralds (worked but not set):</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Colombia 2. Thailand 3. Hong Kong 4. Sri Lanka 5. India 6. Switzerland 7. Israel 8. Zambia 9. Tanzania 10. Brazil

Where are jewels reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, jade and precious stones are mined with forced labor in Burma.⁴⁵⁵

The U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* notes that jade and rubies are mined with forced and child labor in Burma.⁴⁵⁶

⁴⁵⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴⁵⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TPPRA_Report2014.pdf

A 2008 report from the International Labour Organization noted hazardous child labor in gem mining in Zambia.⁴⁵⁷ Media stories, including a 2014 story from the BBC, have reported child labor in tanzanite mining in Tanzania.⁴⁵⁸ In India, children are involved in caste-based bonded labor in the gem cutting industry.⁴⁵⁹ Labor exploitation, including child labor, has also been reported in the emerald mining sector of Colombia, where a majority of the mines are dominated by various organized crime factions.⁴⁶⁰

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Zambia, Colombia, Kenya and India as Tier 2 countries. Burma, and Tanzania are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.⁴⁶¹

For information on forced labor in the diamond sector, see the [Diamond](#) commodity report.

What does trafficking and/or child labor in jewel production look like?

The jewels industry is a thriving business. Child labor and forced labor are found in both the mining and processing of gemstones. The vast majority of gemstones, such as rubies and sapphires, are mined in small scale digging sites, rather than large industrial mines.

In the artisanal mining sector, miners are not officially employed, but instead earn a living from whatever they mine themselves. These workers, including children, frequently work in extremely hazardous conditions without supervision or safety gear. Artisanal miners sell their finds to intermediaries, who may set prices below market value; as a result, miners can easily become trapped in debt cycles, accepting prices below market value.⁴⁶² Children engaged in mining are vulnerable to suffering many health issues, including lung and respiratory system damage; headaches, hearing and vision problems from noise; joint and muscular disorders; exposure to toxic chemicals used to clean the gems; and injuries from falls in mine shafts, sharp tools, falling stones and mine collapse. In addition, families involved in artisanal mining can migrate large distances from their homes. Removed from their normal support networks, these families may be vulnerable targets for human traffickers.⁴⁶³

⁴⁵⁷ International Labour Organization. *Rapid assessment of child labour in non-traditional mining sector in Zambia*. 2008. <http://www.ilo.org/ippecinfo/product/download.do?sessionId=afe1caecc9778bb3e98ff0aad6c9f6890f7f5ffaeb3da0bbdcf4b4e4f002e17e.e3aTbhuLbNmSe3qMb40?type=document&id=13633>

⁴⁵⁸ Famau, Aboubakar. BBC News. "The Tanzanian Gemstone Mined by Child Labour." June 19, 2014. <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-27933666>

⁴⁵⁹ International Dalit Solidarity Center. *Dalits and Bonded Labour in India*. <http://idsn.org/caste-discrimination/key-issues/bonded-labour/india/>

⁴⁶⁰ Parkinson, Charles. "Inside Colombia's Emerald Battle." *The Atlantic Magazine*. August 7, 2013. <http://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2013/08/inside-colombias-emerald-battle/278429/>

⁴⁶¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴⁶² Irin News. "Malawi's Small Scale Miners Think Big." July 1, 2013. <http://www.irinnews.org/fr/report/98332/malawi-s-small-scale-miners-think-big>

World Vision. *Behind the Bling: Forced and Child Labour in the Jewellery Industry*. 2013. http://campaign.worldvision.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/7185_DTL_Factsheet_Jewellery_LR.pdf

⁴⁶³ World Vision. *Behind the Bling: Forced and Child Labour in the Jewellery Industry*. 2013. http://campaign.worldvision.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/7185_DTL_Factsheet_Jewellery_LR.pdf

Children involved in processing, cutting, and polishing gemstones are exposed to dangerous tools and machinery, eye strain and injury, repetitive motions, toxic chemicals and dust.⁴⁶⁴

Jewel Production and Supply Chain:

Precious stones are extracted most commonly from mines in Southeast Asia and Africa. Brokers and intermediaries buy stones from miners and sell them to exporters who sell the stones again. The exporting process can obscure the source country of the stones. Gemstones are then cut and polished. After polishing, gems are sold on the international market and are ultimately sold by retailers, often incorporated into jewelry.⁴⁶⁵

How do trafficking and/or child labor in jewel production affect me?



Gems such as rubies and sapphires are used in fine jewelry, including engagement rings, and the demand has grown in recent years. Jade is a very durable gemstone that is used in jewelry, sculptures and other ornamental objects. These luxury items are mostly exported to developed countries, including the United States.

Examples of what companies, governments and others are doing:

Certification organizations, such as Fairmined, audit gem supply chains against ethical standards in order to guide consumers to ethical purchases. Fairmined is an assurance label that certifies gold from empowered responsible artisanal and small-scale mining organizations and is backed by a rigorous 3rd party certification and audit system.

Where can I learn more?

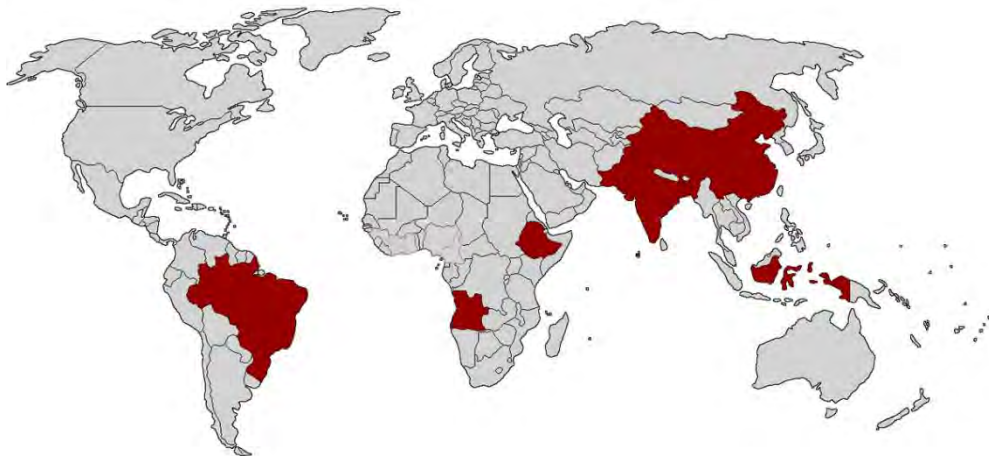
[Explore](#) an in-depth summary of US economic sanctions against Burma.

[Read](#) about the World Vision Campaign for ethical jewelry.

⁴⁶⁴ World Vision. *Behind the Bling: Forced and Child Labour in the Jewellery Industry*. 2013.
http://campaign.worldvision.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/7185_DTL_Factsheet_Jewellery_LR.pdf

⁴⁶⁵ World Vision. *Behind the Bling: Forced and Child Labour in the Jewellery Industry*. 2013.
http://campaign.worldvision.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/7185_DTL_Factsheet_Jewellery_LR.pdf

Leather



Leather and leather goods are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Bangladesh (CL)

Pakistan (CL)

Ethiopia (CL)

Angola (CL)

Leather Goods:

India (CL)

Footwear:

Bangladesh (CL)

Brazil (CL)

China (FL)

India (CL)

Indonesia – sandals (CL)

Top ten countries that export leather and leather goods worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Leather:

1. Italy

2. United States

3. Hong Kong

4. Brazil

5. Germany

6. Nigeria

7. India

8. Australia

9. South Korea

10. Spain

Leather Goods:

1. China

2. Italy

3. Hong Kong

4. France

5. Germany

6. India

7. United States

8. Vietnam

9. Belgium

10. Netherlands

Top ten countries from which the US imports leather and leather goods (UN Comtrade 2012):

Leather:

1. Italy

2. Brazil

3. Mexico

4. Argentina

5. Canada

6. China

7. Uruguay

8. United Kingdom

9. Germany

10. Thailand

Leather Goods:

1. China

2. Italy

3. France

4. Vietnam

5. India

6. Indonesia

7. Mexico

8. The Philippines

9. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified)

10. Thailand

Where is leather reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, child labor has been found in the production of leather in Bangladesh and Pakistan, as well as various leather goods and accessories in India.⁴⁶⁶ Other sources report that child labor has been found in leather production in Ethiopia and Angola.⁴⁶⁷ Child labor has been found in the production of footwear in Bangladesh, Brazil, India, and Indonesia (sandals); forced labor has been found in the production of footwear in China.⁴⁶⁸

Bangladesh, India, Angola, Ethiopia, Brazil and Indonesia are listed by the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* as Tier 2 countries. Pakistan and China are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.⁴⁶⁹

What do trafficking and/or child labor in leather production look like?

Most child labor in leather production occurs in the informal sector, where it is difficult for governments to enforce regulations.⁴⁷⁰ The tanning phase specifically is known for employing child labor. In many cases, children are exposed to toxic tanning chemicals and fumes. These chemicals can cause various skin and respiratory complications, such as rashes and asthma.⁴⁷¹

Children are also employed in the making of leather footwear, which is often a labor intensive practice. Children are exposed to dangerous equipment, such as knives or scrapers, in order to make the shoes. They are rarely provided with protective gear when handling dangerous equipment.⁴⁷² Children exposed to dust and chemicals have higher rates of cancer, and the glues used can be highly toxic.

Leather Production and Supply Chain:

Most hides used in leather come from livestock, including cows, goats, sheep, and buffalo. After animals are slaughtered for meat in slaughterhouses, the hides are sold to middlemen, who sell them in turn to warehouses. At the warehouse level, hides are cleaned and trimmed. Tanners then buy hides from warehouses. Depending on the geographic context and size of the supply chain, the hides may sometimes move directly from slaughter to tanning.⁴⁷³

⁴⁶⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014. *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁶⁷ UN Industrial Development Organization. *Technical assistance project for the upgrading of the Ethiopian leather and leather products industry*. 2012. https://www.unido.org/fileadmin/user_media_upgrade/Resources/Evaluation/Ethiopia_leather_evaluation_FINAL_report_130208.pdf

U.S. Department of Labor. *Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Angola*. 2013. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/2013TDA/angola.pdf>

⁴⁶⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014. *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁶⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴⁷⁰ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Globalization of the Footwear, Textiles, and Clothing Industries at 76; Diagnóstico do Trabalho Infantil at 79; IPEC in India (1992- 1995): Looking Back*, (New Delhi 1996)

⁴⁷¹ Human Rights Watch (HRW). "Bangladesh: Tanneries Harm Workers, Poison Communities." October 9, 2012. <http://www.hrw.org/news/2012/10/08/bangladesh-tanneries-harm-workers-poison-communities>

⁴⁷² U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of International Labor Affairs. "Leather Footwear" <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/media/reports/iclp/sweat4/leather.htm#top36>

⁴⁷³ SOMO. *Where the Shoe Pinches: Child Labor in the Production of Leather Brand Name Shoes*. June 2012. <http://www.stopchildlabour.org/content/download/80933/700035/file/Where%20the%20shoe%20pinches%20FINAL.pdf>

Tanning is a complex and toxic process. First the hide is prepared, which includes removing all remaining hair or other material from the hide and pickling the hide with salts. Then the hide is tanned. The conventional methods of tanning leather require dangerous chemicals including formaldehyde and chromium (III), which when oxidized, turns into chromium (IV), a toxic carcinogen. Finally the hide is rehydrated, dried, died, and shined.⁴⁷⁴

After the tanning process, leather can be exported or made into consumer goods locally.

Between 2009 and 2010, the countries that imported the most footwear, leather and non-leather, were Germany, Italy, the US, France, Spain, the Netherlands, Portugal, the United Arab Emirates, and Denmark. Together these countries make up 82 percent of India's footwear exports.⁴⁷⁵

Case Study:

Child labor in Bangladesh tanneries

Outside of Dhaka, Bangladesh, children as young as seven years old work in leather tanneries. The majority of child laborers in tanneries are male. The children that work in tanneries generally come from very poor families, which rely on the child's income to survive.⁴⁷⁶ Some of these children work nearly 15 hours a day. Wages for children in tanneries in Bangladesh are around USD 37 a month. A report looking at tanneries in Bangladesh that employ child labor found that protective garments and equipment are rarely provided or used. This exposes children to the harmful chemicals used in the leather tanning process.⁴⁷⁷

The exposure to harmful chemicals does not end when the workers leave the factory. In the neighborhood of Hazaribagh, "some 150 leather tanneries discharge 21 thousand cubic meters of untreated effluent into the nearby Buriganga River each day."⁴⁷⁸ With the Buriganga River being the primary water source for Hazaribagh's inhabitants, residents of the neighborhood are continuously exposed to these harmful chemicals.

How do trafficking and/or child labor in leather production affect me?

⁴⁷⁴ SOMO. *Where the Shoe Pinches: Child Labor in the Production of Leather Brand Name Shoes*. June 2012. <http://www.stopchildlabour.org/content/download/80933/700035/file/Where%20the%20shoe%20pinches%20FINAL.pdf>

⁴⁷⁵ SOMO. *Where the Shoe Pinches: Child Labor in the Production of Leather Brand Name Shoes*. June 2012. <http://www.stopchildlabour.org/content/download/80933/700035/file/Where%20the%20shoe%20pinches%20FINAL.pdf>

⁴⁷⁶ SOMO. *Where the Shoe Pinches: Child Labor in the Production of Leather Brand Name Shoes*. June 2012. <http://www.stopchildlabour.org/content/download/80933/700035/file/Where%20the%20shoe%20pinches%20FINAL.pdf>

⁴⁷⁷ Human Rights Watch (HRW). "Bangladesh: Tanneries Harm Workers, Poison Communities." October 9, 2012. <http://www.hrw.org/news/2012/10/08/bangladesh-tanneries-harm-workers-poison-communities>

⁴⁷⁸ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *World Report 2013: Bangladesh*. 2013. <http://www.hrw.org/world-report/2013/country-chapters/bangladesh?page=1>



Leather goods are common in shoes, apparel, and industrial products such as automobiles. The United States imports the majority of leather goods it consumes.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In a report conducted by Stop Child Labor, the majority of leather footwear companies studied had codes of conduct in place to deter child labor. However, these same companies had a hard time verifying and preventing the use of child labor beyond their first manufacturer, due to the lack of transparency of subcontractors in the industry.⁴⁷⁹ In subcontracted workshops, conditions are not monitored regularly and child labor is more common.⁴⁸⁰

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) an in-depth report on leather tanneries in Bangladesh.

[View](#) pictures of child labor conditions in Indian tanneries.

⁴⁷⁹ Stop Child Labor. *Child Labor in the Leather Footwear Industry*. November 28, 2012.

<http://www.hivos.nl/content/download/87290/780639/file/Article%20child%20labour%20in%20footwear%20industry.pdf>

⁴⁸⁰ SOMO. *Where the Shoe Pinches: Child Labor in the Production of Leather Brand Name Shoes*. June

2012. <http://www.stopchildlabour.org/content/download/80933/700035/file/Where%20the%20shoe%20pinches%20FINAL.pdf>

International Labor Organization. International Program on the Elimination of Child Labor (ILO-IPEC). *Combating the Exploitation of Child Labor in the Footwear Industry of the Vale dos Sinos, Brazil*. April 2002.

<http://www.ilo.org/ipecinfor/product/download.do?type=document&id=6305>

Melons



Melons are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce melons worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export melons worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports melons (UN Comtrade 2012):
Honduras (CL)	1. China	1. Spain	1. Mexico
Mexico (CL)	2. Turkey	2. Mexico	2. Guatemala
Panama (CL)	3. Iran	3. Guatemala	3. Honduras
United States (CL) ⁴⁸¹	4. Egypt	4. United States	4. Costa Rica
	5. India	5. Brazil	5. Belize
	6. United States	6. Honduras	6. Brazil
	7. Spain	7. Netherlands	7. Nicaragua
	8. Morocco	8. Italy	8. Dominican Republic
	9. Brazil	9. Costa Rica	9. Canada
	10. Mexico	10. Greece	10. Jamaica

Where are melons reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor and Child Labor*, melons are produced using child labor in Honduras, Mexico, and Panama.⁴⁸² Additionally, Human Rights Watch (HRW) has reported interviewed children involved in melon production in the United States, although the scope of the problem is not established.⁴⁸³

The 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Honduras, Panama and Mexico as Tier 2 countries. The United States is listed as a Tier 1 country.⁴⁸⁴

⁴⁸² U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁸³ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Tobacco's Hidden Children*. May 13, 2014. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2014/05/13/tobaccos-hidden-children/hazardous-child-labor-united-states-tobacco-farming>

⁴⁸⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in melon production look like?

In Honduras, there are 150,000 children under the age of 14 working, over 60 percent of who are employed in the agricultural industry. Indigenous children are particularly vulnerable to working in the fields, alongside their parents or independently. The melon industry is seasonal, which means that children of migrant laborers travel around the country seeking work throughout the year allowing them only limited access to schools.⁴⁸⁵ According to HRW, children working in the agricultural industry in the United States drop out of school at four times the national rate. Children work up to ten hour days using dangerous tools, they are exposed to the elements, and they have a death rate four times higher than the average American child.⁴⁸⁶

Case Study:

Honduran Women in the Fields

In Honduras, a country with a population of just over eight million, more than 25,000 people labor on melon plantations. These workers are primarily female, low-income, and lacking formal education. Although recent consumer campaigns have improved the quality of fruit allowed on the market, very little work has been done to monitor and improve the quality of the working conditions of those who produce melons. Honduran women often work 14 hour days, seven days a week, and have base salaries set at a fraction of the legal minimum wage with no overtime pay. Additionally, these women often work Sundays and holidays without any pay at all. The workers are given no access to social security or other forms of insurance and they are frequently exposed to harsh weather conditions and dangerous chemical fertilizers and pesticides.⁴⁸⁷

According to interviews conducted by the Coordinating Body of Banana and Agroindustrial Workers' Unions of Honduras (COSIBAH), during the 14 hour work days, only about half of the workers interviewed reported being given time off for lunch. Less than a third of farm workers interviewed confirmed access to potable water, working restrooms, or cafeteria facilities. Despite working with dangerous tools to remove melons from the vines and being exposed to fertilizers and pesticides, fewer than half of the workers interviewed were supplied with proper training or protective equipment.⁴⁸⁸

A pattern of providing only temporary contracts, due to the seasonal nature of melon cultivation, allows plantation owners to avoid the organization of workers and reduce the likelihood of workers reporting unsafe or unethical working conditions.⁴⁸⁹

⁴⁸⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. *2011 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. 2011. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2011TDA.pdf>

⁴⁸⁶ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Take Action: End Child Labor in US Agriculture*. <http://www.hrw.org/support-care>

⁴⁸⁷ International Labor Rights Forum (ILRF) and COSIBAH. "Women in the Honduran Melon Industry." Building a Just World For Workers. 2012. <http://laborrights.org/sites/default/files/publications-and-resources/HonduranMelonPlantations2012.pdf>

⁴⁸⁸ International Labor Rights Forum (ILRF) and COSIBAH. "Women in the Honduran Melon Industry." Building a Just World For Workers. 2012. <http://laborrights.org/sites/default/files/publications-and-resources/HonduranMelonPlantations2012.pdf>

⁴⁸⁹ International Labor Rights Forum (ILRF) and COSIBAH. "Women in the Honduran Melon Industry." Building a Just World For Workers. 2012. <http://laborrights.org/sites/default/files/publications-and-resources/HonduranMelonPlantations2012.pdf>

Melon Production and Supply Chain:

Melons require warm weather to grow, and therefore must be planted after the last frost of the year. The planting of melons is labor intensive. The plants require loose soil and thus tilling is often recommended, which is a lengthy process and the use of a rototiller can be very dangerous. Fertilizer is often suggested for the successful growth of melons, which can be detrimental to the health of the farmworker. Melons can only be pollinated for one day during their growth and thus the selective use of insecticides is required in order to avoid hurting bee populations or other local pollinators. The cultivation and management of bees can be labor intensive and dangerous as well.⁴⁹⁰

Melons are generally sold as a fresh fruit and so the fruits must be packaged and sent away to processing and distribution facilities.

How do trafficking and/or child labor in melon production affect me?



Mexico, a country known to employ child labor in melon production, is a top ten world producer of melons.⁴⁹¹ It is also the number two exporter of melons worldwide and the number one country that the United States imports melons from.⁴⁹²

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Coordination of Banana Unions in Honduras (COSIBAH), an agricultural trade union, advocates for fair treatment of agricultural workers in Honduras, including in the melon sector.

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) this HRW exposé on child labor in US agriculture, including but not limited to melon production.

⁴⁹⁰ Iowa State University. "Melons." *Publications*. May 2009. <http://www.extension.iastate.edu/publications/pm1892.pdf>

⁴⁹¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

⁴⁹² UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

Nuts



Nuts are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top countries that produce nuts worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top countries that export nuts worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top countries from which the US imports nuts (UN Comtrade 2012):
<i>Brazil-nuts & Chestnuts:</i> Bolivia (FL, CL) Peru (FL)	<i>Brazil-nuts:</i> 1. Bolivia 2. Brazil 3. Côte d'Ivoire 4. Gambia 5. Peru	<i>Brazil-nuts (shelled):</i> 1. Bolivia 2. Peru 3. United Kingdom 4. Netherlands 5. Germany	<i>Brazil-nuts (shelled):</i> 1. Bolivia 2. Peru 3. Brazil 4. Chile 5. Australia
<i>Peanuts:</i> Bolivia (FL) Turkey (CL)	<i>Peanuts:</i> 1. China 2. India 3. Nigeria 4. United States 5. Burma	<i>Brazil-nuts (in shell):</i> 1. Brazil 2. Hong Kong 3. Ghana 4. Nigeria 5. Spain	<i>Brazil-nuts (in shell):</i> 1. Brazil 2. Bolivia 3. Mexico
<i>Hazelnuts:</i> Turkey (CL)	<i>Hazelnuts:</i> 1. Turkey 2. Italy 3. United States 4. Azerbaijan 5. Georgia	<i>Peanuts:</i> 1. India 2. Argentina 3. United States 4. China 5. Netherlands	<i>Peanuts:</i> 1. Argentina 2. Nicaragua 3. Mexico 4. Brazil 5. Paraguay
<i>Physic Nuts/Castor Beans:</i> Burma (FL)	<i>Coconuts:</i> 1. Indonesia 2. Philippines		<i>Hazelnuts (shelled):</i> 1. Turkey
<i>Cashews:</i> Vietnam (FL, CL)			

3. India	<i>Hazelnuts</i>	2. China
4. Brazil	<i>(shelled):</i>	3. Thailand
5. Sri Lanka	1. Turkey	4. Canada
	2. Italy	5. Italy
<i>Cashews:</i>	3. Georgia	
1. Vietnam	4. Azerbaijan	<i>Hazelnuts (in</i>
2. Nigeria	5. Germany	<i>shell):</i>
3. India		1. Chile
4. Côte d'Ivoire	<i>Hazelnuts (in</i>	2. Canada
5. Benin	<i>shell):</i>	3. Turkey
	1. United States	4. Italy
	2. Hong Kong	
	3. Chile	<i>Coconuts:</i>
	4. France	1. Philippines
	5. Georgia	2. Sri Lanka
		3. Dominican
	<i>Coconuts:</i>	Republic
	1. Philippines	4. Indonesia
	2. Indonesia	5. Vietnam
	3. Sri Lanka	
	4. Côte d'Ivoire	<i>Cashews (shelled):</i>
	5. Dominican	1. Vietnam
	Republic	2. India
		3. Brazil
	<i>Cashews (shelled):</i>	4. Mozambique
	1. Vietnam	5. Côte d'Ivoire
	2. India	
	3. Netherlands	<i>Cashews (in shell):</i>
	4. Brazil	1. Brazil
	5. Ghana	2. Vietnam
		3. India
	<i>Cashews (in shell):</i>	4. Turkey
	1. Côte d'Ivoire	
	2. Tanzania	
	3. Ghana	
	4. Nigeria	
	5. Indonesia	

Where are nuts reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, forced labor is present in the production of Brazil-nuts and chestnuts in Peru, and forced and child

labor takes place in the production of these nuts in Bolivia.⁴⁹³ Peanuts are reportedly produced with forced labor in Bolivia.⁴⁹⁴ Additionally, child labor has been reported in the production of hazelnuts and peanuts in Turkey. Labor trafficking has been noted in the production of physic nuts or castor beans in Burma.⁴⁹⁵ Recent evidence shows that incidences of forced and child labor in cashew harvesting are connected with drug treatment programs in Vietnam where patients are required to participate in the harvest under the guise of treatment, although the scope of these programs is unknown.⁴⁹⁶

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Peru, Turkey and Vietnam as Tier 2 countries. Bolivia and Burma are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.⁴⁹⁷

What do trafficking and/or child labor in nut production look like?

