



RESPONSIBLE SOURCING TOOL

Tool 6: Supply Chain Mapping and Risk Screening

Protections Against Trafficking in Persons Supply Chain Mapping and Risk Screening

Supply chain mapping allows a company to trace the chain of custody — and points of accountability — at all levels of production, from extraction or procurement of raw materials to processing, manufacturing, packaging, and distribution to final sale. The supply chain for each product — including miners, growers, processors, manufacturers, suppliers, logistics providers, vendors, agents, and traders — will be unique, so supply chain mapping should be conducted on a product-by-product or service basis.

Identifying first tier or “direct” suppliers is a straightforward process, but it can be more challenging to identify the suppliers’ suppliers, and then their suppliers, comprising the second, third, and lower tiers of the supply chain. In the context of manufacturing, energy, and construction supply chains, this means being able to trace products or raw materials back to the quarry where stone was cut, the mine where ore was extracted, as well as to the facilities where components, coatings, fasteners, and packaging were manufactured.

Most sectors are characterized by complex supply chains and there is a large degree of variety and diversity among them. Some supply chains are relatively short and transparent. For example, some building materials, such as lumber, may simply be harvested, milled, and shipped to distributors and retailers. This is more likely to be true for “whole” products (e.g., wooden beams or stone slabs). However, where such raw materials are used simply as ingredients in processed products, more processing steps and supply chain tiers are involved, with each supply chain tier performing another process and adding yet other materials and components. Each additional tier of the supply chain can further obscure a material’s origins, leaving little visibility into working conditions along the way.

However, once a supply chain has been mapped, companies are able to assess risk at a variety of levels. This tool provides guidance on assessing risk at the level of country of production and type of production and describes how human trafficking risk might manifest in practice at various worksites in supply chains.

GUIDE TO SUPPLY CHAIN MAPPING

Many companies already conduct some form of supply chain or traceability mapping as part of procurement and contracting and to comply with product quality and safety regulations. Visibility is typically limited to direct suppliers; however, rather than sub-tier suppliers where risk is likely to be higher. A company with a full understanding of its supply chain can more accurately target detailed risk assessments and interventions, thereby working to mitigate their risk of the worst labor abuses, including human trafficking.

The process of mapping a supply chain beyond direct/first-tier suppliers includes surveying first-tier suppliers to gather information about their suppliers (second-tier suppliers or indirect service providers, such as janitorial staff). Second-tier suppliers can then be queried about their suppliers, and so on, to the bottom of the supply chain. Types of suppliers found in typical supply chains include:

Primary producers mine, extract, grow or harvest raw materials or commodities and include mines, timber harvesters, quarries, oil, and gas production, etc.

Processors, such as lumber mills, oil refineries, and smelters transform commodities into components and production materials for further processing, manufacturing, and construction. Processing may be controlled by the producer of the raw material or commodity.

Manufacturers produce finished products and own the brand name, processes, and product specifications or simply make component parts and assemblies for final assembly by others. In the case of chemicals and wood products, the manufacturer may also be the producer.

Traders facilitate transactions of commodities between buyers and sellers. They may purchase goods from producers or other brokers and sell to processors.

Distributors arrange for transfer of goods, but do not produce goods.

Logistics providers, shippers, or transporters physically move goods from one location to another and may also manage inventory for distributors and manufacturers.

In addition to tracing the flow of materials and services throughout the operation, companies must map their **labor supply chain**; that is, the involvement of third-party labor providers or recruiters. In some cases, suppliers may hire their labor directly, but in many

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others, third-party labor recruiters have their own complex chain of sub-recruiters as well as sending and receiving country agents. Through this mapping process, companies can gain an understanding about the geography and structure of their supply chains, which can be used to inform risk assessment efforts (see Table 1 below).

Information can be gathered from:

- supplier self-assessments/self-reporting
- supplier interviews
- supplier site visits and audits (documents, records, observations, and interviews)
- receipts and purchase orders

Table 1

Information to Gather from Suppliers in Supply Chain Mapping		
Profile Information		Sources of potential risk
Minimum recommended profile information	Supplier name	
	Supplier headquarters address	
	Location of supplier facilities and worksites	Evaluate risks relevant to country of operation (see Table 2)
	Type of product or service provided by each facility or worksite	Evaluate human trafficking vulnerability tied to type of production (see Tables 3)
Additional recommended profile information	Approximate number of workers hired directly	
	Approximate number of workers hired through sub-contractors and recruiters	Use of third-party labor recruiters or other sub-contractors increases human trafficking risk overall in any given operation. Work sites with a relatively high proportion of sub-contracted workers to directly hired workers should be