A 2005 study found human trafficking to be prevalent in Brazil-nut harvesting in the Bolivian departments of Beni and Pando, both located in the Amazon Basin. The study indicates that some 31,000 people traveled annually to these regions to participate in Brazil-nut harvesting. After taking on an average debt of BOB 1,000 (approximately USD 140) against their labor, the workers reportedly found that their wages were not sufficient to pay back the debt. The workers were also forced to purchase goods at exorbitant costs.⁴⁹⁸

Brazil-nut workers in Bolivia may not be permitted to leave the remote harvest sites. At the end of the harvest they remained in debt and were obligated to return the next year or to remain indefinitely. An estimated 5,000-6,000 of the 31,000 men, women and children were subjected to human trafficking. There have also been instances reported in which local indigenous peoples have been kidnapped and subjected to forced work in Brazil-nut harvesting for brief periods of time.⁴⁹⁹ Verité research on indicators of forced labor in Brazil-nut production in Bolivia, carried out between 2010 and 2012, detected risk factors that increased vulnerability to trafficking amongst Brazil-nut harvesters and factory workers in the Amazon region. The research found a large number of indicators of labor trafficking, as well as excessive working hours, a lack of days off during peak periods, low wages, a lack of benefits, serious hazards to

⁴⁹³ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁹⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁹⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁴⁹⁶ Szalavita, Maia. "Human Rights Watch: Hundreds of Thousands still Tortured in Name of Drug Treatment." *TIME Magazine*. August 3, 2012. <http://healthland.time.com/2012/08/03/human-rights-watch-hundreds-of-thousands-still-tortured-in-name-of-drug-treatment/>

⁴⁹⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁴⁹⁸ Bedoya Garland, Eduardo and Alvaro Bedoya Silva-Santisteban. *Enganche y Servidumbre por Deudas en Bolivia [Recruitment and Debt Bondage in Bolivia]*. International Labor Office. January 2005. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_082055.pdf

⁴⁹⁹ Bedoya Garland, Eduardo and Alvaro Bedoya Silva-Santisteban. *Enganche y Servidumbre por Deudas en Bolivia [Recruitment and Debt Bondage in Bolivia]*. International Labor Office. January 2005. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---declaration/documents/publication/wcms_082055.pdf

workers' health and safety, discrimination, poor living conditions, dangerous transportation, and child labor.⁵⁰⁰

In Peru, trafficking is most likely to be a result of debt bondage as workers take advances from intermediaries against their future harvest to gain access to capital.⁵⁰¹ The highest risk of labor abuses was detected in the Amazonian region of Madre de Dios, where Verité found extreme cases of trafficking in illegal gold mining.⁵⁰²

Case Study:

Child Labor in Turkish Nut Gathering

A study in Turkey estimated that hazelnut harvesting accounted for approximately six percent of child labor and that peanut harvesting accounted for approximately three percent.⁵⁰³ The study found that children were most likely to work alongside their families in nut gathering on a seasonal basis, alternating nut gathering with cotton harvesting and other agricultural activities. A 2011 Fair Labor Association (FLA) assessment of the hazelnut supply chain found a variety of labor rights issues including lack of employment records, discrimination in compensation, harassment and underage workers. With regards to child labor, they found that workers' ages were not adequately verified. Underage workers were exposed to the same conditions as adult workers including long hours, carrying heavy loads, and repetitive motions.⁵⁰⁴

"Blood Cashews" in Vietnam

Cashews are reportedly harvested with the labor of people detained for drug-related offenses in Vietnam.⁵⁰⁵ Over 350,000 people were reported to be held in these facilities against their will and were reportedly "detained without due process, some tortured with electric shock, starved and deprived of food and water." Children as young as seven have been found in these centers, where they were reportedly exposed to physical and sexual abuse. For their labor, detainees were paid nothing or a few dollars a month. Even this small amount is further decreased through deductions for food, lodging and other assorted "managerial fees."⁵⁰⁶

⁵⁰⁰ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

⁵⁰¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

⁵⁰² Verité. *Risk Analysis of Indicators of Forced labor and Human Trafficking in Illegal Gold Mining in Peru*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/IndicatorsofForcedLaborinGoldMininginPeru.pdf>

⁵⁰³ Gulcubuk, Bülent, Ertan Karabiyik and Ferdi Tanir. *Baseline Survey on Worst Forms of Child Labor in the Agricultural Sector: Children in Cotton Harvesting in Karatas, Adana*. September 2003.

<http://www.ilo.org/ipecinfor/product/viewProduct.do?productId=5224>

⁵⁰⁴ Fair Labor Association. *Assessment of Hazelnut Supply Chain and Hazelnut Harvest in Turkey*. March, 2012.

http://www.fairlabor.org/sites/default/files/documents/reports/nestle_hazelnut_report.pdf

⁵⁰⁵ Human Rights Watch. *Vietnam: Torture, Forced Labor in Drug Detention*. September 7, 2011.

<http://www.hrw.org/news/2011/09/07/vietnam-torture-forced-labor-drug-detention>

⁵⁰⁶ Szalavita, Maia. "Human Rights Watch: Hundreds of Thousands still Tortured in Name of Drug Treatment." *TIME Magazine*. August 3, 2012. <http://healthland.time.com/2012/08/03/human-rights-watch-hundreds-of-thousands-still-tortured-in-name-of-drug-treatment/>

Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts and Peanuts in Bolivia

Verité conducted research on the Brazil-nut industry in the Amazon region and the peanut industry in the Chaco region of Bolivia and found indicators of trafficking. Brazil-nut harvest sites are located in isolated areas where the closest rural communities are up to 82 hours away by a combination of motorcycle, boat and foot travel. This leaves workers physically confined to the workplace as many employers deny their laborers freedom of movement or the workers do not have the money to leave. While transportation is paid for by the employer at the beginning and end of employment, workers who want to leave early must pay for their own transportation. Workers are also kept at the harvest sites through intimidation and threats. Researchers found that workers who attempted to leave early were threatened with physical and sexual violence and that some managers carried weapons or employed armed guards. Additionally, workers risked confiscation of their property, expulsion from the community and the loss of future employment if they left before the harvest period was over or before their debts were repaid.⁵⁰⁷

Debts were incurred in the form of the *habilito*, the food, supplies and tools that harvesters were advanced for the three to four month harvest season. *Habilito* debts were paid back in Brazil-nuts which leaves workers vulnerable to exploitation by the employer or money lender. Many harvesters were unable to pay back their loans, drawing them into a spiral that forces them deeper into debt with each harvesting season. This cycle of debt also exists in Brazil-nut processing plants where workers, who are mostly women, become indebted to factory owners through a company-owned store and cash advances that are difficult to repay. Researchers also found that some workers had their identity cards confiscated until they repaid their debts.⁵⁰⁸

Almost all harvesters and factory workers are recruited by labor brokers. Contracts are rarely signed and workers are given false promises regarding the amount they will be paid. Work at the harvesting sites and in the factories consists of long hours for little pay. Because the employment is seasonal, workers are provided with short-term, intensive employment in which they work up to 16 hours per day for three to four months per year. In the harvesting areas, workers are subjected to dangerous conditions, including exposure to malaria and other jungle diseases, the risk of falling brazil-nut pods and injuries during transportation. In the factories, high temperatures make heat exhaustion a common occurrence. Child labor is an issue, as brazil-nut harvesting is done as a family. Young boys generally accompany their fathers into the jungle to harvest the nuts and young girls work with their mothers in the processing factories.⁵⁰⁹

Indicators of human trafficking were also found in the peanut industry. Peanut production takes place on haciendas which, like the Brazil-nut harvesting sites, are isolated in remote areas. Workers lack access to public transportation and on some haciendas trucks arrive rarely or not at all because of inaccessibility.

⁵⁰⁷ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

⁵⁰⁸ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

⁵⁰⁹ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

Many workers are indebted to their employers and fear that they will not be able to leave the hacienda until their debts are repaid. Peanut harvesters work long hours for low pay; in some cases food is included in the pay, making them dependent on their employer. Researchers found that some employers make false promises to workers at the time of hiring. Workers also experience the withholding of wages and physical abuse by their employees. Many workers harvest peanuts on communal land owned by the indigenous society. As a part of this society, every person must work their assigned parcel of land. Workers who fail the community can be penalized with loss of social status, home, job and community ties. Child labor is common in the peanut industry as work is carried out as a family unit.⁵¹⁰

Brazil-nuts Production and Supply Chain:

Brazil-nuts can only grow in specific climates found in the Amazon rainforest, located in Bolivia, Brazil and Peru. The trees on which they grow can be 50 meters tall and can live for 1,000 years. The trees produce pods the size of grapefruits that hold 20 to 40 Brazil-nuts. Each tree can produce up to 1,300 pods. During the rainy season, January to March, the pods fall from the trees onto the forest floor where they can be gathered and harvested.⁵¹¹

According to the FAO, Bolivia is by far the largest source of shelled Brazil-nuts for the U.S. market, followed by Peru. Brazil accounts for a significant portion of imported unshelled nuts, followed by Bolivia.⁵¹²

Peanut Production and Supply Chain:

Today, peanuts are grown in subtropical and tropical regions all around the world. Peanuts are legumes, planted annually, that produce fruit under the ground. As a result, the harvesting process is labor intensive. Peanuts are often planted in early spring and can be harvested once or twice a season, depending on the local climate. The two stages of harvesting are digging and combining. The fruits of the plant must be dug out of the ground and inverted to dry in the sun. Then, the hard shells with the fruits inside must be collected and cleaned for processing. In developed countries such as the United States, this process is entirely mechanized.⁵¹³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in nut production affect me?

⁵¹⁰ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chains of Brazil-Nuts, Cattle, Corn, and Peanuts in Bolivia*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bolivia%20Brazil-nut%2C%20Cattle%2C%20Corn%2C%20and%20Peanut%20Sectors__9.19.pdf

⁵¹¹ The Fairtrade Foundation. *RONAP: Brazil Nut Cooperative, Peru*.

http://www.fairtrade.org.uk/producers/cosmetics/ronap_brazil_nut_cooperative_peru.aspx

⁵¹² Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

⁵¹³ American Peanut Council. *About the Peanut Industry*. <http://www.peanutsusa.com/MainMenu/About-Peanuts/Peanut-History>



Nuts are consumed alone, in chocolate or confectionary products, or as value-added products (flours, oils, butters). Nuts may also be used in cosmetics. The United States consumed approximately 2.7 million tons of tree nuts in 2012.⁵¹⁴

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In 2012, Nestle completed a risk assessment of its hazelnut supply chain with the Fair Labor Association (FLA) and Nestle published a corrective action plan based on the findings. FLA's report highlighted the lack of supply chain transparency inherent in the Turkish hazelnut supply chain and Nestle committed to ongoing efforts to conduct independent audits.⁵¹⁵

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) about the Brazil-nut harvest.

[Read](#) about human trafficking in Bolivia (in Spanish).

[Read](#) Verité's full report on forced labor indicators in Bolivia's Brazil-Nut and Peanut industry.

[Read](#) about socially-responsible peanuts from Bolivia.

⁵¹⁴ Agricultural Marketing Resource Center. *Nuts*. April 2013. http://www.agmrc.org/commodities__products/nuts/

⁵¹⁵ Fair Labor Association. *Assessment of Hazelnut Supply Chain and Hazelnut Harvest in Turkey*. March, 2012. http://www.fairlabor.org/sites/default/files/documents/reports/nestle_hazelnut_report.pdf

Palm Oil



Palm oil is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce palm oil worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export palm oil worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): 516	Top ten countries that import palm oil worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): 517
Burma (FL)	1. Indonesia	1. Indonesia	1. India
Ecuador (FL, CL)	2. Malaysia	2. Malaysia	2. China
Indonesia (FL, CL)	3. Thailand	3. Netherlands	3. Netherlands
Malaysia (FL, CL)	4. Colombia	4. Papua New Guinea	4. Pakistan
Sierra Leone (CL)	5. Nigeria	5. Germany	5. Italy
	6. Papua New Guinea	6. Guatemala	6. Ethiopia
	7. Honduras	7. Colombia	7. Germany
	8. Guatemala	8. Ecuador	8. Spain
	9. Brazil	9. Honduras	9. United States of America
	10. Côte d'Ivoire	10. Côte d'Ivoire	10. Bangladesh

Where is palm oil reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, palm oil is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Burma, Ecuador, Indonesia, and Malaysia.⁵¹⁸

⁵¹⁶ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

⁵¹⁷ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

⁵¹⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor and Child Labor*, palm oil is produced with child labor in Indonesia and Sierra Leone and with forced labor and child labor in Malaysia.⁵¹⁹

According to the U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Ecuador, Indonesia, and Sierra Leone are Tier 2 countries. Malaysia is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country. Burma is a Tier 3 country.

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What does trafficking and/or child labor in palm oil production look like?

Human trafficking and labor rights abuses in the palm oil sector are driven by transnational and domestic migration, as well as displacement of local farmers near plantations. Workers in oil palm plantations are particularly vulnerable to modern slavery because of the isolation of palm groves.⁵²¹

Malaysia is a regional destination for international migrants; often labor brokers or employers are implicated in trafficking through such means as confiscation of passports and contract substitution. Verité research revealed that in palm oil plantations, in particular, workers can face significant vulnerability, patterns of abuse and malpractice, and coercion at various stages of the recruitment, migration and employment process. They work long hours for extremely low wages and do physically demanding jobs that leave them susceptible to workplace injuries and poor general health. Many of them are undocumented and constantly face threats of being denounced to the authorities and of being detained and deported. Workers in subcontracting or outsourcing arrangements are particularly vulnerable, as principals and auditing bodies have no insight into their working conditions.⁵²²

On Malaysian plantations, it is commonplace for employers to take possession of workers' visas, passports, and work permits, thus restricting the workers' ability to leave the plantations. If the workers do manage to escape these exploitative conditions, it is police policy to return found workers to the plantations. Additionally, without their papers, it is impossible for escaped workers to find legal work elsewhere in Malaysia.⁵²³

In 2010, Sawit Watch recorded the following labor abuses in Indonesia, specifically East Kalimantan: physical abuse, intimidation, unpaid wages and unpaid overtime, indebtedness, child labor, lack of employment contracts, unsatisfactory living conditions, and dangerous working conditions, including unprotected work with chemicals.⁵²⁴

<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁵¹⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016

https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPRA_Report2016.pdf

⁵²⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

⁵²¹ Accenture. *Exploitative Labor Practices in the Global Palm Oil Industry*. 2013.

http://humanityunited.org/pdfs/Modern_Slavery_in_the_Palm_Oil_Industry.pdf

⁵²² Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

⁵²³ Accenture. *Exploitative Labor Practices in the Global Palm Oil Industry*. 2013.

http://humanityunited.org/pdfs/Modern_Slavery_in_the_Palm_Oil_Industry.pdf

⁵²⁴ Sawit Watch. *What's Happening in the Indonesian Palm Oil Industry*. September 20, 2011.

<http://sawitwatch.or.id/2011/09/what%E2%80%99s-happen-in-the-indonesian-palm-oil-industry-2/>

Worker interviews conducted by Verité in September and October 2012 also revealed that child labor is common on Malaysian and Indonesian palm plantations. Verité research found that children of undocumented plantation workers are especially vulnerable, as they are considered “stateless” and therefore cannot access state-provided education and healthcare.⁵²⁵ The remote location of palm groves also deters children of plantation workers, documented or undocumented, from attending school. Moreover, the employment and payment schemes adopted in palm plantations, in which only the father or the male head of the family is contracted directly by the employer, and paid per piece or based on productivity, push the other members of the family, including children, to work in order to increase productivity and pay.⁵²⁶ The social status of the family can force children into work as well, as there may be no other options for employment. Families may also be motivated to send their children to work if they are impoverished, indebted, or want their child to learn a trade rather than attend an educational institution.⁵²⁷

Palm oil production is also increasing in Africa and Latin America, and human trafficking has not been extensively studied in this context. Other abuses, such as the confiscation of land, have been noted in these regions.⁵²⁸ In many cases, when land is confiscated for large-scale palm plantations, local farmers who were previously engaged in small scale or subsistence farming have no livelihood options other than to seek work on the plantation. This can create vulnerability for trafficking. Verité found indicators of human trafficking among displaced farmers, as well as internal migrants recruited by labor contractors in Guatemala,⁵²⁹ while Colombian refugees were found to be most vulnerable to trafficking in the Ecuadorian palm oil sector.⁵³⁰

Case Studies:

Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Production in Indonesia

Journalist E. Benjamin Skinner highlighted the working conditions on a number of palm oil plantations in his article in *Bloomberg Businessweek* in July 2013. He profiled a worker he calls “Adam,” who was brought two thousand miles from his home by an Indonesian foreman to drive trucks in Borneo for USD 6 a day. However, during travel, the foreman forced the recruits to sign a contract that bound them to a distant Malaysian employer and paid them only USD 5 a day. The foreman reportedly told the recruits that they would not in fact be paid for two years and instead would have to apply for loans from the company for health care and food to supplement their meager rations. The contract also prevented the

⁵²⁵ Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

⁵²⁶ Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

⁵²⁷ Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

⁵²⁸ Maughan, Mark James. *Land Grab and Oil Palm in Colombia*. May 2011. <http://www.future-agricultures.org/papers-and-presentations/conference-papers-2/1130-land-grab-and-oil-palm-in-colombia/file>

Lewis, Kim. VOA News. “Demand for Palm Oil Fuels Land Conflicts in Africa, Southeast Asia.” November 13, 2014. <http://www.voanews.com/a/palm-oil-africa-indonesia-deforestation-land-grab-expansion-forests-indigenous-conflict-1790043.html>

Grain. *Planet Palm Oil*. September 2014. <https://www.grain.org/article/categories/519-planet-palm-oil>

⁵²⁹ Verité. *Labor and Human Rights Risk Analysis of the Guatemalan Palm Oil Sector*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/RiskAnalysisGuatemalanPalmOilSector.pdf>

⁵³⁰ Verité. *Labor and Human Rights Risk Analysis of Ecuador’s Palm Oil Sector*. May 2016. <https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Risk-Analysis-of-Ecuador-Palm-Oil-Sector-Final.pdf>

workers from leaving the plantation without permission and forced workers to remain for the contracted two years. Once Adam reached the plantation, his identity card, school certificate, and deed to a home his village owned collectively were confiscated. He was then forced to work in the newly planted palm groves, spreading fertilizer and spraying herbicides all day instead of driving trucks as originally promised. No protective gear was provided even though the herbicide was known to cause kidney and liver damage. Workers were locked in hot, windowless rooms, given small portions of food often infested with bugs, and provided with fresh water only once a month. Any workers who tried to escape were brought back and beaten severely.⁵³¹

Labor Rights Abuses in Palm Oil Production in Guatemala

Verité (2013) found a number of human rights and labor risks related to the palm sector in Sayaxché, Petén, Guatemala. Local farmers were displaced by land grabs linked to large plantations. Subsistence farmers who sold their land due to coercion, deceit, pressure, or offers of large up-front payments had few options other than working for the palm companies that had obtained huge swaths of land in Sayaxché. The loss of land for subsistence agriculture and a lack of other employment opportunities in Sayaxché created a local labor force that either had to continue working on palm plantations under poor conditions or move out of the area to search for other work.⁵³²

The other group of vulnerable workers in Sayaxché consisted of migrant workers brought in from rural impoverished areas. These workers were typically hired by labor contractors, some of whom deceived them about their conditions of work and charged them up-front recruitment fees and deductions of up to 20 percent of their pay. Furthermore, migrant workers were generally hired on one- to three-month contracts; during the entire duration of their contracts, they did not leave the plantations on which they were housed. Reports indicated that workers were not paid if they left their employment before their contracts were finished. Many of these migrant workers' identity documents were retained, which prevented them from leaving or filing legal complaints against their employers.⁵³³

Verité researchers found a number of indicators of human trafficking in Guatemala's palm sector. Indicators of lack of consent included induced indebtedness, deception or false promises about types and terms of work, withholding and non-payment of wages, and retention of identity documents or other valuable personal possessions. Indicators of menace of penalty included physical violence against workers or family or close associates, sexual violence, imprisonment or other physical confinement, dismissal from current employment, exclusion from future employment, exclusion from community and social life, deprivation of food, shelter or other necessities, and shifts to even worse working conditions.⁵³⁴

Indicators of Forced Labor among Migrant Workers in Ecuador

⁵³¹ Skinner, E. Benjamin. "Indonesia's Palm Oil Industry Rife with Human-Rights Abuses." *Bloomberg Businessweek*. July 18, 2013. <http://www.businessweek.com/articles/2013-07-18/indonesias-palm-oil-industry-rife-with-human-rights-abuses>

⁵³² Verité. *Labor and Human Rights Risk Analysis of the Guatemalan Palm Oil Sector*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/RiskAnalysisGuatemalanPalmOilSector.pdf>

⁵³³ Verité. *Labor and Human Rights Risk Analysis of the Guatemalan Palm Oil Sector*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/RiskAnalysisGuatemalanPalmOilSector.pdf>

⁵³⁴ Verité. *Labor and Human Rights Risk Analysis of the Guatemalan Palm Oil Sector*. 2013. <http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/RiskAnalysisGuatemalanPalmOilSector.pdf>

Verité research (2015) found that Colombian migrants and refugees in Ecuador had been deceived by palm companies and labor brokers about the working and living conditions on palm plantations, luring them into jobs with far worse pay and conditions than expected. Palm workers were reportedly paid as little as a sixth of the amount originally promised to them and were forced to work overtime, sometimes without pay. Workers also faced limits on their freedom of movement and communication, including curfews, constant surveillance, and supervision by armed guards. Workers depended on their employers not only for their incomes, but also for food and shelter, which restricted workers' ability to leave. Furthermore, some workers fell into debt due to deductions for food and housing that were often of poor quality. Some employers withheld workers' wages and threatened workers with physical violence, reporting of undocumented workers to authorities, and worsening of already poor working conditions in order to prevent them from seeking assistance or protesting unfair treatment.⁵³⁵

Palm Oil Production and Supply Chain:



Palm can be grown on large plantations or in smallholder schemes. In Southeast Asia, most palm comes from large-scale plantations. Large palm oil companies, such as Kuala Lumpur Kepong (KLK), Sime Darby, and Wilmar, usually have their own plantations, mills, and processing plants.⁵³⁶

In South America and Africa, the majority of palm comes from smallholder farms. Independent smallholders can seek out the highest available prices for mill purchase of their product; however, they may lack market access including credit for inputs. “Supported smallholders” are tied to mills through a variety of relationship models. Generally, they receive access to credit and/or technical assistance in return for a promise to sell their product. Specifics of these schemes are highly variable based on regional context.⁵³⁷

After three years of applying herbicides and pesticides, weeding, and cultivating the growth of oil palm trees, workers must harvest the fruit. Fruit is removed from trees by hand using a sharp tool such as a scythe. Loose fruits are also collected from the ground.⁵³⁸ A palm bunch can weigh 55 pounds and contain 3,000 fruits. Harvest periods typically last fewer than 48 hours.⁵³⁹

⁵³⁵ Verité. *Labor and Human Rights Risk Analysis of Ecuador’s Palm Oil Sector*. May 2016. <https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Risk-Analysis-of-Ecuador-Palm-Oil-Sector-Final.pdf>

⁵³⁶ Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

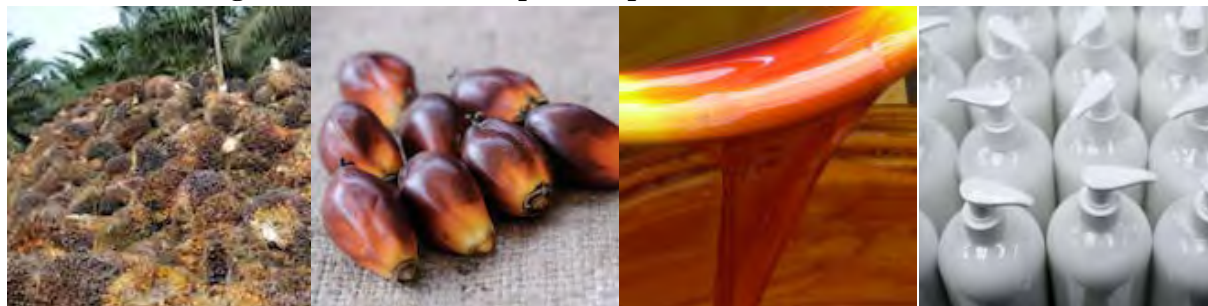
⁵³⁷ Mahmud, Adeeb; Rehrig, Matthew; Hills, Greg. *Improving the Livelihoods of Palm Oil Smallholders: the Role of the Private Sector*. 2010. <http://www.fsg.org/tabid/191/ArticleId/220/Default.aspx?srpush>

⁵³⁸ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN. *Palm Oil*. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/006/t0309e/T0309E05.htm>

⁵³⁹ Skinner, E. Benjamin. “Indonesia’s Palm Oil Industry Rife with Human-Rights Abuses.” *Bloomberg Businessweek*. July 18, 2013. <http://www.businessweek.com/articles/2013-07-18/indonesias-palm-oil-industry-rife-with-human-rights-abuses>

The fruit is transported to mills after harvesting, and then it is passed on processing plants, where palm oil is produced from the flesh and palm kernel oil is produced from the kernel of the fruit. For every ten tons of palm oil, one ton of palm kernel oil is produced.⁵⁴⁰ Oil may be further processed to produce derivatives of varying densities. The derivatives may also be blended with other vegetable oils.⁵⁴¹ Fifty million tons of palm vegetable oil are produced every year.⁵⁴²

How do trafficking and/or child labor in palm oil production affect me?



Palm oil – or its derivatives – is present in up to 50 percent of all products in grocery stores.⁵⁴³ Sometimes labeled in products as “vegetable oil,” it is used in products including fuels, soaps and shampoos, processed foods, cereals, baked goods, margarine, cosmetics, confectionary items, cleaning products, detergents, toothpaste, and candles. Since 1970, the global demand for vegetable oils has increased by over one hundred metric tons. This has been attributed to the use of vegetable oils in consumer products, as well as an increasing demand for biodiesel fuels in developed countries. Since 1990, global consumption of palm oil has increased fivefold.⁵⁴⁴

Growth in India and China contributes to the ever increasing demand for oil, which the World Wildlife Fund reports may double by 2020.⁵⁴⁵

Environmental Consequences of Palm Oil Production:

Palm oil production is linked with substantial environmental consequences, notably through widespread deforestation, which leads to the destruction of habitats for endangered species, such as orangutans, and contributes to climate change.⁵⁴⁶ According to a 2009 report, “the creation of oil plantations in Malaysia is regarded as the main cause of the air pollution that has been affecting many neighboring countries in Southeast Asia.”⁵⁴⁷ As palm production spreads to Latin America and Africa, deforestation is increasing in palm-producing regions. Greenpeace has described the company Herakles Farms in Cameroon as

⁵⁴⁰ Malaysian Palm Oil Council. *Processing Flow Chart*. http://www.mpoc.org.my/Processing_Flow_Chart.aspx

⁵⁴¹ GreenPalm. *What is Palm Oil Used In?* <http://www.greenpalm.org/en/about-palm-oil/what-is-palm-oil-used-in>

⁵⁴² Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

⁵⁴³ The Economist. “The other oil spill.” June 24, 2010. <http://www.economist.com/node/16423833>

⁵⁴⁴ Skinner, E. Benjamin. “Indonesia’s Palm Oil Industry Rife with Human-Rights Abuses.” *Bloomberg Businessweek*. July 18, 2013. <http://www.businessweek.com/articles/2013-07-18/indonesias-palm-oil-industry-rife-with-human-rights-abuses>

⁵⁴⁵ World Wildlife Fund (WWF). *About Palm Oil*. http://wwf.panda.org/what_we_do/footprint/agriculture/palm_oil/

⁵⁴⁶ Greenpeace. *Herakles Farms in Cameroon: A Showcase in Bad Palm Oil Production*. 2013. <http://www.greenpeace.org/usa/Global/usa/planet3/PDFs/Forests/HeraklesCrimeFile.pdf>

⁵⁴⁷ O’Sullivan, Laurence. “Palm Oil Growth Damages Rainforest Environment.” *Suite 101*. March 15, 2009. <http://www.suite101.com/content/palm-oil-growth-damages-rainforest-environment-a101206#ixzz14pEmzmRy>

illegally logging and clearing forest.⁵⁴⁸ Oxfam has stated that the deforestation resulting from the conversion of forest to farmland in Indonesia would require “420 years of biofuel production to pay back the carbon debt.”⁵⁴⁹

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In 2004, companies and other stakeholders created the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (RSPO), which has a certification system for sustainable palm oil. The RSPO developed standards for environmental and social responsibility, against which growers and millers are audited for certification. The RSPO voted in April 2013 to create a new set of principles and criteria that included stronger provisions on labor, employment, human rights and business ethics.⁵⁵⁰ The Palm Oil Innovation Group (POIG) “aims to support the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (RSPO) through building on RSPO standards, and demonstrating innovation in implementing RSPO existing standards as well as additional POIG standards.”⁵⁵¹

Hamana Child Aid Society is an organization in Borneo focused on educating the children of migrant workers employed in the palm oil industry. These children are extremely vulnerable to child labor because they lack legal documents and are therefore unable to attend school. Hamana Child Aid Society runs 128 learning centers with a total of 12,000 students. The organization is funded by foreign donors, including the European Union.⁵⁵²

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) “The Price of Palm Oil” by Al Jazeera.

[Read](#) a report by Verité on new measures to combat risks of forced labor and human trafficking in palm oil supply chains.

[Read](#) a report by Amnesty International about trafficking in Malaysia.

[Read](#) Benjamin Skinner’s article “Indonesia’s Palm Oil Industry Rife with Human-Rights Abuses” for a detailed account of human trafficking on a palm plantation.

[Read](#) this Humanity United report on exploitative labor in the palm industry.

⁵⁴⁸ Greenpeace. *Herakles Farms in Cameroon: A Showcase in Bad Palm Oil Production*. 2013.

<http://www.greenpeace.org/usa/Global/usa/planet3/PDFs/Forests/HeraklesCrimeFile.pdf>

⁵⁴⁹ Oxfam. *Another Inconvenient truth: How Biofuel Policies are Deepening Poverty and Accelerating Climate Change*. June 26, 2008. <http://www.oxfam.org/en/grow/policy/another-inconvenient-truth>

⁵⁵⁰ Verité. *Sustainable Palm Oil? Promoting New Measures to Combat Risks of Forced Labor and Human Trafficking in Palm Oil Supply Chains*. May 2013. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Palm_White_Paper_May_2013_Final_Draft_0.pdf

⁵⁵¹ Palm Oil Innovation Group (POIG). *How to join POIG*. November 2015.

http://d2ouvy59p0dg6k.cloudfront.net/downloads/poig_brochure_november_2015.pdf

⁵⁵² Motlagh, Jason. “Borneo: An Expat Teacher on a Mission.” Pulitzer Center on Crisis Reporting. January 23, 2013. <http://pulitzercenter.org/reporting/borneo-malaysia-sabah-humana-child-aid-plantation-education-mission>

Pineapple



Pineapples are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce pineapples worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export pineapples worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports pineapples (UN Comtrade 2012):
Brazil (CL)	1. Thailand	1. Costa Rica	1. Costa Rica
Costa Rica (FL)	2. Costa Rica	2. The Philippines	2. Mexico
Côte d'Ivoire (FL, CL)	3. Brazil	3. Netherlands	3. Honduras
United States (FL)	4. The Philippines	4. Belgium	4. Panama
Thailand (FL)	5. Indonesia	5. United States	5. Guatemala
	6. India	6. Honduras	6. Ecuador
	7. Nigeria	7. Ecuador	7. Thailand
	8. China	8. Côte d'Ivoire	8. Dominican Republic
	9. Mexico	9. Mexico	9. Colombia
	10. Colombia	10. Germany	10. China

Where is pineapple reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons* report notes forced child labor in the pineapple sector in Côte d'Ivoire.⁵⁵³

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor and Child Labor*, pineapples are produced in Brazil using child labor.⁵⁵⁴ A Honolulu newspaper reported that migrant farmworkers are exposed to human trafficking on American owned pineapple farms on Maui and

⁵⁵³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁵⁵⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRAR_2014.pdf

the island of Hawaii.⁵⁵⁵ According to human rights organization Finnwatch, trafficking has been used in pineapple production in Thailand.⁵⁵⁶ The Labor Rights Forum has reported instances of trafficking on pineapple plantations in Costa Rica.⁵⁵⁷

Although specific cases of trafficking have not been cited in the Philippines, high rates of labor casualization – that is, workers working without a formal connection to the plantation owner – have led to severe exploitation of workers.⁵⁵⁸

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Brazil, and CDI as Tier 2 countries. Costa Rica is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country. Thailand is listed as a Tier 3 country. The United States is listed as a Tier 1 country.⁵⁵⁹

What does trafficking and/or child labor in pineapple production look like?

Children working in the pineapple industry may apply dangerous chemicals, carry heavy loads, work long hours and use hazardous tools.⁵⁶⁰ According to the U.S. Department of State, boys from neighboring countries of Ghana, Mali, Burkina Faso, Benin, and Togo are trafficked to work on pineapple plantations in Côte d'Ivoire.⁵⁶¹

In the Philippines and Costa Rica, where pineapple production is dominated by large multi-national companies, contract workers are hired via “labor cooperatives.” These labor cooperatives allow plantations to avoid direct working relationships with workers, who essentially become “permanent temporary” workers with no mechanisms for grievance.⁵⁶²

In Costa Rica, many workers are undocumented migrants and are thus extremely vulnerable to human trafficking. Depending on the region, between 60 and 90 percent of pineapple workers are migrants from Nicaragua, and many lack documentation.⁵⁶³ These workers generally do not speak the language of the farm owners and, due to their undocumented status, they do not have access to legal avenues for lodging complaints about dangerous working conditions, excessive hours, or low pay. Even workers who do have

⁵⁵⁵ Daranciang, Nelson. “Scope of Isle Farm Labor Abuse Case Widens.” *Star Advertiser*. January 15, 2011. http://www.staradvertiser.com/news/20110115_scope_of_isle_farm_labor_abuse_case_widens.html

⁵⁵⁶ Moilanen, Vesa. “Forced Labor Behind Pineapple Juice on Shelves in Finland.” *Nordic Africa News*. January 22, 2013.

<http://www.helsinkitimes.fi/finland/finland-news/domestic/5081-forced-labour-behind-pineapple-juice-on-shelves-in-finland>

⁵⁵⁷ International Labor Rights Forum. “The Sour Taste of Pineapple”. October, 2008. <http://laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/resources/10745?lang=english>

⁵⁵⁸ International Labor Rights Forum. “The Sour Taste of Pineapple”. October, 2008. <http://laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/resources/10745?lang=english>

⁵⁵⁹ U.S. Department of State. *2015 Trafficking in Person's Report*. 2015.

<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/243558.pdf>

⁵⁶⁰ U.S. Department of Labor. *2011 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. 2011.

<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/2011TDA.pdf>.

⁵⁶¹ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*.

http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁵⁶² International Labor Rights Forum. “The Sour Taste of Pineapple”. October, 2008. <http://laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/resources/10745?lang=english>

⁵⁶³ Lawrence, Felicity. “Bitter Fruit: The Truth about Supermarket Pineapple.” *The Guardian*. October 1, 2010.

<http://www.theguardian.com/business/2010/oct/02/truth-about-pineapple-production>

access to labor unions are habitually fired or blacklisted by farm owners.⁵⁶⁴ Workers in pineapple production are exposed to hazards including toxic chemicals, heavy machinery and extreme temperatures.⁵⁶⁵

Pineapple Production and Supply Chain:

The pineapple production process generally includes fertilizing and pesticide spraying in addition to the usual labor-intensive agricultural activities, such as land preparation, planting, and harvesting. A large workforce is required to cultivate the fruit. After an extensive period of planting, protecting, and watering pineapples, they are harvested and packaged to be shipped to processing plants or to be sold as fresh fruit. Pineapple producing brands often own plantations in several countries and shipments from these countries may be shipped together, making it difficult to identify geographic origins of the fruit once it is on grocery shelves.⁵⁶⁶

How do trafficking and/or child labor in pineapple production affect me?



As a commodity, the pineapple is predominantly traded as a fresh fruit, but the Food and Agriculture Organization also includes pineapple juice concentrate in the pineapple commodities trade statistics.⁵⁶⁷ Pineapples make up about 20 percent of the total world tropical fruit production and they are the second most harvested fruit, after bananas. The United States has the highest demand for imported pineapple. According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the primary use globally for pineapple is as a fresh fruit in the country of origin.⁵⁶⁸

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Finnwatch raised awareness about the sourcing of food at Finnish food stores. They found that in a Thai pineapple juicing factory, workers were subjected to conditions that could be considered forced labor.

⁵⁶⁴ Maliq, Anahi. "The Environmental and Social Cost of Pineapples in Costa Rica." *Labor is Not a Commodity*. January 4, 2011. http://laborrightsblog.typepad.com/international_labor_right/2011/01/the-environmental-and-social-cost-of-pineapples-in-costa-rica.html

⁵⁶⁵ International Labor Rights Forum. "The Sour Taste of Pineapple". October, 2008. <http://laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/resources/10745?lang=english>

⁵⁶⁶ International Labor Rights Forum. "The Sour Taste of Pineapple". October, 2008. <http://laborrights.org/creating-a-sweatfree-world/resources/10745?lang=english>

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). "Pineapple." *AAACP Products*. April 26, 2012. <http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Pineapple/>

⁵⁶⁷ United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). "Pineapple." *AAACP Products*. April 26, 2012. <http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Pineapple/>

⁵⁶⁸ United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). "Pineapple." *AAACP Products*. April 26, 2012. <http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Pineapple/>

The group has influenced Finnish consumers and stores to ensure that human rights violations are not being committed during pineapple production and processing.⁵⁶⁹

Costa Rican environmental and labor groups created the National Front of Sectors Affected by the Pineapple Industry to combat human rights and health issues in the industry. Subsequently, the International Labor Rights Forum released an extensive report on human rights violations in the global pineapple industry, which in turn led to human rights inquiries by Banana Link and an international campaign by Consumers International targeting improper working conditions in the tropical fruit industry. Various newspapers have also released awareness-raising reports on working conditions for pineapple plantation laborers in light of the recent boom in pineapple demand in the United States and Europe.⁵⁷⁰

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) this Labor Rights Forum report on the growth of the pineapple industry.

[Take a look](#) at the Finnwatch report on suppliers for European groceries.

⁵⁶⁹ Moilanen, Vesa. “Forced Labor Behind Pineapple Juice on Shelves in Finland.” *Nordic Africa News*. January 22, 2013.

<http://www.helsinkitimes.fi/finland/finland-news/domestic/5081-forced-labour-behind-pineapple-juice-on-shelves-in-finland>

⁵⁷⁰ Maliq, Anahi. “The Environmental and Social Cost of Pineapples in Costa Rica.” *Labor is Not a Commodity*. January 4, 2011. http://laborrightsblog.typepad.com/international_labor_right/2011/01/the-environmental-and-social-cost-of-pineapples-in-costa-rica.html

Rice



Rice is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce rice worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export rice worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports rice (UN Comtrade 2012):
Brazil (CL)	1. China	1. India	1. Thailand
Burma (FL, CL)	2. India	2. Thailand	2. India
Dominican Republic (CL)	3. Indonesia	3. United States	3. Vietnam
India (FL, CL)	4. Bangladesh	4. Pakistan	4. Pakistan
Kenya (CL)	5. Vietnam	5. Brazil	5. Brazil
Mali (FL, CL)	6. Thailand	6. Uruguay	6. Uruguay
Philippines (CL)	7. Burma	7. Italy	7. Italy
Uganda (CL)	8. Philippines	8. Argentina	8. Argentina
	9. Brazil	9. Australia	9. Canada
	10. Japan	10. Russia	10. Spain

Where is rice reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, rice is made with forced labor or forced child labor in India.⁵⁷¹

The U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor and Child Labor* notes that rice is produced with forced labor in Burma, India, and Mali and child labor in Brazil, Burma, the Dominican Republic, India, Kenya, Mali, the Philippines, and Uganda.⁵⁷²

⁵⁷¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁵⁷² U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Brazil, Kenya, the Dominican Republic, India, Philippines and Uganda as Tier 2 countries. Mali, and Burma are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.⁵⁷³

What does trafficking and/or child labor in rice production look like?

Most forced and child labor in rice takes place at the harvesting stage. In the rice growing region in eastern Uganda, half of all children reportedly leave school to work on the rice harvest.⁵⁷⁴ According to the U.S. Department of State, some Kenyan tenant rice farmers work in debt bondage.⁵⁷⁵ They take advances from farm owners or supervisors to pay for school fees, food or medical needs, and are unable to pay back the loans with the proceeds from their harvest.

In India, human trafficking has been identified at the milling stage of production. In early 2010, an Indian rice mill owner was convicted of holding multiple families inside the mill, initially binding them with debt through advances and also locking the facilities and denying workers permission to leave.⁵⁷⁶ A similar situation was discovered in a rice mill in Chennai, India in April 2012. The International Justice Mission (IJM) identified the abuse and government authorities “[conducted] the rescue operation,” freeing over two dozen children, women and men.⁵⁷⁷

Rice Production and Supply Chain:

The world’s largest producers of rice are China, India, Indonesia, Vietnam, and Thailand.⁵⁷⁸ The United States is a net rice exporter, exporting “about half of its rice crop, mostly to Mexico, Central America, Northeast Asia, the Caribbean and the Middle East.” However, demand for aromatic rice varieties has increased imports from South Asia.⁵⁷⁹

⁵⁷³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁵⁷⁴ Olukya, Godfrey. “Stunted Growth: Thousands of Ugandan Children Abandon School.” *The Africa Report*. June 8, 2012. <http://www.theafricareport.com/Society-and-Culture/stunted-growth-thousands-of-ugandan-children-abandon-school.html>

⁵⁷⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. *2012 US Department of Labor’s List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2012. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/ocft/pdf/2012TVPRA.pdf>

⁵⁷⁶ International Justice Mission. “Rice Mill Operation Frees 22 Laborers.” October 2, 2010. <http://www.ijm.org/newsfromthefield/ricemillrescueoperationfrees22forcedlaborers>

⁵⁷⁷ International Justice Mission. “IJM Chennai: Families Now Free from Forced Labor in ‘Deplorable’ Rice Mill.” April 12, 2012. <http://www.ijm.org/news/ijm-chennai-families-now-free-forced-labor-deplorable-rice-mill>

⁵⁷⁸ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

⁵⁷⁹ U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Grain: World Markets and Trade*. September 2011. <http://www.fas.usda.gov/grain/circular/2011/09-11/grainfull09-11.pdf>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in rice production affect me?



According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA), rice is the “primary staple for more than half the world's population.”

Approximately 85 percent of rice consumed in the United States is grown domestically.⁵⁸⁰ However, India and Brazil are among the top five countries that export rice to the United States and they have documented forced and/or child labor in rice production.⁵⁸¹

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In 2012, the International Justice Mission and the Indian government rescued 17 people from forced labor in a rice mill in Kancheepuram, India. The government of India is also partnering with the ILO on a project to reduce bonded labor in rice mills in Tamil Nadu by integrating existing government and social welfare programs.⁵⁸²

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) a case study from the International Justice Mission.

[Watch](#) a video on recent changes in the international rice trade.

⁵⁸⁰ U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Grain: World Markets and Trade*. September 2011.

<http://www.fas.usda.gov/grain/circular/2011/09-11/grainfull09-11.pdf>

⁵⁸¹ UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

⁵⁸² U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: India*. 2013.

http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/india.htm#ENREF_112

Rubber



Rubber is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produced rubber worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export rubber worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports rubber (UN Comtrade 2012):
Burma (FL, CL)	1. Thailand	1. China	1. China
Cambodia (CL)	2. Indonesia	2. Germany	2. Canada
Côte d'Ivoire (FL)	3. Malaysia	3. Thailand	3. Indonesia
Indonesia (CL)	4. Vietnam	4. United States	4. Japan
Liberia (FL, CL)	5. India	5. Japan	5. Thailand
Philippines (CL)	6. China	6. Indonesia	6. South Korea
Malaysia (FL)	7. Côte d'Ivoire	7. Nigeria	7. Mexico
Vietnam (FL)	8. Brazil	8. South Korea	8. Malaysia
	9. Philippines	9. Malaysia	9. Germany
	10. Burma	10. France	10. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified)

Where is rubber reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, rubber is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in Burma, Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia.⁵⁸³

⁵⁸³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

The U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor and Child Labor* notes that natural rubber is produced with forced labor in Burma and with child labor in Burma, Cambodia, Indonesia, Liberia, and the Philippines.⁵⁸⁴ Anecdotal reports have described forced labor in Malaysia and Vietnam.⁵⁸⁵

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Indonesia, Liberia, the Philippines and Vietnam as Tier 2 countries. Burma, Cambodia, and Malaysia are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.⁵⁸⁶

What does trafficking and/or child labor in rubber production look like?

The most well-known instances of human trafficking in rubber production are those on the Firestone plantations of Liberia. Rubber tappers responsible for extracting liquid rubber from trees receive low wages and must meet high quotas which require assistance from family members, including children.⁵⁸⁷ According to anecdotal reports, conditions have improved somewhat in recent years, in part due to the public campaigns highlighting Firestone and in part due to the end of Liberia's civil war. There have been few studies on conditions outside of Firestone properties.

An ILO study on child labor in Indonesia found that generally children helped parents work on rubber plantations after school, but if parents could not afford school fees, children would drop out of school to work on the rubber plantation full time. Children working on the plantation are responsible for the same tasks as adults, including tapping the trees, cutting grass around the trees, spraying pesticides on weeds and fungus, and planting seedlings. Children working full time worked the same hours as adults. These children are exposed to hazards such as snake attacks, pesticides, long hours, and using sharp tools, with most work performed in isolated locations.⁵⁸⁸

Case Study:

Research on working conditions in the Liberia Rubber Sector

Verité conducted research on two large, foreign-owned rubber plantations in Liberia (LAC and Cocopa) and found several potential indicators of human trafficking. The majority of workers on the rubber plantations are employed as tappers who manually extract rubber from the trees and transport it to field stations. Tappers are paid by production and have a quota of how many trees they must tap per day. Those who do not reach the quota are subject to financial penalties. Additionally, wages may vary from month to month as paycheck deductions are made for services like compulsory, subsidized bags of rice, school fees and voluntary savings programs. Workers at both plantations are required to work eight hours per day, but twelve hour work days are not uncommon. Researchers found that although the LAC plantation gave out

⁵⁸⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁵⁸⁵ Kinetz, Erika, Georgre Wehrfritz, Jonathan Kent. "Bottom of the Barrel." *Newsweek*. March 15, 2008. <http://www.newsweek.com/2008/03/15/bottom-of-the-barrel.html>

International Labor Organization (ILO). *Report on Working Children Situation in Eight Provinces and Cities in Viet Nam*. September 2009. <http://www.ilo.org/ippecinfo/product/viewProduct.do?productId=13014>

⁵⁸⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁵⁸⁷ International Labor Rights Forum. *Labor Rights Abuses Continue on Firestone Liberia Rubber Plantation*. July 28, 2009. <http://www.laborrights.org/stop-child-labor/stop-firestone/news/12065>

⁵⁸⁸ International Labor Organization (ILO) Indonesia. *Child Labour in Plantations*. April 22, 2010. http://www.ilo.org/jakarta/areasofwork/WCMS_126206/lang--en/index.htm

loans to its employees, indebtedness was not a factor in keeping workers on the plantation. Some evidence of menace of penalty was found, such as forced dismissal, but these accounts were unsubstantiated. On both the plantations, child labor was observed. Because of the quota system, many families employ their children in order to reach the daily quota. Additionally, because of the poor quality of education and high school fees, many parents prefer to have their children working on the plantation over attending school. Researchers found that plantation workers, including children, face significant health risks. Working as a tapper requires hard physical labor and back pain is a common complaint. The rate of accident is high as workers have to handle machetes, hot rubber and acid (which is used in the production process). Although protective gear is issued to most workers, not all are educated on its functionality.⁵⁸⁹

Rubber Production and Supply Chain:



*Yellow bars signify production and green cones signify consumption. Arrows signify trade flows.

Source: UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Commodity Atlas: Natural Rubber*. 2004
http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditccom20041ch17_en.pdf

In Asia, with the exception of Indonesia and Malaysia, rubber is likely to be grown on large plantations, whereas in Africa it is most likely to be grown on small family farms.

The production of natural rubber revolves around the life cycle of the tree from which the rubber (or latex) originates. This means that the production process for rubber requires three major stages: planting and maintaining the trees, harvesting the rubber from them by tapping, and processing the rubber for trade. As a production process, this is extremely labor intensive. In each stage, several specific tasks are involved, and each relates to the life-cycle of the tree. The rubber tree is fragile, particularly in the period immediately after planting and up to when it reaches maturity at seven or eight years of age. The tree can be tapped

⁵⁸⁹ Verité. *Rubber Production in Liberia: An Explanatory Assessment of Living and Working Conditions, with Special Attention to Forced Labor*.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Working%20Conditions%20in%20the%20Liberia%20Rubber%20Sector__9.16.pdf

carefully from the age of two or three, but its prime years of production, if well-maintained, are from seven to 25 years.⁵⁹⁰

The lifecycle of a rubber field is therefore defined by three distinct phases. First, as seedlings, the trees are in a nursery, while a field is being prepared for them. When the seedlings are ready, these young trees are transplanted to the prepared field. Second, for seven to eight years, apart from periodic gentle tapping, the main activity on the field is pruning and weeding. Third, after this seven to eight year period, the trees are ready for full production. At this stage, they will be tapped all year round. However, the peak periods of the season last from the heavy rains of May to September and the lighter rains of October to January. Production is considerably lower in the dry period lasting from February to April.⁵⁹¹

The clearing of land, breeding in the nursery, and the weeding and pruning of fields and young trees are integral elements to the production process. The most labor-intensive stage, however, is the tapping of trees. This involves each tree being “tapped” with a cup that is attached to it just below the cut made in the tree’s bark to collect the latex. In a normal working day, tappers will collect “cup-lumps” from the previous day – that is, the latex that has poured into the cup overnight – then clean the cup and return to collect the new latex later that same day. At the end of the day (or alternately after a whole field has been cleared), the tapper will carry both the fresh latex and cup-lumps to the nearest field station for weighing. At the field station, acid is added to the latex as the first step in producing rubber. At this stage, there are safety concerns for workers involved in the collection and production process, with injuries in the field including eye and skin damage from spilling latex; snakebites; back pain and muscle cramps from carrying heavy loads to the field stations; and exposure to the acid that is added to the latex at the field station.⁵⁹²

According to a USAID description of the rubber sector in Indonesia, small holders generally sell their rubber to nearby plantations or middlemen, while plantations sell on the open market or through traders. Traders in the value chain finance producers and provide transport. Processors buy material from collectors, plantations or farmer groups. Large plantations may also be processors. Brokers collect rubber from processors and provide it to global rubber manufacturers.⁵⁹³ The origin of rubber can be obscured, particularly at the broker or manufacturing level.

⁵⁹⁰ Verité. *Rubber Production in Liberia: An Explanatory Assessment of Living and Working Conditions, with Special Attention to Forced Labor*.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Working%20Conditions%20in%20the%20Liberia%20Rubber%20Sector__9.16.pdf

⁵⁹¹ Verité. *Rubber Production in Liberia: An Explanatory Assessment of Living and Working Conditions, with Special Attention to Forced Labor*.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Working%20Conditions%20in%20the%20Liberia%20Rubber%20Sector__9.16.pdf

⁵⁹² Verité. *Rubber Production in Liberia: An Explanatory Assessment of Living and Working Conditions, with Special Attention to Forced Labor*.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Working%20Conditions%20in%20the%20Liberia%20Rubber%20Sector__9.16.pdf

⁵⁹³ U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). *A Value Chain Assessment of the Rubber Industry in Indonesia*. June 2007. http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADL492.pdf

Approximately 90 percent of rubber production takes place in Asia, with Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia, India, China and Vietnam accounting for 88 percent of global production.⁵⁹⁴ However, Liberia accounts for approximately 64 percent of quantity and 72 percent of value of American rubber imports with Vietnam and Thailand also providing significant sources.⁵⁹⁵

How do trafficking and/or child labor in rubber production affect me?



Because rubber is elastic, waterproof, and a natural insulator, it has a wide variety of consumer and industrial uses. Nearly half of all natural rubber output is used for tire production; and about 60 percent ends up in the automotive market as a whole, which includes belts, hoses and seals. Natural rubber is also used for gloves, mats, condoms, hot water bottles, and protective clothing.⁵⁹⁶

Demand for synthetic rubber increased drastically during World War II. Today the majority of all rubber used is produced synthetically and not known to involve the use of forced or child labor in its production. While manufactured goods may use either natural or synthetic rubber, approximately 60 percent of all natural rubber use is in tires and other automobile parts.⁵⁹⁷

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In 2010, USAID developed the "Rubber Industry Master Plan 2010 - 2040: A National Agenda for Rubber Sector Development" in collaboration with the Liberian Ministry of Agriculture. The master plan sets up the Rubber Development Fund Incorporated (RDFI), a joint public-private organization that will implement all master plan strategies. In addition to plans to revitalize development of the Liberian rubber sector, the plan calls for improved standard of living for workers and educational access for children.⁵⁹⁸

⁵⁹⁴ UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Commodity Atlas: Natural Rubber*. http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditccom20041ch17_en.pdf

⁵⁹⁵ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO). *Detailed World Agricultural Trade Flows*. <http://faostat.fao.org/DesktopModules/Faostat/WATFDetailed2/watf.aspx?PageID=536>

⁵⁹⁶ UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *UN Comtrade Database*. 2012. <http://comtrade.un.org/data/>

⁵⁹⁷ UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Commodity Atlas: Natural Rubber*. http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditccom20041ch17_en.pdf

⁵⁹⁸ U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). *Rubber Industry Master Plan 2010 - 2040: A National Agenda for Rubber Sector Development* http://www.rpalib.org/page_info.php?&7d5f44532cbfc489b8db9e12e44eb820=MTU0

U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Worst Forms of Child Labor Liberia*. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/liberia.htm>
Verité. *Rubber Production in Liberia: An Explanatory Assessment of Living and Working Conditions, with Special Attention to Forced Labor*.

http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Working%20Conditions%20in%20the%20Liberia%20Rubber%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video about Firestone in Liberia.

[Read](#) about the international rubber trade.

[Read](#) about Firestone in Liberia.

[Read](#) Verité's full report on working conditions in Liberia's Rubber industry.