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		prioritized. See Tools 03 and 05 for more information on screening and evaluating labor recruiters.
	Seasonality of production or service delivery	Production or service levels that fluctuate by season may suggest increased risk of temporary or casual labor and therefore particular attention should be paid to potential use of labor recruiters and labor contractors (see above).
	Types of jobs at worksite	Prioritize facilities with relatively higher concentrations of low-skilled, low-paid, hazardous, or otherwise undesirable work.
	Presence of migrant workers (Y/N)	Migrant workers are particularly vulnerable to human trafficking in many contexts within supply chains.
	Origin country of migrant workers	Evaluate risks relative to country of labor supply . See https://www.responsiblesourcingtool.org/understandrisk for more information.

Once a map of suppliers is assembled, a company can begin to identify geographic regions, products, and particular suppliers most likely to have elevated human trafficking risk in their operations. A solid initial approach to risk screening involves evaluating the risks associated with the economic sector or industry in question, in combination with an appraisal of the risk factors associated with the countries in which the supply chain operates or from which it draws its workforce. Ideally, a company will assess the risks of a specific supply chain in a specific geographic location. For example, while a country overall may have low rates of migrant workers, migrant workers may be concentrated in certain types of industries (such as agriculture or construction). Examining the supply chain and country in combination also allows for a more thorough review of incidents of exploitation previously documented.

In supply chains characterized by sector, location-based human trafficking risk, or both location and sector, companies should exercise heightened due diligence through efforts to enhance visibility into individual supplier practices.

There are a variety of commercial and public resources available to assist with human trafficking risk assessment at the level of sector/industry and geographic location — the resources in the [Responsible Sourcing Tool](#) provide insight into the factors listed below.

POTENTIAL RISK FACTORS IN SUPPLY CHAINS

Table 2

Country-based Risk Factors

1. Legal/Policy Risk Factors (see Tool 01B):

- a. What level of legal protection for civil liberties and workers’ rights does the law provide?
- b. What ILO Conventions on forced labor or rights of workers and migrants have been ratified?

2. Political Risk Factors:

- a. Level of political instability or conflict
- b. Level of crime and violence
- c. Level of state persecution
- d. Level of corruption

3. Socio-economic Risk Factors:

- a. Presence and concentration of migrant workers
- b. Presence of migrant workers from vulnerable countries
- c. Level of national economic development
- d. Level and extent of poverty
- e. Degree of gender inequality
- f. Degree of landlessness and dispossession

Table 3

Sector-based Risk Factors

- 1. Structural Supply Chain Features** that enhance vulnerabilities to human trafficking:
 - a. Long, complex, and/or non-transparent supply chains
 - b. Seasonal surges in labor demand
 - c. Short production cycles
 - d. Undesirable and hazardous work
- 2. Vulnerable Workforce:**
 - a. Migrant labor
 - b. Casual, temporary labor
 - c. Child labor
 - d. Gender inequality
 - e. Restricted Freedom of Association
 - f. Indigenous populations
 - g. Hereditary/traditional slavery
 - h. Presence of labor intermediaries

The factors listed above are described in greater detail at <https://www.responsiblesourcingtool.org/understandrisk>

Table 4

Cross-sector Risk Factors

Gender: In countries with high degrees of gender inequality, women typically have fewer rights and legal protections than men and less access to the education necessary to obtain high-skilled jobs. Women in gender-unequal societies are often structurally dependent on men for financial security and access to land. Those who lack access to male protection or wealth (for example, widows, unmarried women, and girls from poor families) and with few resources of their own might be forced into undesirable or hazardous jobs, or mistreatment by unethical employers.

Large-Scale Land Acquisition: Large-scale land acquisition or consolidations, sometimes referred to as land grabs, often leave local populations without livelihood options. The loss of land for subsistence agriculture, cash crops, or other

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traditional livelihoods can create a local labor force that must either accept work for the company operating on the acquired land or migrate out of the area in search of work to earn money to buy food.

Women and indigenous groups may be at increased risk for displacement as their property rights are often less well-protected or acknowledged under some country legal regimes.

Environmental Degradation: Environmental issues can displace people from their land, disrupt traditional livelihood strategies, cause illness, and generally increase the vulnerability of local populations to human trafficking and other forms of exploitation. Deforestation, the collapse of fisheries, recurring drought, or disease of staple crops may also lead to greater risk for human trafficking. Such hardships are known to lead to pervasive poverty and insecurity among the populations who depend on the affected resource bases.