Salt



Salt is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Bangladesh (CL)
Cambodia (CL)
Niger (CL)
India (CL)
Korea (FL)
Mali (FL)

Top ten countries that export salt worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

1. Mexico
2. Chile
3. India
4. Canada
5. Netherlands
6. Germany
7. Ukraine
8. Belarus
9. China
10. United States

Top ten countries from which the US imports salt (UN Comtrade 2012):

1. Canada
2. Chile
3. Mexico
4. Bahamas
5. Peru
6. Netherlands
7. Egypt
8. Italy
9. Vietnam
10. Colombia

Where is salt reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, there has been documented forced labor or forced child labor in salt production in Korea and Mali.⁵⁹⁹

The 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* notes that salt is mined with child labor in Bangladesh, Cambodia, and Niger.⁶⁰⁰ There are anecdotal reports that children are involved in salt mining in India.⁶⁰¹

⁵⁹⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁰⁰ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

⁶⁰¹ Nair, Rupam Jain. "Salt Mining Leaves a Bitter Taste for Indian Workers." *The Telegraph*. February 24, 2010. <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/expat/expatnews/7305988/Salt-mining-leaves-bitter-taste-for-Indian-workers.html>

The 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Bangladesh, Niger and India as Tier 2 countries. Cambodia and Mali are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries. Korea is a Tier 1 country.⁶⁰²

What does trafficking and/or child labor in salt production look like?

Children who work in salt production face hazardous conditions. They are often subjected to long work days in small, cramped settings with little lighting. Constant exposure to salt can cause health problems for children and can cause skin and vision disorders.⁶⁰³

In Cambodia's southern province of Kampot, children work long hours in the salt fields carrying heavy loads in hot weather. Children work in salt production to supplement their family incomes.⁶⁰⁴ In Senegal, salt harvesting is a traditional family activity and children participate with their parents. In Niger, children also participate in salt mining with their families, using a traditional process to extract salt. Children reportedly participate in salt extraction, as well as associated activities such as carrying wood to burn in the process used to distill the salt. When participating in extraction, they work an average of eight hour days, which often means they leave school for three to four month periods.⁶⁰⁵

In Korea, there was a case in which disabled men were forced to work on salt farms where they were abused. In response, the government created special investigative teams to inspect over 800 salt farms as well as owners and brokers.⁶⁰⁶

Salt Production and Supply Chain:

There are two main methods of producing salt: solar evaporation and mining. Solar evaporation, done in warm climates, captures salt water in shallow ponds after most of the water has evaporated. Workers harvest the salt by raking it into baskets and carrying it to be drained and purified. In rock salt mining, miners go down in caves and perform an action called "undercutting," where machines cut slots in the salt wall. Then tiny explosive devices are drilled into small holes in the wall and detonated to blast the salt out onto the mine floor into the "slots". Finally the salt is loaded up and sent to stations to be crushed and sized. After the salt is purified and processed, it is sent off to customers for consumption.⁶⁰⁷

⁶⁰² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁰³ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Child Labor in Salt Mining: The Problem*. 2006. <http://www.ilo.org/ipecc/areas/Miningandquarrying/MoreaboutCLinmining/lang--en/index.htm>

⁶⁰⁴ Redfern, Jerry. "Chien Ri, 11, works with her family in the salt fields...". April 2006 <http://www.gettyimages.com/detail/news-photo/chien-ri-works-with-her-family-in-the-salt-fields-raking-news-photo/167506061>

⁶⁰⁵ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Child Labor in Salt Mining: The Problem*. 2006. <http://www.ilo.org/ipecc/areas/Miningandquarrying/MoreaboutCLinmining/lang--en/index.htm>

⁶⁰⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁰⁷ Morton Salt. "Salt Production and Processing." 2013. <http://www.mortonsalt.com/salt-facts/salt-production-and-processing>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in salt production affect me?



Salt is one of the world's most widely used condiments and seasonings. It is also commonly used in highway deicing, water conditioning, and various industrial chemicals.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Cambodia's National Plan of Action (NPA) on the Worst Forms of Child Labor in 2008 identified salt production in the country to be within the parameters of the worst forms of child labor, as outlined by the International Labour Organization (ILO). The NPA is working to reduce the number of children aged five to 17 working in Cambodia to 10.6 percent by 2010 and eight percent by 2015.⁶⁰⁸ In certain areas, visible progress has been made by these efforts. From 2008 to 2010, there has been a drop off in the quantity of working children in the Kampot province from 2,000 children to 250 children.⁶⁰⁹

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video of children packing salt in the Rann of Kutch.

[Read](#) the ILO's 2009 report, *Good Practices and Lessons Learnt in Combating Hazardous Work in Child Labour*.

[Experience](#) the world of a young Cambodian salt worker.

⁶⁰⁸U.S. Department of Labor. *2008 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Cambodia*. September 10, 2009. <http://www.refworld.org/docid/4aba3eebc.html>

⁶⁰⁹ Human Rights in Ireland. *Child Labor in Cambodia*. June 14, 2011. <http://humanrights.ie/children-and-the-law/child-labour-in-cambodia/>

Shrimp



Shrimp is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following in the following countries:

Top ten countries that export shrimp worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Top ten countries from which the US imports shrimp (UN Comtrade 2012):

Burma (FL)
Bangladesh (FL, CL)
Cambodia (CL)
Thailand (FL, CL)

1. Malaysia
2. Morocco
3. India
4. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified)
5. The Philippines
6. Mauritania
7. Sri Lanka
8. Belize
9. Mozambique
10. Guyana

Not Available

Where is shrimp reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons* report notes that shrimp is produced with forced labor and child labor in Bangladesh.⁶¹⁰

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, forced labor in shrimp production occurs in Burma and Thailand, and child labor occurs in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Thailand.⁶¹¹ (For more information on the fish sector in general, click [here](#).)

⁶¹⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶¹¹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

What does trafficking and/or child labor in shrimp production look like?

Indicators of human trafficking and child labor are found throughout the shrimp supply chain. At the level of shrimp processing facilities, according to reports from the Solidarity Center and the Environmental Justice Foundation (EJF), human trafficking in shrimp processing can occur through debt bondage, non-payment of wages, and/or the suspension of freedom of movement as workers are locked in processing plants.⁶¹² Many of the workers in Thai shrimp processing are migrants from Burma or other countries; they are even more likely to be subject to abusive work conditions and trafficking as a result of broker or employer threats to turn them over to the police. The U.S. Department of Labor has previously reported that children “work off the parents’ debts in the factories, where they reportedly are locked inside and sometimes beaten. These children are thus made officially ‘invisible’ through the subcontracting arrangements between their parents and the employers.” In the Bangladesh shrimp sector, Verité research found that workers in the shrimp processing sector, particularly contract workers, experienced indicators of trafficking; they also found that children accompanied their parents to work.⁶¹³ The Environmental Justice Foundation found that the un-regulated nature of pre-processing facilities contributes to the “debt bondage, forced labor and abuse” of Burmese migrant workers in the Thai shrimp sector.⁶¹⁴

In Burma, the EJF reported incidents in which land was confiscated for the establishment of shrimp farms and workers were conscripted to carry out shrimp farm construction, in addition to other incidents in which workers were forced to labor on the farms without compensation.⁶¹⁵

Fish commonly used as feed for shrimp in Thai-based shrimp farms is caught with forced labor by migrant workers from Burma and Cambodia. These workers paid fees to brokers in Thailand, hoping to find construction or manufacturing work, but were instead sold to boat captains where they were subjected to extreme violence, horrific conditions and up to 20 hours a day of forced work. Some were kept at sea for years.⁶¹⁶ Some fishermen subjected to forced labor have reported that other fishermen were murdered and thrown overboard at sea when they could not meet the demands or were otherwise targeted for abuse by sea captains and crew.⁶¹⁷

Children are involved in wild fry (larvae) collection in Bangladesh, and are exposed to extreme temperatures and illness from long periods of time standing in water. Fry collectors are also vulnerable to

⁶¹² Solidarity Center. *The True Cost of Shrimp: How Shrimp Industry Workers in Bangladesh and Thailand Pay the Price for Affordable Shrimp*. January 2008. http://www.solidaritycenter.org/files/pubs_True_Cost_of_Shrimp.pdf Environmental Justice Foundation. *THE HIDDEN COST: Human Rights Abuses in Thailand’s Shrimp Industry*. 2013. http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/shrimp_report_v44_lower_resolution.pdf

⁶¹³ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Shrimp in Bangladesh*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bangladesh%20Shrimp%20Sector__9.16.pdf

⁶¹⁴ Environmental Justice Foundation. *THE HIDDEN COST: Human Rights Abuses in Thailand’s Shrimp Industry*. 2013. http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/shrimp_report_v44_lower_resolution.pdf

⁶¹⁵ Environmental Justice Foundation and WildAid. *Smash and Grab: Conflict, Corruption and Human Rights Abuses in the Shrimp Farming Industry*. 2003. http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/smash_and_grab.pdf

⁶¹⁶ Hodal, Kate, Chris Kelly and Felicity Lawrence. “Revealed: Asian Slave Labour Producing Prawns for Supermarkets in US, UK.” *The Guardian*. June 10, 2014. <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2014/jun/10/supermarket-prawns-thailand-produced-slave-labour>

⁶¹⁷ BBC. *Forced to Fish: Slavery on Thailand’s Trawlers*. <http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-25814718>

cycles of debt as they take loans to purchase inputs and are required to sell their catch back to middlemen at low rates.⁶¹⁸

Case Study:

Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Shrimp in Bangladesh

Verité performed research in the Bangladesh shrimp industry and found indicators of forced labor in the three major stages of shrimp production: shrimp fry collection, shrimp farming and shrimp processing. Shrimp fry collection, the first stage in shrimp production, involves catching or harvesting fry and selling them to a middleman. This system forces shrimp fry collectors into debt as they must take out loans from the middleman to pay for fry collecting equipment. In order to pay back these loans, they must sell their fry to the same middleman, who now has the leverage to buy the fry at lower than market prices. Women are particularly vulnerable to indebtedness because they have more difficulty negotiating the price. Some women are subjected to threats of sexual violence by the middlemen in order to intimidate them into accepting lower prices. Additionally, the government recently made wild fry catching illegal, putting many fry collectors at risk of extortion by local authorities and paramilitary groups. In order to make enough money, fry collectors must work long hours in dangerous conditions. Constant submersion in water for six to ten hours per day is very hazardous especially to the many children that work alongside their parents in this industry.⁶¹⁹

Once the fry are harvested and sold to a middleman, they are then sent to a shrimp farm, where researchers also found indicators of forced labor. On the shrimp farms, laborers are required to work long hours including week long stretches of 11 hour work days during peak season. Overtime pay is rarely honored. Workers have limited freedom of movement as some have reported that they are only allowed to leave the farm for two days each month. Shrimp farm laborers are dependent on their employer as many are provided housing on the farm and some claim that if they leave before the end of the agreed upon time period they will not receive their wages. Wages are low, which drives many workers to take out loans from their employers. When they are unable to pay back the loans, they end up performing household chores in order to repay. The U.S. Department of State reports that entire families involved in shrimp farming may face debt bondage.⁶²⁰ Conditions are generally worse for the women and children who work on the farms. Women are subject to sexual violence and are more vulnerable to indebtedness because they are paid less than men. Children, who come to the farms to work with their parents because education is not available and the family needs extra income, are paid less than the adult workers and are more susceptible to injuries from the dangerous working conditions. In some cases, such as on shrimp farms visited by Verité researchers in Bangladesh, where feeding and other tasks are not mechanized, workers

⁶¹⁸ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Shrimp in Bangladesh*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bangladesh%20Shrimp%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Environmental Justice Foundation. *Impossibly Cheap: Abuse and Injustice in Bangladesh's Shrimp Industry*. January 2014. http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/Impossibly_Cheap_Web.pdf

⁶¹⁹ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Shrimp in Bangladesh*. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bangladesh%20Shrimp%20Sector__9.16.pdf

⁶²⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

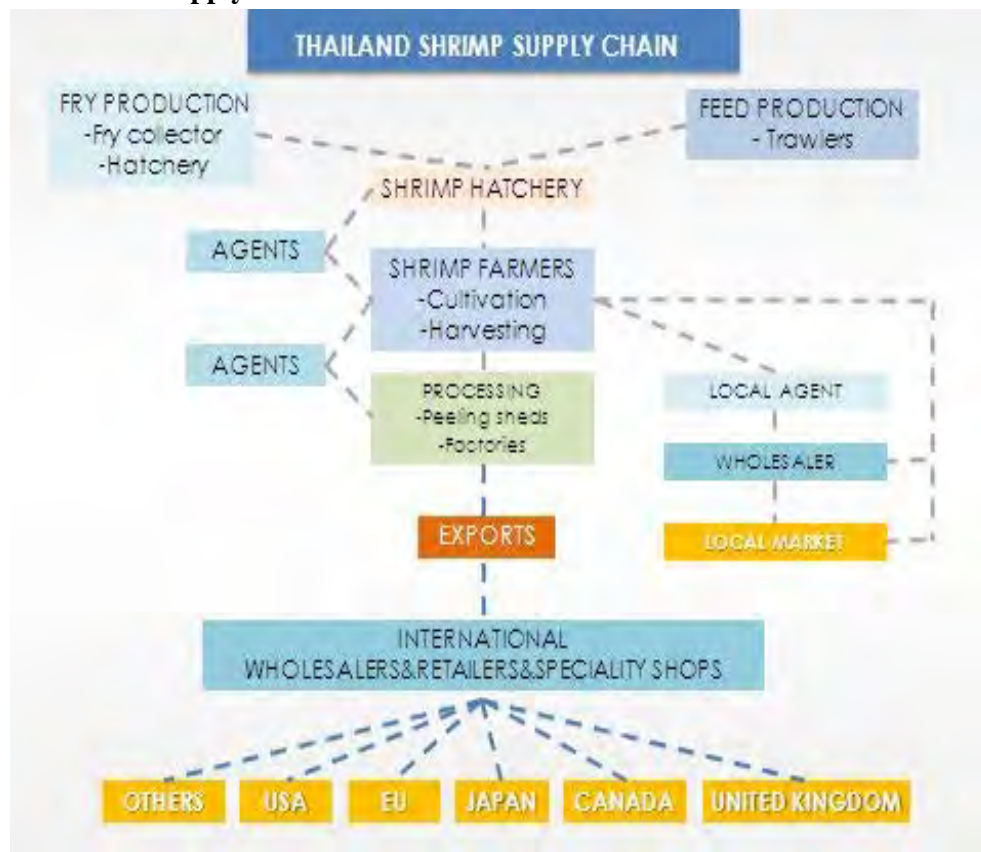
stood for hours in water, leading to a variety of health issues including fever, rash, infections and snake bites.⁶²¹

In the final step before export, harvested shrimp are sent to processing facilities. In some plants, workers are subject to long hours, verbal abuse, low pay and other indicators of forced labor. Shrimp processing follows the cycle of the tides and approximately twice a month after high tidal periods, workers are required to work shifts of up to 24 hours. Verbal abuse is common, including threats that workers will lose their job if they complain. In the processing plants, workers are either hired permanently or on a piece-rate basis. For those hired piece-rate, there is a risk of wage deception as employers can dishonestly weigh their production. As in the other steps of shrimp production, women in the processing plants are more vulnerable. Women are more likely to be contract workers rather than permanent workers and they are consistently given the lowest paying jobs. Child labor is also a problem in the plants in Bangladesh as children come to work with their parents.⁶²²

⁶²¹ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Shrimp in Bangladesh*.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bangladesh%20Shrimp%20Sector__9.16.pdf

⁶²² Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Shrimp in Bangladesh*.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/Research%20on%20Indicators%20of%20Forced%20Labor%20in%20the%20Bangladesh%20Shrimp%20Sector__9.16.pdf

Shrimp Production and Supply Chain:



Source: International Labor Organization (ILO). *The Shrimp Supply Chain*. April 9, 2014. http://www.ilo.org/asia/WCMS_240724/lang--en/index.htm

Shrimp production takes place in one of two forms: aquaculture farming or trawling. In aquaculture, shrimp grow under controlled environments, either in tanks or ponds. In trawling, vessels catch shrimp and fish in the open water by dragging nets behind the boat. Due to trawling's high environmental costs, the U.S. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) compares fish trawling to forest clear-cutting and states that the "discard rates account for over 27 percent of total estimated discards in all the marine fisheries of the world."⁶²³ While both methods are used in South East Asia, the majority of shrimp production takes place through aquaculture, though the fish are often fed with disposable fish collected through trawling.

Farming shrimp requires the collection of shrimp fry. Fry can either be caught in coastal waters or ponds (more common in Bangladesh), or produced in hatcheries (more common in Thailand). Fry from wild collection or hatcheries are generally collected by middlemen and sold to aquaculture shrimp farms for maturation.

⁶²³ Gillett, R. *FAO Fisheries Technical Paper No. 475: Global Study of Shrimp Fisheries*. Food and Agricultural Organization of the UN. 2008. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/011/i0300e/i0300e00.HTM>

Most shrimp farms in Bangladesh and Thailand are relatively small and are owned by families or businesses with few employees. At shrimp farms in Thailand, the shrimp may be fed fish meal originating from trawlers with forced labor.

When the shrimp are grown, they are then sold either directly to processors, exporting companies or retailers, or via local middlemen.⁶²⁴ In some cases, processing companies subcontract work to “pre-processing” facilities known as ‘peeling sheds.’ Workers at the highly unregulated peeling sheds “remove the heads, veins and hard shell of shrimp and prepare it for secondary or value added processing.”⁶²⁵

Depending on whether “pre-processing” facilities are used, processing factories may be required to remove the heads, veins and shells, before freezing, cooking, breading, packaging or otherwise processing the fish product. Many workers at shrimp processing facilities in Asia are contracted workers.

After processing, most shrimp is exported. In the United States, most shrimp is imported via wholesalers and then purchased by manufacturers and retailers who provide it to customers.⁶²⁶

How do trafficking and/or child labor in shrimp production affect me?



Shrimp is the most consumed seafood in the United States.⁶²⁷ America is the world’s largest consumer of shrimp, and over 80 percent is imported from countries including China, Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, Ecuador, India, and Bangladesh.⁶²⁸ Thailand, where human trafficking has been documented, is the world’s largest exporter of shrimp as of 2013 – although Early Mortality Syndrome, a bacteria-causing disease affecting shrimp, has severely affected supply.⁶²⁹ Globally, shrimp is a commodity in high demand, particularly in developed countries such as European countries and Japan (Accenture).

⁶²⁴International Labor Organization (ILO). *The Shrimp Supply Chain*. April 9, 2014.
http://www.ilo.org/asia/WCMS_240724/lang--en/index.htm

⁶²⁵Environmental Justice Foundation. *Impossibly Cheap: Abuse and Injustice in Bangladesh’s Shrimp Industry*. January 2014.
http://ejfoundation.org/sites/default/files/public/Impossibly_Cheap_Web.pdf

⁶²⁶Accenture. *Exploitative Labor Practices in the Global Shrimp Industry*.
https://www.motherjones.com/files/accenture_shrimp_report.pdf

⁶²⁷National Oceanic and Atmospheric Fisheries (NOAA). Surprising Facts About Your Favorite Seafoods.
http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/aquaculture/homepage_stories/09_13_12_top_seafood_consumed.html

⁶²⁸U.S. Department of Agriculture. “Aquaculture Data US Shrimp Imports, Volume by Selected Sources (1,000 pounds).” 2011. <http://www.ers.usda.gov/data/aquaculture/ShrimpImportsVolume.htm>

⁶²⁹Kurtz, Annalyn. “Shrimp Shortage Leads to Record High Prices.” *CNN*. August 16, 2013.
<http://money.cnn.com/2013/08/16/news/economy/shrimp-prices/>

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The International Labor Organization's International Program on the Elimination of Child Labor (IPEC) and the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of International Labor Affairs (ILAB) are currently working to eliminate the worst forms of child labor in Thailand's shrimp industry. This partnership project addresses "the need for effective implementation of policy applying to labor protection, migration, education and social protection." There is a focus on "governance, working conditions and regulation of the shrimp industry supply chain." The project fills "gaps in the provision of education and social services for vulnerable Thai and migrant communities in the shrimp and seafood production and processing areas" as well. In a project ending in December 2014, IPEC and the ILAB worked with the Government of Thailand's Ministries of Labor and Agriculture, the Thai Frozen Foods Association (TFFA), and worker's organizations.

ILAB has also provided a number of grants to the ILO and other organizations in Thailand and other parts of South East Asia to fund projects to combat forced labor, including projects focused on the shrimp industry. In addition, the U.S. State Department's Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons has a standing award with the International Organization for Migration under which the State Department has assisted in the return of victims of forced labor in the seafood industry back to their homes and reintegrate in their communities – including victims found in Thailand and those abandoned on Indonesian islands.

Concern centered on health and safety in global shrimp suppliers has driven demand for increased visibility in shrimp supply chains. Several groups have developed voluntary, third-party certification schemes for shrimp including the GlobalGAP Integrated Farm Assurance Standards, the ASC Shrimp Standards and the Best Aquacultural Practices (BAP) Standards. In a review of these standards, Accenture noted that while all met quality and food safety standards set by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, the GlobalGAP and BAP systems "include standards on health and safety, but they largely fail to address other key labor issues." In terms of applicability to the length of the shrimp supply chain, Accenture notes that while the "BAP standards have modules that target hatcheries, shrimp aquaculture operations, and processing facilities, with processing facilities standards most heavily adopted, GlobalGAP and ASC standards focus specifically on aquaculture operations."⁶³⁰

U.S. and U.K. retailers also created a task force and teamed up with Thai shrimp producers to address weaknesses in the shrimp supply chain management in several of Thailand's biggest shrimp production and export companies. In addition to examining documentation systems and installing new standards and practices, they are also trying to address issues in fishing management at ports and on trawlers with the hope that improvements will shed light on forced labor and restrict purchases from employers using forced labor at any stage in the supply chain. The task force is also liaising with the Thai government on needed reforms in the fishing industry.

⁶³⁰ Accenture. *Exploitative Labor Practices in the Global Shrimp Industry*.
https://www.motherjones.com/files/accenture_shrimp_report.pdf

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video or [read](#) a report by the Solidarity Center on labor abuses in shrimp and seafood processing in Thailand.

[Read](#) a report by the Environmental Justice Foundation on human rights abuses throughout South East Asia.

[Read](#) a detailed report on shrimp catching and associated environmental issues by the FAO.

[Read](#) Verité's full report on forced labor indicators in Bangladesh's Shrimp industry.

Silk



Silk is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export silk worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports silk (UN Comtrade 2012):
India (CL) Uzbekistan (CL)	1. China 2. Italy 3. India 4. Japan 5. Germany 6. South Korea 7. France 8. Hong Kong 9. Romania 10. Vietnam	1. China 2. India 3. South Korea 4. Italy 5. United Kingdom 6. Thailand 7. France 8. Japan 9. Germany 10. Switzerland

Where is silk reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, silk is produced using child labor in India. Media and other reports note that silk may be produced in Uzbekistan using child labor.⁶³¹

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists India as a Tier 2 country. Uzbekistan is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country.⁶³²

⁶³¹Central Asia Economy Newswire. "Uzbek Children Breed Silkworms Despite Child Labor Ban." September 6, 2010. <http://centralasianewswire.com/Business/Uzbek-children-breed-silkworms-despite-child-labor-ban/viewstory.aspx?id=1614>.

⁶³² U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in silk production look like?

In India, silk thread and fabric, particularly saris, may be produced using bonded child labor. Bonded child labor occurs when the labor of a child is pledged to an employer in exchange for a payment, or loan.⁶³³ Once these children are bonded to employers they are obliged to remain working for an uncertain amount of time.⁶³⁴ Dalits and low-caste Hindus are also especially vulnerable to this practice.⁶³⁵ Nallanayaki, a thirteen year old in the Indian state of Tamil Nadu is an example of a child in bonded labor in the silk industry. At age nine, her parents took a loan from an employer at a silk weaving factory and since then, Nallanayaki has been working seven days a week to pay it back. However, she is only paid seventeen cents a day and thus will not make enough money to buy her freedom in her lifetime. The debt will most likely be passed on to her children. In Uzbekistan, children are still employed in silkworm cultivation despite an official ban against child labor.⁶³⁶ However, according to the U.S. Department of Labor, the extent of this problem is unknown due to lack of data collection and law enforcement by the government.⁶³⁷ Children in Uzbekistan tasked with cultivating silkworms may work from 4 a.m. until midnight, picking mulberry leaves and caring for the silkworms. This can lead to sleep deprivation and interfere with childhood education. The U.S. Department of Labor report states that these conditions may constitute forced labor, as farmers must meet strict government quotas for silk production or incur fines or even violence from local officials.⁶³⁸

Silk Production and Supply Chain:

Cultivating silkworms is a long process, which takes place during the entire month of May. During this time, the silkworms must be painstakingly cared for and need to be fed every few hours or they may starve. The area in which they are held must also be kept at a certain temperature. After the silkworms have eaten mulberry leaves for about 25 days, they enclose themselves in cocoons for two to three hours. When they are placed in hot water, “the silkworm pupae dies and approximately 1000 yards of silk filament per cocoon are obtained.”⁶³⁹

Thailand, the United Arab Emirates, Italy, and India all purchase silk, and, especially in India where silk is necessary for traditional clothing, the demand for silk often exceeds the supply. The United States has a smaller market for raw silk, but a higher demand for finished silk products. Twenty percent of the global silk supply is produced in India.⁶⁴⁰

⁶³³ U.S. Department of Labor. *Forced and Bonded Child Labor*. <http://www.dol.gov/ILAB/media/reports/iclp/sweat2/bonded.htm>

⁶³⁴ U.S. Department of Labor. *Forced and Bonded Child Labor*. <http://www.dol.gov/ILAB/media/reports/iclp/sweat2/bonded.htm>

⁶³⁵ Human Rights Watch. *Small Change: Bonded Child Labor in India's Silk Industry*. 2003. <http://www.hrw.org/reports/2003/india/india0103.pdf>

⁶³⁶ Universal Newswires. “Uzbek Children Breed Silkworms Despite Child Labor Ban.” September 6, 2010. <http://www.universalnewswires.com/centralasia/viewstory.aspx?id=1614>

⁶³⁷ U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs. *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Uzbekistan*. 2012. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/uzbekistan.htm>

⁶³⁸ U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs. *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Uzbekistan*. 2012. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/uzbekistan.htm>

⁶³⁹ Haksöz, Çagri, Sridhar Seshadri and Ananth V. Iyer. *Managing Supply Chains on the Silk Road: Strategy, Performance, and Risk*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC, 2012. Print.

⁶⁴⁰ Miles, Robert. Mintec Ltd. “The Silk Road: Are People Seeking Luxury Goods Again?” *Spend Matters*. August 6, 2012. <http://spendmatters.com/2012/08/06/the-silk-road-are-people-seeking-luxury-goods-again/>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in silk production affect me?



Raw silk is made into silk thread, which is then used to make silk fabric. Silk fabric is used in a variety of products including clothing, accessories, and many other commodities. Although silk currently represents only 0.2 percent by volume of global textiles trade, there are signs that the demand for such luxury goods is increasing.⁶⁴¹

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In partnership with Karnataka state, the ILO has implemented the Self Help Group program, which trains the mothers of child laborers in the silk industry. The mothers are taught about saving and managing money, as well as how to avoid worst forms of child labor. Mothers are also taught how to seek microloans to invest in their own businesses, providing them with livelihood opportunities.⁶⁴²

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) an article by The Washington Times about child labor in Uzbekistan.

[See](#) how an NGO has created self-help groups for child laborers in the silk industry.

⁶⁴¹ Miles, Robert. Mintec Ltd. "The Silk Road: Are People Seeking Luxury Goods Again?" *Spend Matters*. August 6, 2012. <http://spendmatters.com/2012/08/06/the-silk-road-are-people-seeking-luxury-goods-again/>

⁶⁴² International Labour Organization (ILO) TV. "India: Finding a Voice in the Silk Industry." *YouTube*. September 22, 2009. <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NpMBY1ZRAa4>

Silver



Silver is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export silver worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports silver (UN Comtrade 2012):
Bolivia (CL) Peru (CL) Philippines (CL)	1. Japan 2. Mexico 3. Hong Kong 4. South Korea 5. Germany 6. United States 7. Canada 8. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified) 9. United Kingdom 10. Belgium	1. Mexico 2. Canada 3. Japan 4. Peru 5. Italy 6. Chile 7. South Korea 8. Guatemala 9. Switzerland 10. Poland

Where is silver reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, silver is mined using child labor in Bolivia.⁶⁴³ According to the Global March International Secretariat, child labor is used in silver production in Peru and the Philippines as well.⁶⁴⁴

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Peru and the Philippines as Tier 2 countries. Bolivia is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country.⁶⁴⁵

⁶⁴³ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

⁶⁴⁴ Global March International Secretariat. "Children Engaged in Unsafe Mining." 2011. <http://www.globalmarch.org/content/children-engaged-unsafe-mining>

⁶⁴⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in silver production look like?

Children mine silver in Bolivia in artisanal mines or mines abandoned by commercial mining companies. Children, known as ‘*jucus*,’ are engaged in pushing carts, drilling, and extracting and cleaning ore. Children and adults working in clandestine mines work without adequate safety equipment, ventilation or proper lighting. They are vulnerable to illness, lung damage from dust, repetitive motion stress injuries, and injuries from falls and carrying heavy loads. They work long hours as well.⁶⁴⁶ Many mining sites are hundreds of years old and poorly maintained, so workers are also at risk of death in collapsing mine shafts.⁶⁴⁷ In 2008, at least 60 children died from mine collapse. An estimated 3,000 children, some as young as six, work in mining in Bolivia.⁶⁴⁸

Child labor in silver production in Bolivia is specifically linked to mines in Potosí, where children toil for extremely low wages.^{649 650}

In Peru, the world’s second-largest silver producer, 20 to 50 percent of all mine workers are juveniles and children, sometimes as young as eleven.⁶⁵¹ Child miners in Peru are often unpaid. Instead, of being paid regularly, the children work for free for a certain amount of time and are then allowed to mine for themselves as a reward.⁶⁵²

Silver Production and Supply Chain:

Most silver that is on the market does not come from silver mines, but as byproducts of industrial copper, zinc, and gold mining (See Gold, Zinc, and Copper Commodity Reports). In 2005, 30 percent of silver on the market came directly from silver mines. In 2008, over 20 percent of new silver came from recycled sources.⁶⁵³

⁶⁴⁶ World Vision. *[Bolivia] If You Fall, No One’s Gonna Carry You Out: Children Who Work in Tin Mines*. 2007.

[http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/\\$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf](http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf)

⁶⁴⁷ Forrero, Juan. “As Bolivian Miners Die, Boys Are Left to Toil.” *New York Times*. March 24, 2003.

<http://www.nytimes.com/2003/03/24/world/as-bolivian-miners-die-boys-are-left-to-toil.html>

⁶⁴⁸ National Public Radio (NPR). “Thousands Of Children As Young As 6 Work In Bolivia’s Mines.” November 30, 2013

<http://www.npr.org/2013/11/30/247967228/thousands-of-children-as-young-as-6-work-in-bolivia-s-mines>

⁶⁴⁹ Schipani, Andres. “Plight of Bolivia’s Child Miners.” *BBC*. June 14, 2008. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/7448032.stm>

⁶⁵⁰ Davison,Dir Kief and Ladkani, Richard. *The Devil’s Miner*. 2005. Film.

<http://www.pbs.org/independentlens/devilsminer/mountain.html>

⁶⁵¹ Global March International Secretariat. “Children Engaged in Unsafe Mining.” 2011.

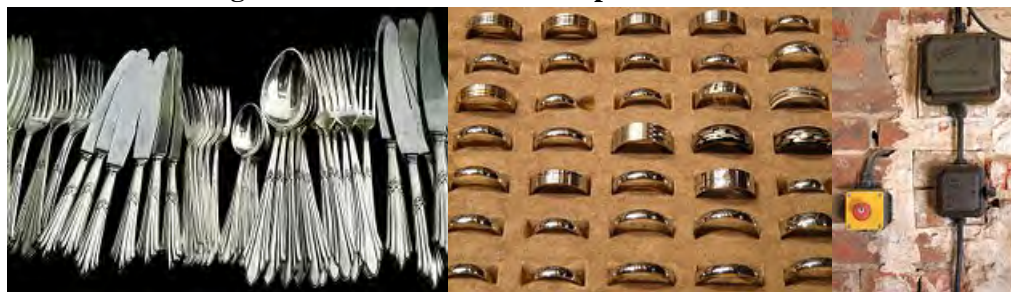
<http://www.globalmarch.org/content/children-engaged-unsafe-mining>

⁶⁵² Hastings, Deborah. “Held as Slaves, Children in Peru Forced to Work in Mines that Produce Much of World’s Gold.” *NY Daily News*. 2014. <http://www.nydailynews.com/news/world/child-labor-sex-slaves-peru-gold-mines-article-1.1610110>

⁶⁵³ Lee, Matilda. “Can Silver Ever be Ethical?” *Green Living / Fashion. Ecologist*. March 1, 2009.

http://www.theecologist.org/green_green_living/clothing/270580/can_silver_ever_be_ethical.html

How do trafficking and/or child labor in silver production affect me?



Silver has a wide variety of applications including in coins, electrical switches and fuses, car defrosters, jewelry, tableware, musical instruments, mirrors, health industry, and in photography.⁶⁵⁴

In 2010, the United States imported USD 73.3 million in alloyed bars of silver from Bolivia. The United States also imported USD 75.6 million in alloyed and pure bars of silver from Peru in 2010. This accounts for more than four percent of the U.S.'s total silver imports.⁶⁵⁵

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The Initiative for Responsible Mining Assurance (IRMA) is a multi-stakeholder initiative that is working to establish standards for socially and environmentally ethical mining operations, including silver. As of May 2015, IRMA was actively developing its standards. IRMA expects to launch its certification process in 2016.⁶⁵⁶

Where can I learn more?

[Take a look](#) at this photo essay about children working in mines at Potosí, Bolivia.

[Watch](#) this video of the Potosí silver mines.

⁶⁵⁴ Australian Mines Atlas. "Uses of Silver." http://www.australianminesatlas.gov.au/education/down_under/silver/used.html

⁶⁵⁵ Index Mundi. "US Imports for Consumption of Silver, by Country." 2011.

http://www.indexmundi.com/en/commodities/minerals/silver/silver_t6.html

⁶⁵⁶ Initiative for Responsible Mining Assurance. *Frequently Asked Questions*. <http://www.responsiblemining.net/the-irma-process/faqs/>

Steel



Steel and/or iron is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:

Top ten countries that export steel and iron worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):

Top ten countries from which the US imports steel and iron (UN Comtrade 2012):

Steel

India (FL)

Iron:

North Korea (FL)

Furniture (Steel):

Bangladesh (CL)

Iron:

India (CL)

Charcoal production for Pig Iron Brazil (CL, FL)

Steel and Iron:

1. Japan
2. China
3. Germany
4. South Korea
5. United States
6. Russia
7. Belgium
8. France
9. Italy
10. Ukraine

Steel and Iron:

1. Canada
2. Brazil
3. Russia
4. Mexico
5. Japan
6. South Korea
7. China
8. Germany
9. Italy
10. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified)

Where is steel reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* notes that steel is produced with forced labor or forced child labor in India.⁶⁵⁷

⁶⁵⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

The key ingredient in steel is iron.⁶⁵⁸ According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, iron is mined with forced labor in North Korea.⁶⁵⁹ There is limited information of child labor in iron mines in India as well.⁶⁶⁰ In Mexico, much of the iron ore trade is reportedly controlled by the drug cartel, the Knights Templar. Iron mined in Mexico is traded or smuggled into Chinese steel production.⁶⁶¹

Coal is commonly used in the process of converting iron to steel – about 70 percent of steel made today uses coal in production.⁶⁶² According to the U.S. Department of Labor, coal is produced with forced labor in China and North Korea; with forced labor and child labor in Pakistan; and with child labor in Afghanistan, Colombia, Mongolia, and Ukraine.⁶⁶³

Pig iron, a form of iron that has been smelted with a highly carbonized heat fuel such as charcoal, is commonly turned into steel and used by car companies. In Brazil, the charcoal used to smelt iron into pig iron is produced with forced labor.⁶⁶⁴ Please see the [Charcoal](#) commodity report for more information.

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, children are involved in steel furniture production in Bangladesh.⁶⁶⁵

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Bangladesh, India and Zambia as Tier 2 countries. Guyana is listed as a Tier 2 Watch List country. North Korea is listed as a Tier 3 country.⁶⁶⁶

What does trafficking and/or child labor in steel production look like?

Workers producing charcoal for pig iron production in Brazil are reportedly recruited with promises of well-paid jobs, but once on the ranches that produce charcoal, they may be held on site by armed guards.⁶⁶⁷ Workers are also subjected to the health risks associated with pig iron production, particularly when producing charcoal. One such risk is Silicosis, a disease that can be caused by charcoal dust continuously

⁶⁵⁸ World Steel Association. *About Steel*. <http://www.worldsteel.org/faq/about-steel.html>

⁶⁵⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁶⁶⁰ Sinha, Shantha et al. *Our Mining Children: A Report of the Fact Finding Team on the Child Labourers in the Iron Ore and Granite Mines in Bellary District of Karnataka*. April 2005. http://www.stopdetskepraci.cz/download/pdf/documents_9.pdf

⁶⁶¹ Graham, Dave. “Chinese Iron Trade Fuels Port Clash with Mexican Drug Cartel.” *Reuters*. January 1, 2014. <http://www.reuters.com/article/2014/01/01/us-mexico-drugs-port-idUSBREA000EG20140101>

⁶⁶² World Coal Association. *World Steel Statistics*. 2013. <http://www.worldcoal.org/resources/coal-statistics/coal-steel-statistics/>

⁶⁶³ U.S. Department of Labor. 2013 *Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/2013tda/2013tda.pdf>

⁶⁶⁴ Smith, Michael and David Voreacos. “Slaves in Amazon Forced to Make Material Used in Cars.” *Bloomberg*. 2006. <http://www.bloomberg.com/apps/news?pid=newsarchive&sid=a4j1VKZq34TM>

⁶⁶⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁶⁶⁶ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁶⁷ Osava, Mario. “Rights-Brazil: Fighting Slave Labour in Charcoal Industry.” *Inter Press Service*. August 17, 2004. <http://www.ipsnews.net/2004/08/rights-brazil-fighting-slave-labour-in-charcoal-industry/>

entering the lungs.⁶⁶⁸ Silicosis can lead to shortness of breath, fits of coughing, and fever. The Centers for Disease control report that silicosis can also lead to death.⁶⁶⁹

In some regions of Mexico where drug cartels control much of the iron ore mining operations, labor protections are significantly degraded. According to David Franco, Principal Latin America Analyst at Maplecroft, legitimate mining operations “are being forced to compete in an uneven playing field against rogue groups that do not abide by labor or other laws.”⁶⁷⁰ Verité’s experience in other regions suggests that when sectors are dominated by organized crime, there is a high likelihood of violence, human trafficking, and other human rights abuses.

The southern Indian state of Karnataka produces about 45 million tons of iron ore a year, much of which is a product of illegal mining. A 2012 report from Human Rights Watch (HRW) noted that the mining sector in India has very low levels of government oversight and regulatory mechanisms, allowing the mining companies to operate with high degrees of criminality, leading to human and labor rights abuses, including reported child labor.⁶⁷¹

Forced labor in coal mining in China occurs in prison or “re-education camps.” Up to 100,000 prisoners – many of whom are convicted of minor crimes – are reported to work in coal mines in China in extremely hazardous conditions for no compensation. Fatal accidents such as mine flooding and gas explosions have drawn attention to the practice.⁶⁷²

Children reportedly work in forced labor in coal mining in Pakistan, generally under bonded labor schemes. The U.S. Department of Labor reports that “children bonded in coal mining often use donkeys to haul coal to the surface and are vulnerable to multiple dangers, including sexual abuse by miners.”⁶⁷³

Steel Production and Supply Chain:

Steel is an alloy made mostly of iron. Mined iron ore must be converted or reduced using carbon. The carbon used in this process is usually in the form of coking coal. Coking coal is converted to carbon through a cooking process.⁶⁷⁴

⁶⁶⁸ Jaffe, Maureen E., Monica Mills, Sonia A. Rosen and Robert B. Shepard. *By the Sweat and Toil of Children: The Use of Child Labor in US Agricultural Imports and Forced and Bonded Child Labor*. 1995. US Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs. <http://books.google.com/books?id=qVGhAXPwg-MC&pg=PA118&lpg=PA118&dq=silicosis+charcoal&source=bl&ots=Mle8AJIARg&sig=tWNHXslceey5XibBp7TB2GpS-S4&hl=en&sa=X&ei=cTVhU6e9M6LjsASFmoCgAw&ved=0CE4Q6AEwBg#v=onepage&q=silicosis%20charcoal&f=false>

⁶⁶⁹ Centers for Disease Control. Preventing Silicosis Death from Sandblasting. 1992. <http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/docs/92-102/>

⁶⁷⁰ Vella, Heidi. *Cartel Culture – Mexico’s War Against Illegal Mining*. May 27, 2014. *Mining-Technology.com*. <http://www.mining-technology.com/features/featurecartel-culture-mexicos-war-against-illegal-mining-4276223/>

⁶⁷¹ Human Rights Watch. *Out of Control: Mining, Regulatory Failure and Human Rights in India*. 2012. http://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/india0612ForUpload_0.pdf

Iron Metallics Association. *Pig Iron: An Overview*. <http://metallics.org.uk/pigiron/>

⁶⁷² China Labour Bulletin. “Forced-Labour Prisoners Die in Coal Mine Accident.” October 18, 2006. <http://www.clb.org.hk/en/content/forced-labour-prisoners-die-coal-mine-accident>

⁶⁷³ U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Pakistan*. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/2013TDA/pakistan.pdf>

⁶⁷⁴ World Coal Association. *World Steel Statistics*. 2013. <http://www.worldcoal.org/resources/coal-statistics/coal-steel-statistics/>

Another common method of producing steel is through the use of pig iron. In order to produce pig iron, iron ore, a carbon fuel, and usually limestone as a flux must be put into a furnace and heated at very high temperatures. The pig iron is then exposed to a strong current of air that oxidizes the dissolved impurities, resulting in steel.⁶⁷⁵

How do trafficking and/or child labor in steel production affect me?



According to the World Coal Association, the United States is the second largest user of steel in the world, using 97 metric tons in 2012.⁶⁷⁶

Steel is used in a wide variety of sectors such as aerospace, household appliances, road and railway construction, building construction in the form of steel skeletons or reinforcements, automobiles, and construction materials such as bolts, nails and screws. Other uses include shipbuilding, mining, heavy equipment, office furniture, tools, and personal and vehicle armor.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

One of the most successful steps taken in limiting human trafficking in pig iron production in Brazil has been the establishment of the Citizen's Charcoal Institute (ICC). The ICC is responsible for organizing and conducting site visits in several areas in Brazil and reporting any abnormal findings that they come across. They attempt to work with the suppliers to bring them into compliance with the rules that the ICC has laid out for suppliers to follow.⁶⁷⁷

In 2014, fifteen Brazilian companies entered into a stakeholder program that required the companies to commit to taking the necessary steps to combat human trafficking in their supply chains.⁶⁷⁸

In 2006, Ford discovered that charcoal made with human trafficking was being used to make the pig iron in its supply chain. The pig iron was being produced in remote areas in Brazil near the Amazon, where it was difficult to regulate the work practices occurring at the site. Upon learning that human trafficking was present in the supply chain of their steel, Ford immediately stopped sourcing from the site that was identified in the investigation. Ford then contacted all of their suppliers and assisted them in developing management systems that would help them avoid purchasing pig iron tainted with trafficking. Ford also identified all

⁶⁷⁵ Interstahl. *Pig Iron Production*. <http://www.interstahl.com/en/info-about-steel-a-iron/pig-iron-production.html>

⁶⁷⁶ World Coal Association. *World Steel Statistics*. 2013. <http://www.worldcoal.org/resources/coal-statistics/coal-steel-statistics/>

⁶⁷⁷ Human Rights and Business Dilemmas Forum. *Combating Slave Labor in the Brazilian Charcoal and Steel Sector*. http://human-rights.unglobalcompact.org/case_studies/forced-labour/forced_labour/combating_slave_labour_in_the_brazilian_charcoal_and_steel_sector.html#.U2EzPfldX1w

⁶⁷⁸ Human Rights and Business Dilemmas Forum. *Combating Slave Labor in the Brazilian Charcoal and Steel Sector*. http://human-rights.unglobalcompact.org/case_studies/forced-labour/forced_labour/combating_slave_labour_in_the_brazilian_charcoal_and_steel_sector.html#.U2EzPfldX1w

potential points of entry for pig iron, a process which included mapping up to six levels of suppliers, such as importers, exporters, and trading companies. First tier suppliers were asked to clarify details on human rights processes throughout their operations.⁶⁷⁹

Where can I learn more?

[Read more](#) on pig iron in Brazil.

⁶⁷⁹ *Ford Sustainability Report*. 2010-2011. http://www.socialfunds.com/shared/reports/1308487118_Ford_2010-11_Sustainability_Report.pdf

Strawberries



Strawberries are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce strawberries worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export strawberries worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports strawberries (UN Comtrade 2012):
Argentina (CL) United States (CL)	1. United States 2. Mexico 3. Turkey 4. Spain 5. Egypt 6. South Korea 7. Japan 8. Russia 9. Germany 10. Poland	1. Spain 2. United States 3. Mexico 4. Netherlands 5. Belgium 6. Greece 7. Egypt 8. Morocco 9. Turkey 10. France	1. Mexico 2. Canada 3. Peru 4. Chile 5. Netherlands 6. Spain 7. Belgium 8. Italy

Where are strawberries reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* notes an incidence of migrant workers on a strawberry farm in Greece denied pay for six months, although the broader scope of exploitation in the country is unknown.⁶⁸⁰

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, strawberries are harvested with child labor in Argentina.⁶⁸¹

⁶⁸⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁸¹ U.S. Department of Labor. *2014 List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014 http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRA_Report2014.pdf

There are accounts of child labor and exploitation, as well as indicators of forced labor, in strawberry harvesting in the United States.⁶⁸²

Mexico, which accounts for 95 percent of United States imports of strawberries, has high rates of child labor in agriculture.⁶⁸³ There is limited evidence linking child labor directly to strawberries, however.⁶⁸⁴

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Argentina, Greece, and Mexico as Tier 2 countries. The United States is listed as a Tier 1 country.⁶⁸⁵

What does trafficking and/or child labor in strawberry production look like?

Child laborers who work in the agricultural sector of Argentina harvest tobacco, tomatoes, strawberries, tea, and garlic, among other crops.⁶⁸⁶ Children working in the agricultural sector may be exposed to harmful pesticides and long work days. According to Lucrecia Teixidó at the University of Buenos Aires, children are preferred as harvesters because their small hands don't leave marks on the fruit. This preference is well known as there is even a prize for "best small harvester of the year." Teixidó reports that a five year old girl won the award in 2007.⁶⁸⁷ In the Bajío Valley of Mexico, children picking strawberries work long hours barefoot in wet mud. While most of the harvesting is done in the summertime, children continue to work in the fields in the afternoons during the school year.

Many of the child workers in Argentina are undocumented migrants from Bolivia and Paraguay.⁶⁸⁸

Although few studies link child labor specifically to strawberry harvesting in Mexico, child labor is reportedly rampant across Mexican agricultural sectors. In 2012, it was reported that over 711,600 children and adolescents were working in agriculture in Mexico, 86 percent of whom did not attend

⁶⁸² Patel, Avni. "Who's Picking Your Berries: Feds Find Young Children on Strawberry Farms." *ABC News*. August 11, 2011. <http://abcnews.go.com/Blotter/feds-find-young-children-working-strawberry-farms/story?id=14281166>
Gonzales, John Moreno. "FBI Probes Treatment of Mexican Workers in L.A." *The San Francisco Chronicle*. 10 December 2008. As cited in Verité. Help Wanted. *Immigrant Workers in US Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. June 2010.

https://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

⁶⁸³ NorteSur, Frontera. "UN Official Slams Child Labor in Mexico." *Media Watch*. May 3, 2007.

<http://www.mexidata.info/id1281.html>

Boriss, Hayley, Henrich Brunke and Marcia Kreith. *Commodity Strawberry Profile*. Agricultural Issues Center, University of California. March 2006 (Updated in 2014 by Naeve,

Linda). http://www.agmrc.org/commodities_products/fruits/strawberries/commodity-strawberry-profile/

⁶⁸⁴ Marosi, Richard. "In Mexico's Fields, Children Toil to Harvest Crops that Make it to America's Tables." *Los Angeles Times*. December 14, 2014.

⁶⁸⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁶⁸⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. *2011 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor*. 2011.

<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/2011TDA.pdf>

U.S. Department of Labor. *2004 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor. Argentina*. 2004.

<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/media/reports/iclp/tda2004/argentina.htm>

⁶⁸⁷ Lombana, Jahir. "Argentina: More Efficient Policies to Fight against Child Labour." *Fresh Plaza*. July 17, 2007.

http://www.freshplaza.com/news_detail.asp?id=4769

⁶⁸⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. *2004 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor. Argentina*. 2004.

<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/media/reports/iclp/tda2004/argentina.htm>

school and 72 percent of whom worked for no pay.⁶⁸⁹ In 2009, a Mexican senator reported that approximately 30 percent of Mexico's five million agricultural day laborers were children and adolescents from indigenous or peasant families.⁶⁹⁰ The United Nations' Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants reported that there were 12 documented deaths of migrant children working in agricultural harvests in northern Mexico in 2006, and criticized the Mexican government for being indifferent to child labor in the agricultural sector.⁶⁹¹

In the United States, strawberry harvesting is highly dependent on migrant workers due to the time sensitive nature of the harvest.⁶⁹² Children of migrant workers may accompany their parents to the fields, particularly when they are not enrolled in school. Further, strawberry harvesters are often paid a piece-rate wage, which means that slower workers may struggle to make minimum wage. Children may work in strawberry harvesting to augment family income.⁶⁹³

In a case of Mexican workers in Louisiana strawberry fields (owned by Bimbo's Best Produce), the FBI reported that workers had their passports confiscated, and that supervisors carried shotguns to keep workers fearful.⁶⁹⁴

Strawberry Production and Supply Chain:

After harvesting, strawberries are either frozen or shipped directly to companies, who further process the berries or deliver them as-is to retailers, restaurants, institutions, or other organizations. If the strawberries are processed, they are made into syrups, jams, and juices.⁶⁹⁵

⁶⁸⁹ Muñoz Ríos, Patricia. "Trabajo Infantil Agrícola, una Suerte de Esclavitud Moderna: Especialistas [Agricultural Child Labor, a Kind of Modern Slavery, Say Experts]." *La Jornada*. March 27, 2012.

<http://www.jornada.unam.mx/2012/03/27/sociedad/041n2soc>

⁶⁹⁰ Gobierno de México. Senado de la República. *De la Comisión de Atención a Grupos Vulnerables, el que contiene punto de acuerdo: Por el que se exhorta a la Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social a informar sobre su actuación en torno a los percances donde han sido víctimas niños jornaleros*. Abril, 2009.

<http://www.senado.gob.mx/gace61.php?ver=gaceta&sm=1001&id=13161&lg=60>

⁶⁹¹ NorteSur, Frontera. "UN Official Slams Child Labor in Mexico." *Media Watch*. May 3, 2007.

<http://www.mexidata.info/id1281.html>

Whitaker, Bill. "Farmer Says His Strawberry Harvest Depends on Immigration Bill." *CBS News*. April 11, 2013.

<http://www.cbsnews.com/news/farmer-says-his-strawberry-harvest-depends-on-immigration-bill/>

⁶⁹² Whitaker, Bill. "Farmer Says His Strawberry Harvest Depends on Immigration Bill." *CBS News*. April 11, 2013.

<http://www.cbsnews.com/news/farmer-says-his-strawberry-harvest-depends-on-immigration-bill/>

⁶⁹³ Patel, Avni. "Who's Picking Your Berries: Feds Find Young Children on Strawberry Farms." *ABC News*. August 11, 2011.

<http://abcnews.go.com/Blotter/feds-find-young-children-working-strawberry-farms/story?id=14281166>

⁶⁹⁴ Gonzales, John Moreno. "FBI Probes Treatment of Mexican Workers in LA." *The San Francisco Chronicle*. 10 December 2008. As cited in Verité. Help Wanted. *Immigrant Workers in US Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. June 2010.

https://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

⁶⁹⁵ Community Food Security Coalition. *Leveraging Institutional Dollars for a Just and Healthy Food System - Strawberry Supply Chain*. June 28, 2013.

<http://www.slideshare.net/cfsc/strawberry-supply-chain-1-pager>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in strawberry production affect me?



Strawberries are the fifth most consumed fresh fruit in the United States.⁶⁹⁶ In 2012, the United States was one of the largest importers of fresh strawberries, importing 351.27 million pounds.⁶⁹⁷

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

In Argentina, a network of businesses and NGOs coordinates to reduce child labor in agricultural sectors, particularly in cases where children are working alongside their families. Identified child laborers are provided with educational and recreational opportunities.⁶⁹⁸

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) this video on child labor in strawberry fields in Washington (U.S.).