Assessing Risks of Individual Suppliers

After a company has developed a working supply chain map (see Appendix 1), they should seek to gain insight into the actual practices of individual suppliers and the labor recruiters those suppliers engage. The following tools provide guidance on conducting these risks assessments:

1. Labor Recruiter Screening Tool (Tool 7)
2. Sample Supplier Self-Assessment Questionnaire (Tool 8)
3. Labor Recruiter Monitoring Tool (Tool 9)
4. Migrant Worker Interview Tool (Tool 10)

POTENTIAL HUMAN TRAFFICKING RISK BY SECTOR

To understand human trafficking and other labor risks at the level of production or service delivery, it is important to understand the wide variety of industry sectors and worksites along the supply chain, each of which, in turn, can engage many different types of workers of workers. As a result, each type of worksite has a different risk profile for workers.

The following sections present the risk considerations for four industry sectors: agriculture, construction, electronics manufacturing, and facilities services.

1. Agriculture

Overview

Agricultural producers can range widely in terms of scale and modernization from small family farms — typically producing largely for subsistence needs — to large-scale commercial plantations. In addition, there are a variety of farm management models. The two primary types are contract and independent farm management. On contract farms, a larger company provides inputs to individual farmers, dictating terms such as quality and contracts to purchase a set amount. In a centralized model with vertical integration, the company relies on a centralized processor or packer.

This model is typically used for tree crops, dairy, poultry, and other hand-harvested crops that require some level of initial processing. In the nucleus or estate model, in addition to a centralized processing or packing plant, the larger company also maintains a plantation to supplement harvest from contracted smaller producers. Smaller producers may also make more informal, temporary contracts with purchasing companies or sell directly to unaffiliated intermediaries. This range of management models has implications for supply chain transparency as well as the ability to cascade social expectations — including protections against trafficking in persons — to the lowest tiers of the supply chain.

Trafficking in Persons Risks in Agriculture:

- Hazardous/undesirable work;
- Vulnerable, easily replaced and/or low-skilled workforce;
- Migrant workforce;
- Presence of labor contractors and recruiters;
- Seasonal nature of work

The labor on farms, regardless of farm management type, can include different categories of workers, who may have varying levels of vulnerability to trafficking in persons.

Approximately 40 percent of workers in agriculture supply chains globally are hired workers – both permanent and seasonal. Permanent workers are engaged directly by growers. On farms producing goods in a seasonal cycle, there is relatively little need for permanently engaged staff, so numbers of permanent workers tend to be lower across the sector. Seasonal/temporary workers in agriculture are often engaged via a third-party labor recruiter. Seasonal and/or temporary work is tied to high rates of turnover among workers in the agricultural sector, which can create challenges for workers in terms of advocating for their rights or expressing grievances. Large farms and plantations with considerable

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staffing needs are also more likely to rely on third-party labor recruiters, which can increase vulnerability to human trafficking.

The mechanisms of labor recruiter-induced human trafficking vary depending on countries and contexts; however, there is often deception about the nature of the work and various fees that are deducted from the workers' wages. Some recruiters work for large formal operations and have their own subcontractors, while others are individuals operating independently.

In the agricultural context, recruiters — often referred to as farm labor contractors — often 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 recruiters the minimum wage per each worker employed, these payments are often not passed on to workers by the labor recruiters, who take excessive deductions for transportation, housing, food, and other services. There have also been cases in which labor recruiters have threatened and beaten workers who have tried to leave their employer. Additionally, labor “cooperatives” may sometimes act as employment agencies. These are not cooperatives in the traditional sense, in which small and medium enterprises jointly maximize their marketing potential; rather, these worker cooperatives recruit workers into a larger labor pool and contract this labor out to plantations or other employers. In such cases, the cooperative functions similarly to an employment agency or labor recruiter. The worker's employment relationship is with the cooperative, not the plantation.

Farm owners may engage tenant or sharecroppers to work on their land under a profit-sharing agreement that can vary depending on context. It is important to note that these tenant farmers or sharecroppers may also engage the work of their families or hired workers. Tenants or sharecroppers in rural areas are typically landless themselves and lack access to credit or capital. They may be expected to pay for inputs, creating cycles of debt with the landowner and further incentivizing use of inexpensive vulnerable labor.

Regardless of type of engagement, there is a high degree of migrant labor in agriculture production, particularly in relatively economically prosperous countries; the migrant worker population tends to be composed of transnational migrants from poorer countries. 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. 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.

Women produce half of the world's food and up to approximately 90 percent of staple crops, primarily as smallholder or subsistence farmers. However, most women lack access to credit, inputs, markets, training, and tools — and 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. There is strong evidence that female farm workers face high rates of sexual abuse and harassment, often at the hands of farm labor contractors, who oversee workers' hours, wages, and living arrangements. Fear of retaliation or deportation strongly discourages women from reporting this abuse.