⁶⁹⁶ Boriss, Hayley, Henrich Brunke and Marcia Kreith. *Commodity Strawberry Profile*. Agricultural Issues Center, University of California. March 2006 (Updated in 2014 by Naeve, Linda).

http://www.agmrc.org/commodities_products/fruits/strawberries/commodity-strawberry-profile/

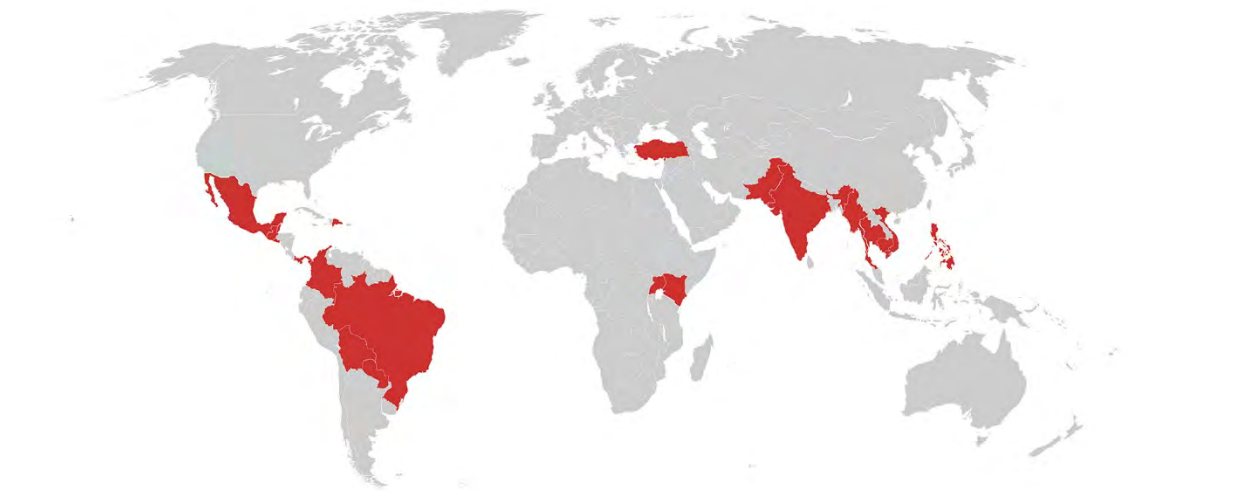
⁶⁹⁷ U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Monthly US Imports of Fresh Strawberries, 1989–2012*. 2012.

<http://usda.mannlib.cornell.edu/MannUsda/viewDocumentInfo.do?documentID=1381>

⁶⁹⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor. Argentina*. 2013.

<http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/argentina.htm>

Sugar



Sugar is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce sugar worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export sugar worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015):⁶⁹⁹	Top ten countries that import sugar worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015):⁷⁰⁰
Belize (CL)	1. Brazil	1. Brazil	1. United States
Bolivia (FL, CL)	2. India	2. Thailand	2. China
Brazil (FL)	3. China	3. India	3. Indonesia
Burma (FL, CL)	4. Thailand	4. France	4. Bangladesh
Cambodia (CL)	5. Pakistan	5. Guatemala	5. Malaysia
Colombia (CL)	6. Mexico	6. Mexico	6. Algeria
Dominican Republic (FL, CL)	7. Colombia	7. Germany	7. Republic of Korea
El Salvador (CL)	8. Australia	8. Cuba	8. Italy
Guatemala (CL)	9. Indonesia	9. Belgium	9. United Kingdom
India (CL)	10. United States	10. Colombia	10. United Arab Emirates
Kenya (CL)			
Mexico (CL)			
Pakistan (FL)			
Panama (CL)			
Paraguay (CL)			
The Philippines (CL)			
Thailand (CL)			
Uganda (CL)			
Vietnam (CL)			

⁶⁹⁹ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

⁷⁰⁰ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

Sugar Beets:
Turkey (CL)

Where is sugar reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, sugarcane is produced with forced labor in Brazil and Pakistan; with forced labor and child labor in Bolivia, Burma, and the Dominican Republic; and with child labor in Belize, Cambodia, Colombia, El Salvador, Guatemala, India, Kenya, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, the Philippines, Thailand, Uganda, and Vietnam.⁷⁰¹ Sugar beets are reportedly produced with child labor in Turkey.⁷⁰²

Verité research carried out in 2016 found evidence of trafficking risk among sugar harvesters in Guatemala.⁷⁰³

Colombia and the Philippines are listed as Tier 1 countries by the U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report*. The report lists Brazil, Cambodia, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, India, Kenya, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Turkey, Uganda and Vietnam as Tier 2 countries. Bolivia, Pakistan, and Thailand are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries. Belize and Burma are listed as Tier 3 countries.⁷⁰⁴

What does trafficking and/or child labor in sugar production look like?

In several locations, trafficking risk is tied to third-party labor recruitment. In Bolivia, indigenous workers from poor regions are recruited by labor brokers to migrate for the sugar harvest. Anti-Slavery International reports that these workers are given advances by their recruiters and are thereby prevented from leaving their job.⁷⁰⁵ Migrant workers in India sugar production also become indebted to labor brokers.⁷⁰⁶ They are provided advances for transportation and living expenses, to be repaid at the end of the harvest season.⁷⁰⁷ Due to high quotas as well as the disparity in power and information between brokers and workers, workers often end the season in debt, causing them to have to work the next season to pay off the debt. However, the vast majority interviewed in the study reported that they had changed brokers at least once, indicating

⁷⁰¹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016 <https://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/list-of-goods/>

⁷⁰² U.S. Department of Labor. 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016. <https://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/list-of-goods/>

⁷⁰³ Verité. *Research on Sugar in Guatemala*. Vision. January 2017. <https://www.verite.org/research-sugar-guatemala/>.

⁷⁰⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

⁷⁰⁵ Anti-Slavery International. *Contemporary Forms of Slavery in Bolivia*. 2016. http://www.antislavery.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/contemporary_forms_of_slavery_in_bolivia.pdf

⁷⁰⁶ Marius-Gnanou, Kamala. *Debt bondage, seasonal migration and alternative issues : lessons from Tamil Nadu India*. Autrepapart. 2008. <https://cairn.info/revue-autrepapart-2008-2-page-127.htm>

⁷⁰⁷ Guerin, Isabelle, Augendra Bhukut, Kamala Marius-Gnanou and G. Venkatasubramanian. "Neo-bondage, Seasonal Migration, and Job Brokers: Cane Cutters in Tamil Nadu." *India's Unfree Workforce: Of Bondage, Old and New*. Ed. Breman, Jan, Isabelle Guerin and Aseem Prakash. New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2009.

that the state of bondage is not permanent.⁷⁰⁸ Female migrant workers reportedly experienced rape and sexual assault perpetrated by labor brokers or landlords.⁷⁰⁹

Verité research on the sugar industry in the Dominican Republic found indicators of forced labor. Worker interviews indicated that some workers were physically confined to sugar plantations due to isolation, had limited access to information, and were made vulnerable by laws that restricted the movement of immigrant workers with identity cards.⁷¹⁰

Sugar presents significant work hazards in general. Burning fields prior to harvest is a common practice, intended to burn dry leaves and rid the area of pests, while leaving stalks and roots intact.⁷¹¹ This practice, however, can have cause significant respiratory distress for nearby residents.⁷¹² Other health hazards from hand harvesting include injuries from machetes, carrying heavy loads, exposure to pesticides, injuries from machinery, and heat exposure.⁷¹³

In early 2014, several sources reported an epidemic of severe kidney disease and death among men in Latin America who worked in sugar production.⁷¹⁴ Although the exact cause is unknown, studies indicate that it is likely caused by a combination of a lack of breaks, rest, and drinking water,⁷¹⁵ combined with exposure to pesticides,⁷¹⁶ long working hours, the use of painkillers to get through strenuous workdays,⁷¹⁷ and even the consumption of sugar itself.⁷¹⁸

⁷⁰⁸ Guerin, Isabelle, Augendra Bhukut, Kamala Marius-Gnanou and G. Venkatasubramanian. "Neo-bondage, Seasonal Migration, and Job Brokers: Cane Cutters in Tamil Nadu." *India's Unfree Workforce: Of Bondage, Old and New*. Ed. Breman, Jan, Isabelle Guerin and Aseem Prakash. New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2009.

⁷⁰⁹ Chandran, Rina. Reuters. « Sexual abuse plagues female workers on India's sugarcane fields." August 2, 2016. <http://www.reuters.com/article/us-india-women-abuse-idUSKCN10D1FN>

⁷¹⁰ Verité. *Research on Indicators of Forced Labor in the Supply Chain of Sugar in the Dominican Republic*.

https://www.verite.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Research-on-Indicators-of-Forced-Labor-in-the-Dominican-Republic-Sugar-Sector_9.18.pdf

⁷¹¹ Mager Stellman, Jeanne. International Labour Organization. *Encyclopaedia of Occupational Health and Safety: Industries and occupations*, Volume 3. 1998.

⁷¹² The impact of sugar cane-burning emissions on the respiratory system of children and the elderly.

Cançado JE, Saldiva PH, Pereira LA, Lara LB, Artaxo P, Martinelli LA, Arbex MA, Zanobetti A, Braga AL. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2006 May;114(5):725-9.

PMID: 16675427

⁷¹³ International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour Safety and Health Fact Sheet Hazardous Child Labour in Agriculture Sugarcane.

<https://ethicalsugar.files.wordpress.com/2014/02/ethical-suagr-sugarcane-and-child-labour.pdf>

⁷¹⁴ Beaubien, Jason. "Mysterious Kidney Disease Slays Farmworkers In Central America." National Public Radio (NPR). April 30, 2014. <http://www.npr.org/blogs/health/2014/04/30/306907097/mysterious-kidney-disease-slays-farmworkers-in-central-america>

⁷¹⁵ Laux, Timothy, et al. "Dialysis enrollment patterns in Guatemala: evidence of the chronic kidney disease of non-traditional causes epidemic in Mesoamerica." *BMC Nephrology*. April 14, 2015.

<http://bmcnephrol.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12882-015-0049-x>

⁷¹⁶ Shapiro, Lila. "A mysterious epidemic plaguing Central America may be linked to climate change." *Huffington Post*. October 16, 2015. http://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/epidemic-climate-change_us_56210714e4b069b4e1fbb8c0

⁷¹⁷ <http://www.redalyc.org/pdf/4375/437542105015.pdf>

⁷¹⁸ Storr, Will. "What is killing sugar cane workers in Central America?" *The Guardian*. October 13, 2012. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2012/oct/14/kidney-disease-killing-sugar-cane-workers-central-america>

Sugar production requires large amounts of land, leading companies to use aggressive tactics as they seek to control enough land to meet production needs.⁷¹⁹ In Malawi, for example forced evictions by the Cane Growers Trust and local police have been reported, and according to a BBC article, two farmers were killed while resisting land seizures.⁷²⁰ Affected communities suffer adverse impacts on their food security and livelihood opportunities.⁷²¹

Case Study:

Forced Labor Indicators in Guatemalan Sugar Production

In late 2016, Verité conducted research in the Guatemalan sugar sector that uncovered a high level of risk to labor trafficking among sugarcane harvesters. Desk research, expert consultations, and worker interviews in areas of production on the southern coast of Guatemala revealed that deception about the nature and conditions of work and housing is common. As in other agricultural sectors in Guatemala, sugarcane workers often fall into cycles of debt, work excessive hours in dangerous conditions, live in poor conditions, have their identity documents taken from them, and face wage violations. Furthermore, workers interviewed reported isolation, confinement, surveillance, violence, dismissal, and blacklisting. According to interviewees, chronic renal failure is a widespread problem among sugarcane harvesters. This is likely due to working conditions that provide little or no access to shade, drinking water, or breaks. Some workers reported being given drinks or pills containing unknown substances, for which they were sometimes charged, that allowed them to work longer.⁷²²

The Mexican Sugar Industry

A number of labor concerns have been identified in the sugar sector in Mexico, which is the world's sixth largest exporter of raw sugar at 6.5 million metric tons in 2015/16.⁷²³ Fifty-eight percent of Mexico's child labor is concentrated in the agricultural sector, and although exact numbers of children employed in the sugar sector are hard to come by, a 2014 study indicated that 30 percent of sugarcane harvesters began working in the sector between the ages of five and 14.⁷²⁴ Workers reportedly make as little as USD 7 daily during the sugarcane harvest, and most are paid on a piece-rate basis.⁷²⁵ Furthermore, many workers become indebted to stores located on the agricultural plantations, often paying inflated prices they are not aware of for their daily meals or necessities.⁷²⁶

⁷¹⁹ Oxfam. *Sugar Rush: Land rights and the supply chains of the biggest food and beverage companies*. 2013. <http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/sugar-rush-land-rights-and-the-supply-chains-of-the-biggest-food-and-beverage-c-302505>

⁷²⁰ Butler, Ed. "Villagers Losing Their Land to Malawi's Sugar Growers." BBC. December 17, 2014. <http://www.bbc.com/news/business-30499219>.

⁷²¹ Chasukwa, Michael. "An Investigation of the Political Economy of Land Grabs in Malawi." Land Deals Politics Initiative. 2013. [http://www.plaas.org.za/sites/default/files/publications-pdf/LDPI30 Chasukwa.pdf](http://www.plaas.org.za/sites/default/files/publications-pdf/LDPI30%20Chasukwa.pdf).

⁷²² Verité. *Research on Sugar in Guatemala*. Vision. January 2017. <https://www.verite.org/research-sugar-guatemala/>.

⁷²³ United States Department of Agriculture, Foreign Agricultural Service. *Mexico: Sugar Annual*. April 20, 2016. <https://www.fas.usda.gov/data/mexico-sugar-annual-0>

⁷²⁴ García Ortega, Martha. *Migraciones Laborales en la Agroindustria Azucarera: Jornaleros Nacionales y Centroamericanos en regiones cañeras de México*. October 16, 2014.

http://www.pa.gob.mx/publica/rev_57/analisis/migraciones%20Martha%20garcia.pdf

⁷²⁵ Spears, Tara. "Mexican Sugar Cane Industry: Swing that Machete." Sol Mexico News. July 5, 2015.

<http://www.solmexiconews.com/mexican-sugar-cane-industry-swing-that-machete/>

Torres, Anel. "Cañeros de la Cuenca, trabajo duro y pocas ganancias." NVI Noticias. February 27, 2017.

<http://www.nvinoticias.com/nota/52462/caneros-de-la-cuenca-trabajo-duro-y-pocas-ganancias>

⁷²⁶ Marosi, Richard. "Company stores trap Mexican farmworkers in a cycle of debt." LA Times. December 12, 2014. <http://graphics.latimes.com/product-of-mexico-stores/>

Sugar Production and Supply Chain:



The Sugar Cane Refining Process. <http://www.csrsugar.com.au/csr-sugar/about-sugar/>

The labor-intensive nature of sugarcane production provides employment and livelihoods for many workers. Over 25 percent of the rural workforce in Brazil and 75 percent of the rural workforce in Mauritius work in the sector.⁷²⁷ Production takes place on both large commercial estates as well as smallholder farms, usually under outgrower or contract arrangements, which can provide farmers with inputs, technology, access to markets and the potential for reduced financial risk.⁷²⁸ However, they have also been criticized because of the unequal power relationships between the outgrower and purchasing company, particularly if they lead to debt cycles when farmers have to borrow money to invest in their production and that investment does not pay off in earnings from sales to the company.⁷²⁹ Previous research has also noted that the expansion of outgrower schemes can result in land grabs on the part of purchasing company.⁷³⁰

Sugarcane can be harvested by hand or by machine, but hand harvesting using machetes is typically preferred to avoid damaging the crop and requires less capital and technological investment. Machine harvesting, while potentially more cost-efficient in the long term, is also capital intensive in the short term. Thus, machine harvesting is typically employed on larger scale estates.

⁷²⁷ FairTrade Foundation. *FairTrade and Sugar*. 2013.

https://www.fairtrade.net/fileadmin/user_upload/content/2009/resources/2013_Fairtrade_and_Sugar_Briefing.pdf

⁷²⁸ ActionAid. *Contract farming and out-grower schemes*. March 2015.

http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/contract_farming.pdf

⁷²⁹ ActionAid. *Contract farming and out-grower schemes*. March 2015.

http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/contract_farming.pdf

⁷³⁰ ActionAid. *Contract farming and out-grower schemes*. March 2015.

http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/contract_farming.pdf

After harvest, sugarcane must be quickly transported for processing because it deteriorates quickly. At sugar mills, processing creates raw sugar, which is generally refined into consumer sugar.⁷³¹ Other products from sugarcane include bygasse (a byproduct from sugar used for electricity), molasses (formed by repeated crystallization of sugar), animal feed, and ethanol/biofuels.⁷³²

Globally, approximately 173 million tons of sugar is produced annually and production is projected to reach almost 207 million tons by 2021-22.⁷³³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in sugar production affect me?



Sugarcane is used globally in a wide variety of confectionery products as well as in soft drinks and alcoholic beverages. Sugar may also be used in ethanol or as an ingredient in industrial products such as cement or glue.⁷³⁴

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Bonsucro is a multi-stakeholder group which seeks to improve social and environmental standards in sugar production. The required standards for membership include prohibition of forced and child labor. Bonsucro certifies mills, rather than farms, although as part of certification, supplying farms are required to meet sustainability standards.⁷³⁵

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) an Oxfam report about land rights and the sugar industry.

[Read](#) about the global sugar trade.

⁷³¹ UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Commodity Atlas: Sugar*. 2004. http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditccom20041ch19_en.pdf

⁷³² Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. *Sugar as Animal Feed*. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/s8850e/S8850E05.htm>
Ethanol. <http://sugarcane.org/sugarcane-products/ethanol>

⁷³³ Chang, Kaison. *Overview of Sugar Policies and Market Outlook*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO). 2012. http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/est/meetings/sugar_fiji_2012/Kaison_Chang_-_FAO_Policy_Overview.pdf

⁷³⁴ Canadian Sugar Institute. *Food and Non-food Uses of Sugar*. <http://www.sugar.ca/Nutrition-Information-Service/Educators-Students/The-Science-of-Sugar/Food-Non-Food-Uses-of-Sugar.aspx>

⁷³⁵ Smedley, Tim. "Sustainable sugar: Coca-Cola and BP signed up but will it go mainstream?" *The Guardian*. September 15, 2014. <https://www.theguardian.com/sustainable-business/2014/sep/15/sustainable-sugar-can-coca-cola-bp-shell-bonsucro>

Sunflowers



Sunflowers are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce sunflowers worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export sunflowers worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports sunflowers (UN Comtrade 2012):
Burma (FL) Ethiopia (FL)	<i>Sunflower Seeds:</i> 1. Ukraine 2. Russia 3. Argentina 4. China 5. France 6. Romania 7. Bulgaria 8. Turkey 9. Hungary 10. United States	<i>Sunflower Seeds:</i> 1. Bulgaria 2. Hungary 3. Romania 4. France 5. Ukraine 6. Russia 7. Slovakia 8. China 9. United States 10. Moldova	<i>Sunflower Seeds:</i> 1. Canada 2. China 3. Argentina 4. Bulgaria 5. Ukraine 6. Chile 7. Turkey 8. Israel 9. Uruguay 10. France

Where are sunflowers reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Forced Labor or Child Labor*, sunflowers are produced using forced labor in Burma.⁷³⁶ According to an Ethiopian newspaper, The Horn Times, forced labor has also been used in sunflower production in Ethiopia.⁷³⁷

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Burma as a Tier 2 Watch List country. Ethiopia is listed as a Tier 2 country.⁷³⁸

⁷³⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_A_Report2014.pdf

⁷³⁷ Bekele, Getahun. "Ethiopia's Genocidal Minority Junta Verging on Madness?" *The Horn Times*. Zehabesha. April 21, 2013. <http://www.zehabesha.com/ethiopias-genocidal-minority-junta-verging-on-madness/>

⁷³⁸ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or labor in sunflower production look like?

In Burma, laborers are often required to walk to the sunflower fields. According to one report, some workers were required to walk two hours to work every day, leaving their homes at six in the morning in order to arrive at the fields by eight. Cultivating and harvesting sunflowers is labor intensive and exposes workers to herbicides that are detrimental to workers' health.⁷³⁹

One account tells of how laborers on a particular sunflower field worked from 8 am to 5 pm weeding and harvesting sunflowers. They were not given food and were watched by armed soldiers; one laborer described the soldiers' treatment, saying, "If [they] saw you drifting off, they would beat you with a machete that is encased in a bamboo sheath. They hit you right on the head!"⁷⁴⁰

Sunflower Production and Supply Chain:

There are two major types of sunflowers. The first is the confection sunflowers, which are grown for the nutmeat, for human consumption or birdfeed, and are frequently sold in the shell to global markets. The second, oil sunflowers, are grown so that the seeds can be pressed for oil. The cake that is left over after the oil is pressed is used for animal feed.

Sunflower cultivation is a labor-intensive activity; tilling, harrowing, and weed control are very important to achieve high-yielding crops. The use of herbicides is recommended to improve yields as well.⁷⁴¹ Sunflowers have a deep tap root and can grow during the night when transpiration is low and thus are drought-resistant.⁷⁴²

How do trafficking and/or child labor in sunflower production affect me?



Sunflowers are used as decoration, cooking oil, food, and as bird and livestock feed. According to FAOSTAT, Burma is a top twenty producer of sunflower seeds while the United States is a top twenty global importer.⁷⁴³

⁷³⁹ Schmidt, Walter H. "Single Crop Sunflower Production." *Agronomy Facts*. The Ohio State University Extension. <http://ohioline.osu.edu/agf-fact/0107.html>

⁷⁴⁰ EarthRights International. *More of the Same: Forced Labor Continues in Burma*. October 11, 2001. <http://www.earthrights.org/sites/default/files/publications/more-of-the-same2.pdf>

⁷⁴¹ Schmidt, Walter H. "Single Crop Sunflower Production." *Agronomy Facts*. The Ohio State University Extension. <http://ohioline.osu.edu/agf-fact/0107.html>

⁷⁴² Manitoba Agriculture, Food and Rural Initiatives. *Sunflowers*. <http://www.gov.mb.ca/agriculture/crops/production/sunflowers.html>

⁷⁴³ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *Production*. 2011. <http://faostat.fao.org/site/339/default.aspx>

Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *Trade*. 2010. <http://faostat.fao.org/site/342/default.aspx>

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing

EarthRights International has launched a campaign against trafficking in Burma that specifically targets sunflower production.⁷⁴⁴

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) this article about a boy in Tanzania who, with the help of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and the ILO, started a worker-friendly sunflower plantation.

⁷⁴⁴ EarthRights International. *More of the Same: Forced Labor Continues in Burma*. October 11, 2001.
<http://www.earthrights.org/sites/default/files/publications/more-of-the-same2.pdf>

Tea



Tea is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce tea worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export tea worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ⁷⁴⁵	Top ten countries that import tea worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ⁷⁴⁶
Bangladesh (FL)	1. China	1. China	1. Russia
Cameroon (FL)	2. India	2. Sri Lanka	2. United States
Kenya (CL)	3. Kenya	3. Kenya	3. Pakistan
Malawi (CL)	4. Sri Lanka	4. India	4. United Kingdom
Rwanda (CL)	5. Vietnam	5. United Arab Emirates	5. Egypt
Tanzania (CL)	6. Turkey	6. Germany	6. Saudi Arabia
Uganda (CL)	7. Indonesia	7. Vietnam	7. Iran
Vietnam (CL)	8. Iran	8. Poland	8. Germany
	9. Myanmar	9. United Kingdom	9. Morocco
	10. Argentina	10. Indonesia	10. United Arab Emirates

Where is tea reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

The U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report* notes that forced labor or forced child labor is present in tea production in Bangladesh and Cameroon.⁷⁴⁷

⁷⁴⁵ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

⁷⁴⁶ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

⁷⁴⁷ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

According to the U.S. Department of Labor 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, tea is produced with child labor in Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, and Vietnam.⁷⁴⁸

There is some evidence that workers on Indian tea plantations face indicators of forced labor.⁷⁴⁹

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Bangladesh, Cameroon, Malawi, Uganda, Kenya, and Vietnam as Tier 2 countries. Rwanda, and Tanzania, are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries.⁷⁵⁰

What does trafficking and/or child labor in tea production look like?

According to the U.S. Department of State, “ethnic Indian families are forced to work in the tea industry in the northeastern part of [Bangladesh.]”⁷⁵¹

Indian tea accounts for a quarter of global production, and the industry employs 1.26 million people on plantations, many of whom are internal migrants.⁷⁵² Siddharth Kara, in *Bonded Labor: Tackling the System of Slavery in South Asia*, describes victims of human trafficking in the tea industry as typically poor and indebted to their employers.⁷⁵³ These bonded laborers are often women and their children who have no choice but to accompany their parents in the fields. Aging parents are incentivized to put their children to work in order to meet strictly enforced tea picking quotas and to make use of their children’s dexterity, which is necessary for weeding fields and picking tea leaves.⁷⁵⁴ In tea production, children are usually employed in the fields to weed, hoe, or to work in nurseries.⁷⁵⁵

A 2014 report from the Columbia Law School Human Rights Institute noted significant indicators of forced labor on Indian tea plantations, such as punitively high quotas and wage deductions. Workers reported the necessity of subcontracting work to meet quotas and facing substantial wage deductions.⁷⁵⁶ The low wages and poor conditions on these tea plantation have reportedly led to children living on tea plantations or in surrounding areas being targeted for trafficking to urban areas.⁷⁵⁷

⁷⁴⁸ U.S. Department of Labor. *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2016. <https://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/list-of-goods/>

⁷⁴⁹ Columbia Law School Human Rights Institute. “*The More Things Change ...*” *The World Bank, Tata and Enduring Abuses on India’s Tea Plantations*. January 2014. http://web.law.columbia.edu/sites/default/files/microsites/human-rights-institute/files/tea_report_final_draft-smallpdf.pdf

⁷⁵⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁷⁵¹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

⁷⁵² Raj, Jayaseelan. “The hidden injuries of caste: south Indian tea workers and economic crisis.” *Open Democracy*. June 29, 2015. <https://www.opendemocracy.net/beyondslavery/jayaseelan-raj/hidden-injuries-of-caste-south-indian-tea-workers-and-economic-crisis>

⁷⁵³ Kara, Siddharth. *Bonded labor: Tackling the System of Slavery in South Asia*. Columbia University Press. 2012.

⁷⁵⁴ Kara, Siddharth. *Bonded labor: Tackling the System of Slavery in South Asia*. Columbia University Press. 2012.

⁷⁵⁵ ActionAid. For the Rights of Tea Workers in Assam. <http://www.actionaid.org/india/what-we-do/assam/rights-tea-garden-workers-assam>

⁷⁵⁶ Columbia Law School Human Rights Institute. “*The More Things Change ...*” *The World Bank, Tata and Enduring Abuses on India’s Tea Plantations*. January 2014. http://web.law.columbia.edu/sites/default/files/microsites/human-rights-institute/files/tea_report_final_draft-smallpdf.pdf

⁷⁵⁷ Basu, Anasuya S. “Assam’s tea gardens become hunting ground for child traffickers.” *Hindustan Times*. September 3, 2015. <http://www.hindustantimes.com/india/assam-s-tea-gardens-become-hunting-ground-for-child-traffickers/story-MLuOTIMOheHKBpw8FDro1I.html>

In a number of sub-Saharan African tea-producing countries, there have been anecdotal reports of trafficked migrant laborers as well as other types of poor working conditions. Seasonal temporary workers, who are more common than permanent workers, are often paid in piece-rate. Permanent workers receive higher wages and have access to benefits such as housing and medical care, but often struggle to make a living wage nonetheless, especially on small-scale farms.⁷⁵⁸ Piece-rate and low wages often require families to bring their children to work. Child labor has been reported on small-scale farms in Rwanda, where children reportedly engage in all levels of tea production. In Kenya, children account for an estimated 15 percent of all tea sector workers.⁷⁵⁹ A BBC investigation in early 2016 found child labor on a tea plantation in Uganda, where children carried seedlings up a steep hill and weeded rows.⁷⁶⁰

A UN report on Uganda's tea sector anecdotally estimated that migrant workers make up 40 to 60 percent of the sector's workforce, since work on tea estates is regarded by local Ugandans in tea-growing regions as undesirable. Migrant workers come from other districts of Uganda, as well as from Rwanda.⁷⁶¹ A December 2016 news report in Uganda reported that 43 Rwandans were arrested after being "trafficked" into the country for work on tea plantations, although it is unclear whether the Rwandans were trafficked or rather voluntarily migrated without correct documentation.⁷⁶²

Tea Production and Supply Chain:

Tea is produced on both smallholders and larger commercial plantations or estates.⁷⁶³ There is no precise data about the scale of production on small farms versus estates, but small farms appear to be more prevalent in Africa than in tea producing regions in Sri Lanka and India. The type of production influences the type of labor utilized. Small-scale farmers typically may rely more heavily on family labor, but there appears to be use of hired/waged labor as well, at least in some regions, particularly during peak harvest periods.⁷⁶⁴ Commercial estates utilize hired labor, but among these workers there is likely to be

Chamberlain, Gethin. "How poverty wages for tea pickers fuel India's trade in child slavery." *The Guardian*. July 20, 2013. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2013/jul/20/poverty-tea-pickers-india-child-slavery>

⁷⁵⁸ van der Wal, Sanne. *Sustainability Issues in the Tea Sector*. SOMO. June 1, 2008. <https://www.somo.nl/sustainability-issues-in-the-tea-sector/>

⁷⁵⁹ Sustainable Trade Initiative (IDH). *The True Price of Tea from Kenya*. May 5, 2016.

https://issuu.com/idhsustainabletradeinitiative/docs/the_true_price_of_tea_from_kenya

⁷⁶⁰ O'Dowd, Vinnie and Danny Vincent. "Catholic Church linked to Uganda child labour." *BBC News*. January 5, 2016.

<http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-35220869>

⁷⁶¹ UN Capital Development Fund. *Uganda's Tea Payments Profile*. July 2015.

http://www.unCDF.org/sites/default/files/Documents/uganda_bn7_tea.pdf

⁷⁶² Kakogoso, Vanansio. "43 Rwandans arrested in Kabale being trafficked to unknown destination." *MK News Link*. December 14, 2016. <http://mknewslink.com/2016/12/14/43-rwandans-arrested-kabale-trafficked-unknown-destination/>

⁷⁶³ United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization. *Contribution of tea production and exports to food security, rural development and smallholder welfare in selected producing countries*. 2013. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4485e.pdf>

⁷⁶⁴ Gonza, M.J. and P. Moshi. *Tanzania Children Working in Commercial Agriculture – Tea: A Rapid Assessment*. International Labour Organization International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). January 2002.

http://staging.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/2002/102B09_28_engl.pdf

Perera, Prasanna. *Tea Smallholders in Sri Lanka: Issues and Challenges in Remote Areas*. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Vol. 5, No. 12. November 2014. http://ijbssnet.com/journals/vol_5_no_12_november_2014/13.pdf

Cramer, Christopher, Deborah Johnston, Carlos Oya and John Sender. *Fairtrade, Employment and Poverty Reduction in Ethiopia and Uganda*. Fair Trade, Employment & Poverty Reduction Research. April 2014. <http://ftepr.org/wp-content/uploads/FTEPR-Final-Report-19-May-2014-FIN>

heterogeneity in status: some may be permanent, some may be temporary and some may be casual or hired by a third party labor provider.⁷⁶⁵

Many of the activities involved in tea production are labor intensive. These activities might include preparing land, transplanting seedlings, applying mulch, applying fertilizer, manual weeding, and leaf plucking.⁷⁶⁶ Leaf harvesting generally represents a peak in manual labor, leading many plantations to hire temporary workers.⁷⁶⁷ Tea is harvested year-round, but high season depends on the exact region and type of tea.⁷⁶⁸

Tea is usually processed in the countries of origin because processing must begin relatively quickly after harvest. Tea is processed at processing plants, which may be part of medium and large scale plantations. After processing, tea is sold to tea companies through brokers.⁷⁶⁹

How do trafficking and/or child labor in tea production affect me?



According to the U.S. Department of Labor, tea is the second most consumed beverage in the world, trailing only water. In the United States in 2012, 3.6 billion gallons of tea were consumed.⁷⁷⁰

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The Ethical Tea Partnership (ETP) is an alliance of member tea companies that works to promote social and environmental in members' supply chains. In addition, ETP has programs around livelihood improvement for workers and smallholders. As an example of livelihood programming, the ETP partnered with IDH to improve quality and productivity, as well as market access, for smallholder farmers in Indonesia. The project also made USD 150,000 available for loans to small producers.⁷⁷¹

On some Bangladeshi tea plantations in the northeast tea-growing region Sylhet, living and working conditions have improved after the installation of water pumps and latrines. Bangladesh's 165 tea

⁷⁶⁵ Thapa, Namrata. *Employment Status and Human Development of Tea Plantation Workers in West Bengal*. NRPPD Discussion Paper. 2012. <http://www.cds.edu/wp-content/uploads/2012/11/NRPPD11.pdf>

Fairtrade Foundation. *Tea Farmers and Workers*. <http://www.fairtrade.org.uk/en/farmers-and-workers/tea>

⁷⁶⁶ International Labor Organization - IPEC. *Hazardous Labor in Agriculture: Tea*. http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/publ/download/factsheets/fs_tea_0304.pdf

⁷⁶⁷ International Labor Organization - IPEC. *Hazardous Labor in Agriculture: Tea*. http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/publ/download/factsheets/fs_tea_0304.pdf

⁷⁶⁸ Sustainable Trade Initiative. *Sector Overview: Tea*. 2012. <http://www.idhsustainabletrade.com/site/getfile.php?id=184>.

⁷⁶⁹ Sustainable Trade Initiative. *Sector Overview: Tea*. 2012. <http://www.idhsustainabletrade.com/site/getfile.php?id=184>.

⁷⁷⁰ Eldrig, Line. Fafo. *Child Labor in the Tea Sector in Malawi*. 2003. http://www.faf.no/~faf/media/com_netsukii/714.pdf

⁷⁷¹ Mades, Nicky. "Trafficking in the Tea Industry and What Can Be Done About It." Human Trafficking Center Blog. April 1, 2015. <http://humantraffickingcenter.org/trafficking-in-the-tea-industry-and-what-can-be-done-about-it/>

⁷⁷¹ Ethical Tea Partnership (ETP). *An Overview of the Ethical Tea Partnership*. September 2015. <http://www.ethicalteapartnership.org/wp-content/uploads/ETP-Overview-Sept-2015.pdf>

plantations employ around 400,000 workers, and many of them lack basic hygiene and sanitation practices. Pumps and latrines were installed by international NGO, WaterAid, and their local partner, the Institute of Development Affairs (Idea), after negotiations with the plantations' management.⁷⁷²

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) a United Nations Conference Report on Trade and Development summary of the global tea trade.
[Watch](#) a CNN Freedom Project video about child labor, debt bondage, and human trafficking in tea production.

⁷⁷² Sherwell, Philip. "Clean water finally flows to transform lives of tea pickers in Bangladesh." The Guardian. March 14, 2017. <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2017/mar/14/clean-water-finally-flows-to-transform-lives-tea-pickers-bangladesh-surma-valley>

Tobacco



Tobacco is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce tobacco worldwide (FAOSTAT 2014):	Top ten countries that export tobacco worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ⁷⁷³	Top ten countries that import tobacco worldwide (UN Comtrade 2015): ⁷⁷⁴
Argentina (CL)	1. China	1. Brazil	1. China
Brazil (CL)	2. Brazil	2. United States	2. Germany
Cambodia (CL)	3. India	3. Belgium	3. Russia
Indonesia (CL)	4. United States	4. Zimbabwe	4. Belgium
Kenya (FL, CL)	5. Indonesia	5. India	5. United States
Kyrgyz Republic (CL)	6. Pakistan	6. China	6. Netherlands
Lebanon (CL)	7. Malawi	7. Malawi	7. Poland
Malawi (FL, CL)	8. Argentina	8. Turkey	8. Indonesia
Mexico (CL)	9. Zambia	9. Germany	9. Turkey
Mozambique (CL)	10. Mozambique	10. Netherlands	10. Japan
Nicaragua (CL)			
The Philippines (CL)			
Tanzania (CL)			
Uganda (CL)			
Vietnam (CL)			
Zambia (CL)			

Where is tobacco reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

⁷⁷³ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

⁷⁷⁴ International Trade Center (ITC Calculations based on UNCOMTRADE Statistics). <http://www.intracen.org/>

The U.S. Department of State 2016 *Trafficking in Persons Report* notes the presence of forced labor or forced child labor in Kenya and Malawi.⁷⁷⁵

The U.S. Department of Labor 2016 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor* lists tobacco as being produced with forced labor and child labor in Malawi and with child labor in Argentina, Brazil, Cambodia, Indonesia, Kenya, Kyrgyz Republic, Lebanon, Mexico, Mozambique, Nicaragua, the Philippines, Tanzania, Uganda, Vietnam, and Zambia.⁷⁷⁶

Forced and child labor may occur in the cigarette or beedis (hand-rolled cigars) production process in India and Bangladesh.⁷⁷⁷

Human Rights Watch (HRW) also notes that tobacco is grown with hazardous child labor in the United States.⁷⁷⁸

The U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Argentina, Brazil, Cambodia, Indonesia, Kenya, Kyrgyz Republic, Lebanon, Malawi, Mexico, Nicaragua, Uganda, Vietnam and Zambia as Tier 2 countries. Mozambique and Tanzania are listed as Tier 2 Watch List countries. The Philippines is listed as a Tier 1 country.⁷⁷⁹

What does trafficking and/or child labor in tobacco harvesting look like?

Human trafficking is most likely to take place at the harvesting stage of production. The nature of trafficking in tobacco growing, however, varies from region to region and depends on the type of labor involved.

In Malawi, human trafficking risk occurs in the context of tenant farming. Families make agreements with landowners whereby they receive a portion of the profit from the tobacco harvest in exchange for labor in growing and harvesting the crop.⁷⁸⁰ Tenants are generally expected to pay for seeds and other expenses. Tenant households may wait to receive payments for their crops for months. While they wait, they may take advances for food, clothes, and medicine at inflated rates from farm authorities. The farm authorities deduct these advances from farmer earnings. This may contribute to food insecurity, induced indebtedness to the landholder and child labor.⁷⁸¹ A recent study found that estate owners are less likely to recruit through district labor offices, instead relying on increasingly aggressive recruitment strategies,

⁷⁷⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

⁷⁷⁶ United States Department of Labor. *List of goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. September 30, 2016. https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPRA_Report2016.pdf

⁷⁷⁷ United States Department of Labor. *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. September 30, 2016. https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/TVPRA_Report2016.pdf

⁷⁷⁸ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Tobacco's Hidden Children: Hazardous Child Labor in United States Tobacco Farming*. May 2014. <http://www.hrw.org/node/125316>

Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Teens of the Tobacco Fields: Child Labor in United States Tobacco Farming*. December 2015. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2015/12/09/teens-tobacco-fields/child-labor-united-states-tobacco-farming#page>

⁷⁷⁹ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

⁷⁸⁰ Eldring, Line, Sabata Nakanyane and Malehoko Tshoaedi, *Child Labour in the Tobacco Growing Sector in Africa*. Fafo. October 2000. <http://www.fafo.no/pub/rapp/654/654.pdf>

⁷⁸¹ Torres, Liv. *The World Smoking Business*, as cited in: Otañez, Marty, and L Graen.. Gentlemen, Why Not Suppress the Prices? Global Leaf Demand and Rural Livelihoods in Malawi. 2014. In *Tobacco Control and Tobacco*. <http://observatoriodotabaco.com.br/uploads/biblioteca/arquivos/pdf/IDL-53191.pdf#page=80>.

including the use of third-party labor brokers/middlemen. Returning tenants may also act as labor brokers to recruit new tenants.⁷⁸²

The U.S. Department of State reported in its 2016 Trafficking in Persons report that NGO research has found that children in Kenya-based refugee camps may be forced to work on tobacco farms.⁷⁸³

In the United States, Human Rights Watch (HRW) found children as young as seven working in tobacco fields. Many of the children interviewed by HRW were children of migrant farmworkers. While they attended school during the academic year, in the summer, they worked in tobacco fields to supplement their family income.⁷⁸⁴ In a follow-up report in 2015, HRW reported that although several companies implemented policies banning children under 16 from working in tobacco farming, this still leaves children 16-18 working under conditions that are considered hazardous.⁷⁸⁵

According to field research conducted by Human Rights Watch from September 2014 to September 2015 in Indonesia, children work for their own family farm to increase family earnings or on other small farms to support their family financially. HRW found that Indonesian law prohibits children under 18 from performing hazardous work, although it does not explicitly classify the handling of tobacco as such. All children interviewed by HRW reported experiencing symptoms of nicotine poisoning.⁷⁸⁶

Work in tobacco production is hazardous for both adults and children. Workers use dangerous tools and machinery, lift heavy loads, and may be exposed to intense heat and work at height hanging tobacco in barns. Workers may also be exposed to pesticides, including known neurotoxins. Workers harvesting tobacco leaves without adequate protective equipment are vulnerable to Green Tobacco Sickness, or GTS. GTS, caused by absorption of nicotine through the skin, can cause nausea, vomiting, weakness, headaches, and respiratory symptoms.⁷⁸⁷ Children are most vulnerable to these risks, including GTS, as their bodies are still developing. Vomiting can lead to exacerbation of dehydration and heat illness.⁷⁸⁸

Tobacco Production and Supply Chain:

Tobacco production encompasses the cultivation of several different varieties of tobacco leaves, grown for different purposes. Flue-cured, Burley and Oriental tobaccos are used in blended cigarettes, with Flue-cured being the most commonly produced.

⁷⁸² Centre for Social Concern (CSC). *Tobacco Production and Tenancy Labour in Malawi*. International Labor Rights Forum. January 12, 2015. <http://www.laborrights.org/publications/tobacco-production-and-tenancy-labour-malawi>

⁷⁸³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2016. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/258876.pdf>

⁷⁸⁴ Human Rights Watch. Tobacco's Hidden Children. *Hazardous Child Labor in United States Tobacco Farming*. May 2014. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2014/05/13/tobaccos-hidden-children/hazardous-child-labor-united-states-tobacco-farming>

⁷⁸⁵ Human Rights Watch. *Teens of the Tobacco Fields: Child Labor in United States Tobacco Farming*. December 2015. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2015/12/09/teens-tobacco-fields/child-labor-united-states-tobacco-farming>

⁷⁸⁶ Human Rights Watch. "The Harvest is in my Blood:" *Hazardous Child Labor in Tobacco Farming in Indonesia*. May 24, 2016. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2016/05/24/harvest-my-blood/hazardous-child-labor-tobacco-farming-indonesia>

⁷⁸⁷ Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Hellish Work*. July 14, 2010. <http://www.hrw.org/en/node/91458/section/2>

Occupational Safety and Health Administration. *Recommended Practices Bulletin*. <https://www.osha.gov/Publications/OSHA3765.pdf>

⁷⁸⁸ Occupational Safety and Health Administration. *Recommended Practices Bulletin*. <https://www.osha.gov/Publications/OSHA3765.pdf>

Tobacco production and harvesting is labor intensive. Seedlings are hand sown into beds and then removed for transplanting. Seedlings are clipped for weeks before transplanting. Fertilizers are applied to fields and in many developing markets, they are applied by hand. Flowers are manually or mechanically removed to encourage leaf development. Some types (Flue-cured, Oriental, and cigar wrapper) are harvested as individual leaves ripen. Other types (Burley, Maryland) are cut near ground level when most leaves are ripe. Harvesting is generally manual. Curing requires leaves to be hung in barns.⁷⁸⁹ At factories, leaves are cleaned, de-stemmed and aged, after which flavor may be added. Tobacco is then rolled into cigarettes, which may have filters added.

Many tobacco producers are small-holder famers.⁷⁹⁰ Tobacco companies (or their supplier affiliates) either purchase tobacco directly from growers, or procure it in an auction system. Generally, in a direct buying, or “contract” system, companies purchase growers’ entire crops. Tobacco purchases in most countries, including most U.S. purchases, are made in a contract system. In some countries, such as Zimbabwe, tobacco is sold at auction.⁷⁹¹ Until the 2012 season, tobacco in Malawi was sold through an auction system; this caused high levels of price instability and led to livelihood concerns for farmers, potentially encouraging child labor. The auction system also prevented buyers from using leverage to discourage child labor.⁷⁹²

Tobacco is produced and consumed worldwide. The major producers are China, India, Brazil, the United States, Malawi, Indonesia, and Pakistan which together produce over 80 percent of the world's tobacco. China alone accounts for nearly 42 percent of world production.⁷⁹³

How do trafficking and/or child labor in tobacco production affect me?



The most common uses of tobacco are for cigarettes, cigars, pipe tobacco, chewing tobacco, and snuff. Over a quarter of Americans consume tobacco products.⁷⁹⁴

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

⁷⁸⁹ International Labor Organization (ILO). *Tobacco Cultivation*. <http://www.ilo.org/oshenc/part-x/agriculture-and-natural-resources-based-industries/specialty-crops/item/551-tobacco-cultivation>

⁷⁹⁰ British American Tobacco. *Supply Chain*. <http://www.bat.com/supplychain>

⁷⁹¹ Alliance One. *Corporate Profile*. <http://www.aointl.com/au/>

⁷⁹² Philip Morris International (PMI). *Agricultural Labor Practices (ALP) Program Progress Report 2013*. March 30, 2014. http://www.pmi.com/eng/media_center/documents/pmi_progress_report_final_not_watermarked_low_res_0328.pdf

⁷⁹³ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *Crop Production Statistics*.

<http://faostat.fao.org/site/567/DesktopDefault.aspx?PageID=567#ancor>

⁷⁹⁴ Agaku, Israel T. et al. *Tobacco Product Use Among Adults – United States, 2012- 2013*. Centers for Disease Control (CDC). July 27, 2014. <http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/mm6325a3.htm>

Philip Morris International (PMI) engaged Verité, a labor rights NGO, in a strategic partnership to improve conditions for tobacco workers and to eliminate child labor in its global supply chain. To meet this objective, PMI developed and communicated a comprehensive Agricultural Labor Practices (ALP) Code to over 500,000 smallholder farms in over 30 countries. Employees and suppliers have also been trained across the company's entire tobacco supply chain. As part of implementation of the ALP Program, field technicians gather annual information on who lives and works on each farm and regularly monitor farms for adherence to the ALP Code. PMI engages third-party monitors to evaluate its markets, and where issues have been identified through third-party monitoring, PMI and its suppliers have worked to develop corrective action plans.⁷⁹⁵ According to the 2015 progress report on the ALP Program, PMI had so far trained 3,500 field technicians to monitor farms, affecting 2.5 million workers on tobacco farms around the world.⁷⁹⁶

The Eliminating Child Labour in Tobacco Growing Foundation (ECLT) is a multi-brand funded non-profit organization that works to withdraw children from child labor in the tobacco sector, provide educational opportunities, raise awareness about child labor and provide livelihood opportunities for tobacco growing communities. The ECLT runs programs in Kyrgyzstan, Mozambique, Malawi, Philippines, Uganda, Zambia, and Guatemala.⁷⁹⁷

Brazil is the world's third largest tobacco producer and has taken legal measures to restrict child labor in tobacco farming; banning all children under 18 from working in tobacco due to its hazardous nature. No child under the age of 18 is allowed to work in the fields. Human Rights Watch (HRW) found that tobacco buyers convey health and safety information to their farmers via instructors and offer pesticide safety training. Farmers in Paraná, Santa Catarina, and Rio Grande do Sol were found to be abiding by the child labor laws due to their awareness of the penalty for employing children. Some tobacco companies also reportedly verify child attendance in schools. While HRW reports that these efforts have been successful at reducing child labor in tobacco, the practice continues, due in part to rural poverty and low earnings for tobacco farmers.⁷⁹⁸

Where can I learn more?

[Watch](#) a video by Plan International on child labor in Malawi.

[Read](#) about tobacco growing and trade.

[Read](#) a report by Human Rights Watch on child labor in Indonesian tobacco farms.

[Read](#) the Centre for Social Concern's study on tenancy labor in Malawian tobacco production.

⁷⁹⁵ Philip Morris International. *Agricultural Labor Practices. 2013 Progress Update.*

http://www.pmi.com/eng/media_center/Documents/PMI_Progress_Report_FINAL_not_watermarked_low_res_0328.pdf

⁷⁹⁶ Philip Morris International (PMI). *Agricultural Labor Practices (ALP) Program Progress Report. 2015.*

<https://www.pmi.com/resources/docs/default-source/pmi-sustainability/alp-progress-report-2014-2015.pdf?sfvrsn=6>

⁷⁹⁷ Eliminating Child Labour in Tobacco Growing Foundation (ECLT). *Project Countries.* <http://www.eclt.org/>

⁷⁹⁸ Wurth, Margaret. Human Rights Watch (HRW). *Tobacco's Children. Brazil Sets An Example for the U.S.* November 3, 2015. <https://www.hrw.org/news/2015/11/03/tobaccos-children-brazil-sets-example-us>

Tomatoes



Tomatoes are reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce tomatoes worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export tomatoes worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports tomatoes (UN Comtrade 2012):
Argentina (CL) Dominican Republic (CL) Mexico (CL) Italy (FL) Spain (FL) United States (FL)	1. China 2. India 3. United States 4. Turkey 5. Egypt 6. Iran 7. Italy 8. Spain 9. Brazil 10. Mexico	1. Mexico 2. Netherlands 3. Spain 4. Turkey 5. Morocco 6. Jordan 7. France 8. Belgium 9. United States 10. China	1. Canada 2. Chile 3. Israel 4. Mexico

Where are tomatoes reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the U. S. Department of Labor 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, tomatoes are produced with child labor in Argentina, the Dominican Republic, and Mexico.⁷⁹⁹ The 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Argentina, the Dominican Republic, and Mexico all as Tier 2 countries.⁸⁰⁰

According to Amnesty International's 2012 report on labor practices, tomatoes are produced with forced labor in Italy.⁸⁰¹ The Guardian reported that migrant workers are subjected to conditions of trafficking

⁷⁹⁹ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_Report2014.pdf

⁸⁰⁰ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸⁰¹ Amnesty International. *Exploited Labor: Migrant Workers in Italy's Agricultural Sector*. December 2012. <http://www.amnesty.org/en/library/asset/EUR30/021/2012/en/f0ce53e6-5cf6-45f6-86bbe00de71c9a3c/eur300212012en.pdf>

while harvesting tomatoes in Spain.⁸⁰² The Coalition of Immokalee Workers (CIW) and CNN's Freedom Project have publicized trafficking in tomato production in the United States as well.⁸⁰³

The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* noted that 54 children were intercepted, allegedly for exploitive labor on tomato farms in Angola, although the scope of the problem is unknown.⁸⁰⁴

According to the U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Argentina, the Dominican Republic and Mexico and Tier 2 countries. Italy, Spain and the U.S. are Tier 1 countries.⁸⁰⁵

What does trafficking and/or child labor in tomato production look like?

Working in tomato fields is very dangerous and difficult work for children, as they are often exposed to pesticides and other chemicals without proper protective gear.⁸⁰⁶ In the Dominican Republic, child labor may occur when children work alongside their families.⁸⁰⁷ In Argentina, a 2004 government survey approximated that 450,000 children living in rural areas work on family or neighboring farms, picking tomatoes and various other crops.⁸⁰⁸ In Mexico, migrants are the most at risk for human trafficking, particularly in the agricultural sector where 29.5 percent of Mexico's working children are employed.⁸⁰⁹ According to Amnesty International, human trafficking in tomato production occurs in southern Italy, largely among sub-Saharan African immigrants looking for seasonal or temporary work.⁸¹⁰ *The Guardian* has reported trafficking among African migrants in Spain.⁸¹¹ In the United States, Mexican and Guatemalan immigrants, including children, work in the tomato fields of Immokalee, Florida. They are often indebted to their traffickers and must continually work towards the payment of their debt bondage.⁸¹²

Case Study:

Tomato Production in the United States: Forced Labor?

Verité published a report on immigrant workers in U.S. agriculture that explores the role of labor brokers and their tie to forced labor. In this report, Verité exposes the vulnerabilities of the guest worker system

⁸⁰² Lawrence, Felicity. "Spain's Salad Growers are Modern Day Slaves, Say Charities." *The Guardian*. February 7, 2011.

⁸⁰³ Coalition of Immokalee Workers. "About CIW." <http://www.ciw-online.org/about.html>

Kloer, A. "Your Tomato's Possible Ties to Slavery." *The CNN Freedom Project: Ending Modern-Day Slavery*. April 2011. <http://thecnnfreedomproject.blogs.cnn.com/2011/04/21/your-tomato-possible-ties-to-slavery/>

⁸⁰⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸⁰⁵ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸⁰⁶ U.S. Department of Labor. *2013 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor: Argentina*. 2013. <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/child-labor/findings/2013TDA/argentina.pdf>

⁸⁰⁷ U.S. Department of State. *2012 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Dominican Republic*. 2012. <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm?year=2012&dldid=204446>

⁸⁰⁸ U.S. Department of State. *2012 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Argentina*. 2012. <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm?year=2012&dldid=204421>

⁸⁰⁹ U.S. Department of State. *2013 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Mexico*. 2013. <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm?year=2013&dldid=220457>

⁸¹⁰ Amnesty International. *Exploited Labor: Migrant Workers in Italy's Agricultural Sector*. December 2012. <http://www.amnesty.org/en/library/asset/EUR30/021/2012/en/f0ce53e6-5cf6-45f6-86bbe00de71c9a3c/eur300212012en.pdf>

⁸¹¹ Lawrence, Felicity. "Spain's Salad Growers are Modern Day Slaves, Say Charities." *The Guardian*. February 7, 2011.