2. Construction

Overview

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. Enterprises within the construction sector can include self-employed individuals, labor contractors, materials suppliers, and international engineering firms. Concrete, steel, wood, brick, and quarried stone are some of the many materials used on construction sites.

Trafficking in Persons Risks Present in Construction

- Vulnerable, easily replaced and/or low-skilled workforce;
- Use of labor recruiters;
- Migrant workforce; and
- Hazardous/undesirable work.

According to the ILO, construction is one of the primary sectors in which workers are highly vulnerable to human trafficking. 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. These workers can be intimidated by the fact that should they express grievances, they can be quickly

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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,

Children may be involved in construction in many countries. 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 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.

Migrant workers are at risk of trafficking in the construction sector throughout the world. Construction and development of infrastructure in the Middle East is largely dependent on short-term labor migration, mostly from Asia and Africa. 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.

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.:

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.

3. Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing

Overview

The manufacture of electronics and electrical products consist of 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. 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 and insulated wire.

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

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.

Trafficking in Persons Risks Present in Electronics and Electrical Products Manufacturing:

- Vulnerable, easily replaced and/or low-skilled workforce;
- Presence of labor recruiters;
- Migrant workforce; and
- Hazardous/undesirable work.

High value-adding labor in this sector is concentrated in advanced economies, however, with brands in the United States, Japan, and Europe accounting for the majority of global value added. 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.

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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 in the emerging economies in Asia is generally over 50 percent. In China, much electronics and electrical manufacturing is done by young women who migrate to urban areas temporarily to earn money before marriage. In regional manufacturing hubs like Malaysia, many electronics workers are migrants from other poorer Southeast Asian countries like Nepal, Burma, Vietnam, and Indonesia. Workers also flow in substantial numbers from China, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and sometimes Eastern Europe into manufacturing hubs like Singapore, Taiwan, and Japan.

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. 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.

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.

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, 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 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

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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.

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 major manufacturing hubs for electronics overseas, it is also common for firms to rely on short-term contracts and temporary agencies for labor sourcing. In many cases, workers in this sector work in a factory, but are employed not by the factory but rather by an outsourcing agent.

Migrant workers in electronics factories may be 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.

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.

The electronics manufacturing sector is a globalized industry made up of a vast network of companies and suppliers. 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. 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. Because production in the sector is so globalized, it relies heavily on inputs from the transportation and logistics sectors and other supporting service sector industries.

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.

4. Facilities Services

Overview

There are a number of different services included in the Facilities Services, including janitorial services, facilities maintenance, grounds maintenance, 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 hospitals, military bases, and federal prisons. Staffing in the sector ranges from the informal employment of individual cleaners 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, Manufacturing, and Transportation and Warehousing sectors for the purposes of risk analysis for human trafficking. As a service-based industry, however, facilities services delivery is by nature localized, and by far the most significant risk of human trafficking in the sector derives from the supply of labor.

Trafficking in Persons Risks Present in Facilities Services:

- Vulnerable, easily replaced and/or low-skilled workforce;
- Presence of labor recruiters;
- Migrant workforce; and
- Hazardous/undesirable work.

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

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repairs in buildings. 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. Grounds maintenance workers mow, seed, 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. 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. 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.

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, with the largest numbers employed in Latin America and the Caribbean and Asia and the Pacific, although rates of employment of servants were also high in the less densely populated Middle East. Most domestic workers are women, and the employment arrangements tend to be informal, with varied employment titles and arrangements. 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.

Many positions within the facilities services sector 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. Janitorial jobs require long hours of walking, standing, or bending and sometimes involve moving and lifting heavy supplies and equipment. 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. Janitors may have to work night shifts as well, depending on the nature of the facility being cleaned, and are often not given enough time to complete their tasks, which adds an additional element of danger and stress. 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 and seasonal work is often associated with income instability for workers. Security guards work long hours standing or sitting, and by

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its nature their work has the potential to be very dangerous. 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. 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.

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 of 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.

Workers who lack legal immigration status may be particularly vulnerable to exploitation by employers or outsourcing agents, who may use the threat of arrest or deportation to enforce their labor.

Migrant workers in facilities services 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.

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In the United States, a large proportion of the workers in housekeeping industries are temporary migrants. 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 insufficient numbers of appropriate workers are available locally, migrants are imported for such jobs, raising the risk of human trafficking.

Labor brokers, outsourcing agents, and other middlemen play a significant role in the supply of labor to facilities services sector. 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, as well as job placement fees. These workers frequently must 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.