⁸¹² Kloer, A. "Your Tomato's Possible Ties to Slavery." *The CNN Freedom Project: Ending Modern-Day Slavery*. April 2011. <http://thecnnfreedomproject.blogs.cnn.com/2011/04/21/your-tomato-possible-ties-to-slavery/>

and the use of labor brokers. In the guest worker system, workers are vulnerable to forced labor because they are tied to their employer, which means that, despite protections that exist for H-2A workers, they often endure low wages, physical isolation, language barriers, fear of deportation, and idle periods of no work. The use of labor brokers also has inherent risks, including illegal recruitment fees, human trafficking and loan sharking. Farm work, such as harvesting tomatoes, can also be dangerous work and workers are rarely given adequate safety equipment. Verité cites a specific case in Florida where a group of workers hired to pick tomatoes were not allowed to leave the farm; they were locked in their sleeping quarters and threatened by employers with guns. Verité profiles another case where a group of women traveled from Mexico to Florida on H-2A visas in order to work harvesting tomatoes. These employees also reported being locked up at night and threatened by their employers.⁸¹³

In 2007, a federal grand jury indicted the Navarrete family in Immokalee, Florida for enslaving workers in the tomato picking industry. The group allegedly beat any workers that attempted to leave and locked workers in a U-Haul style truck: “at night, the cargo door was locked shut with the most troublesome workers inside. If they needed to relieve themselves, the only option was a designated corner.”⁸¹⁴

Investigative journalist Barry Estabrook has also been looking into the conditions that immigrant tomato workers in Florida endure. He reports expensive room and board, inedible food, no regular wages, and severe beatings for deserting.⁸¹⁵

Tomato Production and Supply Chain:

The most labor-intensive part of the tomato supply chain is the harvesting stage. After harvesting, fresh tomatoes are sent to a packinghouse, where they are distributed to various retail food sellers, food preparation outlets, and processing operations.⁸¹⁶

Over the past decade, tomato production has increased globally, with Mexico, the United States, and Italy among some of the top producing countries. According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), Mexico exports the majority of its fresh tomato supply to the United States, and the United States is one of the biggest global importers of tomatoes.⁸¹⁷

⁸¹³ Verité. “Immigrant Workers in US Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor.” June 2010. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

⁸¹⁴ Grimm, Fred. “How About a Side Order of Human Rights?” *The Miami Herald*. December 16, 2007. http://ciw-online.org/blog/2007/12/fred_grimm_side_order_rigts/

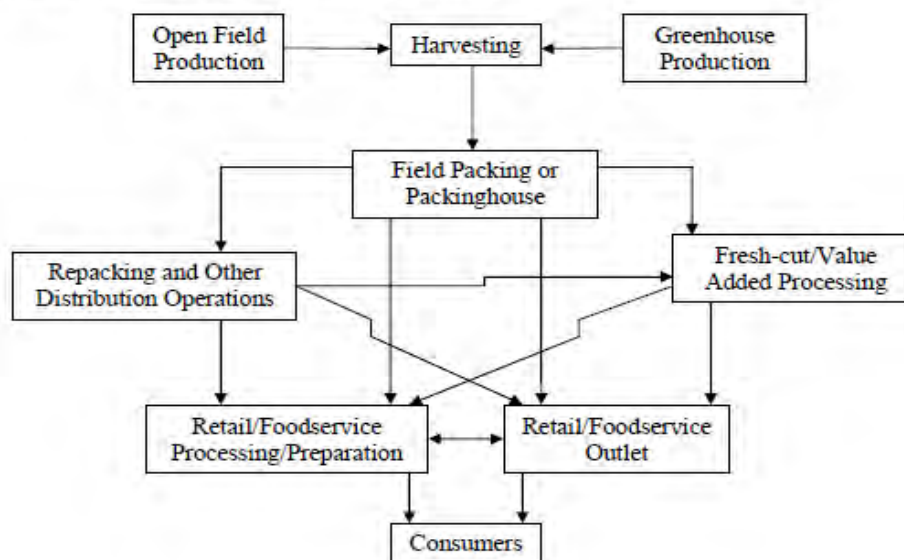
⁸¹⁵ National Public Radio (NPR). “The Unsavory Story of Industrially-Grown Tomatoes.” August 26, 2011. <http://www.npr.org/2011/08/26/139972669/the-unsavory-story-of-industrially-grown-tomatoes>

⁸¹⁶ North American Tomato Trade Work Group (NATTWG), United Fresh Produce Association. *Commodity Specific Food Safety Guidelines for the Fresh Tomato Supply Chain*. July 2008.

<http://www.unitedfresh.org/assets/files/Tomato%20Guidelines%20July08%20FINAL.pdf>

⁸¹⁷ United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). *Commodity Profile. Tomatoes*. <http://www.unctad.info/en/Infocomm/AACP-Products/COMMODITY-PROFILE---Tomato/>

Figure 1. General Supply Chain Flow for Fresh Tomatoes



Source: North American Tomato Trade Work Group (NATTWG), United Fresh Produce Association. *Commodity Specific Food Safety Guidelines for the Fresh Tomato Supply Chain*. July 2008.
<http://www.unitedfresh.org/assets/files/Tomato%20Guidelines%20July08%20FINAL.pdf>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in tomato production affect me?



According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture, fresh tomatoes are America's fourth most consumed type of fresh-market produce.⁸¹⁸ Americans primarily consume domestic tomatoes, mainly from California and Florida, as well as tomatoes imported from Canada and Mexico.

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

The activism and advocacy of the Coalition of Immokalee Workers (CIW) over the past twenty years has brought national and international attention to abuses of tomato-pickers in Immokalee, Florida. The CIW has helped with multiple federal prosecutions of traffickers in Florida, and has freed over one thousand

⁸¹⁸ U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Tomatoes*. October 2012.
<http://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/crops/vegetables/pulses/tomatoes.aspx#.UXL2qfU61EI>

enslaved Florida farmworkers.⁸¹⁹ In 2001 the CIW launched their Fair Food Campaign, targeting Taco Bell and other large fast food conglomerates for purchasing tomatoes from agribusinesses harvested using human trafficking.⁸²⁰ “Yum Brands (2005), McDonald’s (2007), Burger King (2008), Subway (2008), Whole Foods Market (2008), Bon Appetit Management Company (2009), Compass Group (2009), Aramark (2010), Sodexo (2010), Trader Joe’s (2012), and Chipotle (2012) are participating in the Fair Food Program. All ten companies have agreed to pay a premium price for more fairly produced tomatoes, and to shift their Florida tomato purchases to growers who comply with the Fair Food Code of Conduct.” In 2010, then Secretary of State Hilary Clinton gave Laura Gemino, coordinator for the Anti-Slavery Campaign for CIW, a TIP Report Hero Award for her work towards eradicating forced labor in the tomato industry.⁸²¹

Where can I learn more?

[Listen](#) to an interview with investigative journalist Barry Estabrook on NPR about his work researching the working conditions of today’s tomato workers.

[Watch](#) a short video about one woman’s struggle to make ends meet as a tomato-picker in Immokalee, Florida.

[Read](#) Verité’s full report on Immigrant Workers in US Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor.

⁸¹⁹ Coalition of Immokalee Workers. “About CIW.” <http://www.ciw-online.org/about.html>

⁸²⁰ Kloer, A. “Your Tomato’s Possible Ties to Slavery.” *The CNN Freedom Project: Ending Modern-Day Slavery*. April 2011. <http://thecnnfreedomproject.blogs.cnn.com/2011/04/21/your-tomato-possible-ties-to-slavery/>

⁸²¹ Coalition of Immokalee Workers. “About CIW.” <http://www.ciw-online.org/about.html>

Wheat



Wheat is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that produce wheat worldwide (FAOSTAT 2012):	Top ten countries that export wheat worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports wheat (UN Comtrade 2012):
Pakistan (FL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. China 2. India 3. United States 4. France 5. Russia 6. Australia 7. Canada 8. Pakistan 9. Germany 10. Turkey 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. United States 2. Australia 3. Canada 4. France 5. Russia 6. Argentina 7. Ukraine 8. Kazakhstan 9. Germany 10. India 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Canada 2. United Kingdom 3. Mexico 4. Argentina 5. Uruguay 6. United Arab Emirates 7. China 8. Turkey 9. Germany 10. Italy

Where is wheat reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, wheat is harvested with forced labor in Pakistan.⁸²²

The 2015 U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Pakistan as a Tier 2 Watch List country.⁸²³

⁸²² U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPR_A_Report2014.pdf

⁸²³ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

What does trafficking and/or child labor in wheat production look like?

The International Labor Organization (ILO) noted the presence of forced labor in the agricultural sector of Pakistan. This forced labor is mostly concentrated in the production of wheat, sugar, and tobacco. The predominant indicator of forced labor in the wheat sector in Pakistan is debt bondage; farmers take out loans from the landowner, and if the profits from the harvest are not adequate, the farmer may end up deeply indebted. Children of bonded labor may also be engaged in agricultural work.⁸²⁴

Children involved in wheat harvesting may be exposed to harsh conditions, hazardous machinery and pesticides.

Case Study:

Wheat Fields in Daska, Pakistan

In 2011, a story surfaced concerning forced labor in wheat fields in Daska, Pakistan. An influential landlord, with the cooperation of high school management, forced students to work in the wheat fields near the school in “sizzling hot and humid weather for several hours.” The landlord was reportedly a close relative of the headmaster of the school.⁸²⁵

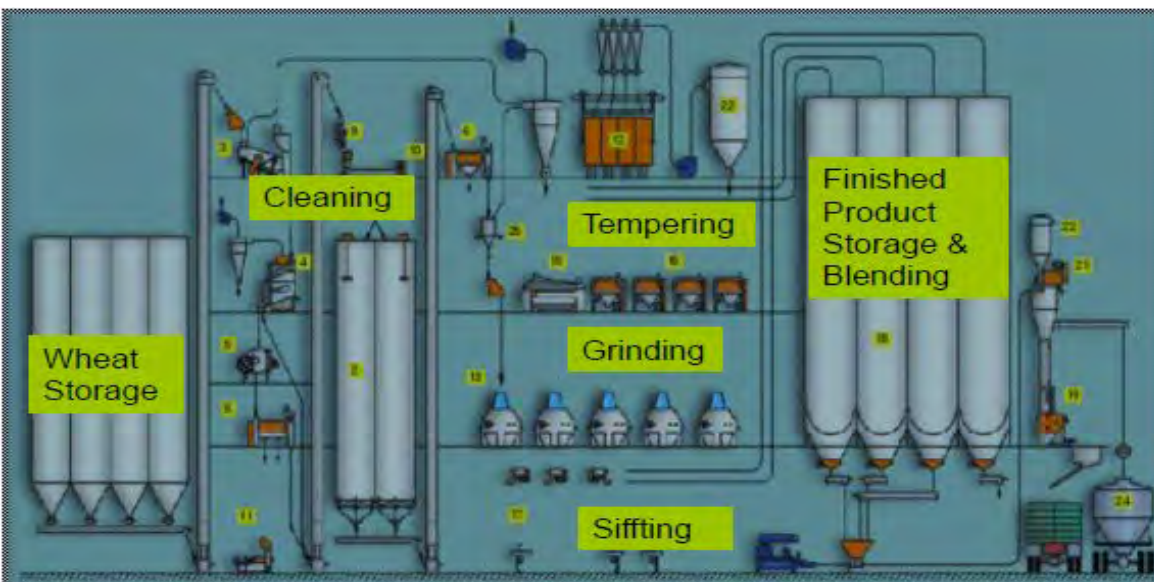
Wheat Production and Supply Chain:

After harvesting the stalks, the wheat is separated from other grains or foreign material and passed through machines to rid the wheat of any impurities. After that, the kernels enter a machine called a scourer to remove the husks and polish the seed. The kernels are then either moistened or dried, depending on the type of wheat, and stored for a number of hours in order to prepare the seed for milling. The mill grinds up the particles to the desired size and then they are sifted through and purified.⁸²⁶

⁸²⁴ International Labor Organization. Hussein, Maliha, et al. *Bonded Labour in Agriculture: A Rapid Assessment in Sindh and Baluchistan*, Pakistan. 2004;

⁸²⁵ The Nation. "Students Forced to Labour in Wheat Fields." May 12, 2011. <http://www.nation.com.pk/pakistan-news-newspaper-daily-english-online/lahore/12-May-2011/Students-forced-to-labour-in-wheat-fields>

⁸²⁶ Hashmi, Dr. Irfan. *Step by Step: Wheat Farming, Milling & Quality Requirements*. GrainCorp Storage & Handling. June 25, 2013. <http://www.iaom-mea.com/images/file/Tech-03-%20Grain%20Corp-IAOM%20Jordan-2011.pdf>



Source: Hashmi, Dr. Irfan. *Step by Step: Wheat Farming, Milling & Quality Requirements*. GrainCorp Storage & Handling. June 25, 2013. <http://www.iaom-mea.com/images/file/Tech-03-%20Grain%20Corp-IAOM%20Jordan-2011.pdf>

How do trafficking and/or child labor in wheat production affect me?



Wheat is the most ubiquitous staple food grain in the world and an important internationally traded commodity.⁸²⁷ Wheat is found in food products and is often made into flour. It also has several industrial uses in the production of paper, plastic, and various adhesive agents.⁸²⁸

Wheat is the third largest agricultural industry in Pakistan, where most wheat is consumed domestically.⁸²⁹ In 2013, Pakistan produced 24 million tons of wheat and exported about 1.1 million tons.⁸³⁰

⁸²⁷ Khan, Naheed Zia, Munir Ahmad and Asia Rasheed. *Wheat Production in Pakistan: Saga of Policy Disincentives*. Pakistan Institute of Developmental Economics. June 25, 2013.

<http://www.pide.org.pk/pdf/psde%2019AGM/Naheed%20Zia%20Khan,%20Munir%20Ahmed%20and%20Asia%20Rasheed.pdf>

⁸²⁸ Kansas Wheat Commission. *Alternative and Industrial Uses of Wheat*. June 25, 2013.

http://www.kswheat.com/consumerspageid261_UsesofWheat.shtml

⁸²⁹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *FAOSTAT Database: Food and Agricultural Commodities Production /Countries by Commodity*. 2012. http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/browse/rankings/countries_by_commodity/E

Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, Statistics Division (FAOSTAT). *Food and Agricultural Commodities Production*. 2011. <http://faostat.fao.org/DesktopDefault.aspx?PageID=339>

⁸³⁰ IndexMundi. *Pakistan Wheat Production by Year*. 2013.

<http://www.indexmundi.com/agriculture/?country=pk&commodity=wheat&graph=production>

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Stora Enso, a pulp and paper manufacturer in Finland, conducted a review of child labor in its wheat and recycled paper supply chains in Pakistan. The investigation found that child labor was the most significant risk among their smallest vendors. The report also laid out recommendations for a proposed multi-stakeholder initiative aimed at child labor avoidance.⁸³¹

Where can I learn more?

[Explore](#) the agricultural sector of Pakistan through the Food and Agriculture Organization.

[Watch](#) a video on wheat processing.

[Learn](#) in detail about step-by-step wheat processing.

Hasan, Munawar. "Sizeable wheat exports unlikely in FY 2014." *The International News*. June 11, 2013.

<http://www.thenews.com.pk/Todays-News-3-182957-Sizeable-wheat-exports-unlikely-in-FY14>

⁸³¹ Socio-Economic and Business Consultants Islamabad-Pakistan as submitted to Stora Enso. *Child Labour in Wheat Straw and Recycled Paper Supply Chains*.

http://assets.storaenso.com/se/com/DownloadCenterDocuments/SEBCON_Stora_Enso_Pakistan_report.pdf

Wool



Wool is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export wool worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports wool (UN Comtrade 2012):
Mongolia (CL) United States (FL indicators)	1. Australia 2. China 3. Italy 4. Germany 5. New Zealand 6. United Kingdom 7. Hong Kong 8. Czech Republic 9. South Africa 10. Japan	1. Italy 2. United Kingdom 3. China 4. Mexico 5. Canada 6. New Zealand 7. Peru 8. Australia 9. India 10. Germany

Where is wool reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

Wool was not listed as a good produced with forced or child labor in any country in the U.S. Department of Labor's 2014 or 2013 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. In Mongolia, child labor was reportedly used for shearing wool in addition to the sheep herding.⁸³² Child labor is likely to be used for herding sheep where children are also involved in herding cattle, but there appears to be little information on sheep herding specifically. Verité research found that sheep herders in the United States, including in Colorado and California, may experience indicators of forced labor.⁸³³

⁸³² Kane, J. *Helping Hands or Shackled Lives: Understanding Child Domestic Labor and Responses to it*. 2004. International Labor Organization. International Program on the Elimination of Child Labor (ILO-IPEC).
http://www.unicef.org/violencestudy/pdf/2004_domestic_Helpinghands_en.pdf

⁸³³ Verité. *Immigrant Workers in U.S. Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. 2010.
http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

According to the U.S. Department of State *Trafficking in Persons Report*, Mongolia is a Tier 2 country. The United States is listed as Tier 1.⁸³⁴

There are products which are made out of wool that also involve child and forced labor, such as reported forced child labor in Nepal in the production of woven wool carpets.⁸³⁵ For more information, see the *Apparel and Textiles Sector Report*.

What does trafficking and/or child labor in wool production look like?

According to Verité research, indicators of human trafficking involving migrant workers can be found in the sheep herding industry in the United States.⁸³⁶ Shepherds, primarily Chilean and Peruvian, enter the United States on H2-A visas. There are special labor certification procedures for employers who employ foreign sheepherders who enter the country on H-2A visas. These procedures were developed without notice and comment rulemaking, and the U.S. Department of Labor is currently under court order to issue new regulations pertaining to labor certification of H-2A sheepherders using notice and comment procedures. Sheepherders are vulnerable because they are required to be on call 24 hours per day, seven days per week, and work largely in isolation on the open range. Because shepherds are extremely geographically and socially isolated on the ranch, they have little chance of escape should their employers use abusive practices. Workers interviewed by Verité reported that employers used threats of deportation, violence, blacklisting, and retention of workers' pay, identity documents, and return tickets to keep workers enslaved. Despite regulatory prohibitions against employers charging H-2A workers recruitment fees, shepherds may take out loans to pay recruitment fees to recruiters in their home countries, and they would have no means of paying back loans if they were deported or dismissed, thus risking further impoverishment.⁸³⁷

Child labor in sheep herding most often takes place in familial or informal labor arrangements, particularly within rural agricultural or nomadic communities.⁸³⁸ Children may be involved with guiding animals, watching over their safety (both from other animals and thieves), cleaning animals and their housing, caring for sick animals, or fetching water for animals. Children may care for their own family's animals or for the animals of an employer.⁸³⁹

In Mongolia, children are involved in caring for livestock, which may include shearing wool and tending to sheep.⁸⁴⁰

⁸³⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

⁸³⁵ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Forced and Child Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁸³⁶ Verité. *Immigrant Workers in U.S. Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. 2010. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

⁸³⁷ Verité. *Immigrant Workers in U.S. Agriculture: The Role of Labor Brokers in Vulnerability to Forced Labor*. 2010. http://www.verite.org/sites/default/files/images/HELP%20WANTED_A%20Verite%CC%81%20Report_Migrant%20Workers%20in%20the%20United%20States.pdf

⁸³⁸ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). *Children's Work in the Livestock Sector: Herding and Beyond*. 2013. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/017/i3098e/i3098e.pdf>

⁸³⁹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). *Children's Work in the Livestock Sector: Herding and Beyond*. 2013. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/017/i3098e/i3098e.pdf>

⁸⁴⁰ Kane, J. *Helping Hands or Shackled Lives: Understanding Child Domestic Labor and Responses to it*. 2004. International Labor Organization. International Program on the Elimination of Child Labor (ILO-IPEC). http://www.unicef.org/violencestudy/pdf/2004_domestic_Helpinghands_en.pdf

Wool production and supply chain:

Wool is a natural protein fiber which comes from sheep. The acts of herding, tending to, and shearing the sheep are all labor intensive steps in the production of wool. After the sheep hair is sheared it must be cleaned, carded, dyed, and made into yarn.

How do trafficking and/or child labor in wool production affect me?

Wool products are turned into consumer goods, such as blankets, clothing, and artisan products, which are sold throughout the world.

Wool is used in military apparel and uniforms. The U.S. military uses 20 to 25 percent of all U.S. wool.⁸⁴¹

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

A 2013 report from the Food and Agriculture Administration of the UN (FAO) makes recommendations to civil society, governments, and the private sector on addressing child labor in the livestock sector, including shepherding. The report notes that more extensive study of the livestock and herding sectors is necessary, including research on working conditions, contractual agreements, and gender aspects of work in the sector.⁸⁴²

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) Verité's report on forced labor in the sheep herding industry of the United States.

⁸⁴¹ American Sheep Industry Association. *Wool Trust Report*. 2013.
<http://www.ams.usda.gov/AMSV1.0/getfile?dDocName=STELPRDC5108519>

⁸⁴² Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). *Children's Work in the Livestock Sector: Herding and Beyond*. 2013. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/017/i3098e/i3098e.pdf>

Zinc



Zinc is reportedly produced with forced labor (FL) and/or child labor (CL) in the following countries:	Top ten countries that export zinc worldwide (UN Comtrade 2012):	Top ten countries from which the US imports zinc (UN Comtrade 2012):
Bolivia (CL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Canada 2. Belgium 3. South Korea 4. Kazakhstan 5. Australia 6. Spain 7. Germany 8. Netherlands 9. Finland 10. Peru 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Canada 2. Mexico 3. China 4. Peru 5. Australia 6. Belgium 7. Germany 8. Other Asia (not elsewhere specified) 9. India 10. Brazil

Where is zinc reportedly produced with trafficking and/or child labor?

According to the 2014 U.S. Department of Labor *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*, zinc is mined with child labor in Bolivia.⁸⁴³ The U.S. Department of State 2015 *Trafficking in Persons Report* lists Bolivia as a Tier 2 Watch List country.⁸⁴⁴

What does trafficking and/or child labor in zinc production look like?

Children generally mine zinc in Bolivia in artisanal mines or in mines abandoned by commercial mining companies. Children, known as ‘jucus’ are engaged in pushing carts, drilling, and extracting and cleaning ore. Children and adults working in clandestine mines work without adequate safety equipment, ventilation or proper lighting and are vulnerable to illness and injuries from falls, lung damage from dust,

⁸⁴³ U.S. Department of Labor. 2014 *List of Goods Produced by Child Labor or Forced Labor*. 2014. http://www.dol.gov/ilab/reports/pdf/TVPRA_Report2014.pdf

⁸⁴⁴ U.S. Department of State. *Trafficking in Persons Report*. 2015. <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/245365.pdf>

repetitive motion stress injuries, working long hours and carrying heavy loads.⁸⁴⁵ Because mining sites are hundreds of years old and poorly maintained, workers are also at risk of being killed in collapsing mine shafts.⁸⁴⁶ In 2008, at least 60 children died from mine collapses. An estimated 3,000 children, some as young as six, work in mining in Bolivia.⁸⁴⁷ Poverty is the primary driver of child mining. In western Bolivia, where most illicit mining is found, entire families are dependent on earnings from children's work in the mines.⁸⁴⁸

Zinc Production and Supply Chain:

Most zinc mines are underground, although some are “open pit” formations. Most zinc is mined by large mining companies. Zinc ore contains less than 85 percent zinc, so it is concentrated before it can be smelted. Zinc is concentrated through a process of grinding and separating. The zinc concentrate is then roasted to remove sulfur. The zinc then goes through a process of hydrometallurgy⁸⁴⁹ (International Zinc Association).

Zinc ore mined by *jucus* is sold to intermediaries known as ‘*rescatistas*.’ Rescatistas sell larger quantities of ore to mining companies.⁸⁵⁰

How do trafficking and/or child labor in zinc production affect me?



About half of the 12 million tons of zinc produced annually are used to protect steel from corrosion. Zinc is also used in the production of zinc alloys in the die casting industry and to produce brass and bronze. Zinc is used in construction applications such as roofing, gutters, and pipes; consumer goods and electrical appliances; transport; and engineering.⁸⁵¹

⁸⁴⁵ World Vision. [Bolivia] *If You Fall, No One's Gonna Carry You Out: Children Who Work in Tin Mines*. 2007. [http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/\\$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf](http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf)

World Vision. [Bolivia] *If You Fall, No One's Gonna Carry You Out: Children Who Work in Tin Mines*. 2007. [http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/\\$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf](http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf)

⁸⁴⁶ Forero, Juan. “As Bolivian Miners Die, Boys are Left to Toil.” *The New York Times*. March 24, 2003

⁸⁴⁷ National Public Radio (NPR). “Thousands of Children as Young as 6 Work in Bolivia's Mines.” November 30, 2013. <http://www.npr.org/2013/11/30/247967228/thousands-of-children-as-young-as-6-work-in-bolivias-mines>

⁸⁴⁸ Schipani, Andres. “Plight of Bolivia's Child Miners.” *British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC)*. June 14, 2008. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/7448032.stm>

⁸⁴⁹ International Zinc Association. “Zinc Production – From Ore to Metal.” *Zinc Basics*. http://www.zinc.org/basics/zinc_production

⁸⁵⁰ World Vision. [Bolivia] *If You Fall, No One's Gonna Carry You Out: Children Who Work in Tin Mines*. 2007. [http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/\\$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf](http://www.worldvision.org/resources.nsf/main/work_bolivia_200706.pdf/$file/work_bolivia_200706.pdf)

⁸⁵¹ International Zinc Association. “Zinc Production – From Ore to Metal.” *Zinc Basics*. http://www.zinc.org/basics/zinc_production

Examples of what governments, corporations, and others are doing:

Bolivia recently legalized child labor for workers as young as ten years old, provided they attend school.⁸⁵² However, mining remains a worst form of child labor under Bolivian law, and it is therefore illegal for any child.⁸⁵³ According to a 2014 NPR report, mining remains attractive to juvenile Bolivian workers because of the possibility of higher levels of income, as compared to other jobs that are open to children.

Where can I learn more?

[Read](#) this report on child labor in Bolivian mines.

⁸⁵² Aljazeera America. “Bolivia Makes Child Labor Legal from Age 10.” July 18, 2014.
<http://america.aljazeera.com/articles/2014/7/18/bolivia-child-labor.html>

⁸⁵³ National Public Radio (NPR). “Bolivia makes Child Labor Legal in an Attempt to Make it Safer.” July 30, 2014.
<http://www.npr.org/2014/07/30/336361778/bolivia-makes-child-labor-legal-in-an-attempt-to-make-it-safer>.