

LECTURE: TERRORISM, HOSTAGE- TAKING AND MODERN-DAY SLAVERY

- In order to prevent the support of terrorist organizations and the violence that follows, it is imperative to have a consistent stance that **terrorism is immoral**.
- Understanding that terrorism is a complex instrument that is often used as a last resort, will help the current forces work to eliminate terrorism and make room for means of communication between those with power and those without.

INTRODUCTION

- It is a misconception that terrorism is a new approach to warfare; terrorism has existed throughout history.
- The reason that terrorism seems more prevalent today is because of technology.
- Large scale weapons enable terrorism to transform from small localized attacks to large international attacks with high numbers of casualties and widespread fear.
- One primary goal is to make a statement and reach a particular audience.
- With the development of technology, long range communication and travel is easier. The idea of terrorism is more appealing to the terrorist because they can reach a worldwide audience at a relatively small cost.



LIVING IN A MODERN WORLD

Modernization increases competition between people/groups in an attempt to gain access to vital resources. This leads to widening gaps between economic classes and groups.



Disadvantaged groups find inequality intolerable and press for social change. Because of limited resources they often feel that their only option is terrorism.



Friction between minority groups in close vicinity can cause them to break from society and create smaller social organizations.

Individuals with religious, ethnic, or linguistic affiliations find commonality that often becomes political.

The development of these groups often causes political friction and social unrest, the two conditions that greatly increase the likelihood for individuals to engage in terrorism (Husain, 2006).

Wilkinson (2006) identifies 4 groups of non-state movements: ethno-nationalist groups (motivated by ethnicity and politics), ideological groups (motivated by specific ideologies), religio-political groups (motivated by beliefs) and single-issue groups (e.g. Animal Liberation Front).



Terrorist violence most often is deliberate (not impulsive), strategic, and instrumental; it is linked to and justified by ideological (e.g., political, religious) objectives and involves multiple actors/supporters .

It is necessary to support the idea that terrorism is immoral. No matter how valid the reasoning behind it is, violence is never justified.

Modernization and urbanization cause rapid social change bringing diverse backgrounds and values together and creating instability in the government structure.

Norms are altered and central government structures weakened.

Weak government and a shifting political dynamic allow terrorists to gather support.

Whilst it is possible for an individual to carry out acts of terror alone, the power of the group can be much more influential (Husain, 2006, Milgram, 1974).

Before attempting to explore terrorism, it is necessary to understand the act of violence



Violence

- To others:
- Behaviour involving physical force intended to hurt, damage, or kill someone or something.



Violence

- To self:
- This includes suicide and self-mutilation.



Terrorism

- A terroristic method of governing or of resisting a government.
- The unofficial or unauthorized use of violence and intimidation in the pursuit of political aims.

SOME QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER:

In addition to the physical/violent effects, there is no doubt that terrorist acts have a substantial psychological impact on the victims and the surrounding communities.

Are the police more resilient than the ordinary lay person?

Are terrorists mad/bad/abnormal, or are they normal individuals?

Are they psychopathic, given their extreme and immoral behaviours?

Do suicide bombers have a similar psychological profile to a suicidal individual?

BRIEF HISTORY OF TERRORISM

1969 – Northern Ireland Troubles (between republican groups: the provisional IRA, the real IRA and the continuity IRA, and loyalist paramilitary organisations).

Bombing of Conservative Party Conference in Brighton (1984).

1986-7 – Kidnapping of Terry Waite and others in Beirut.

1990`s – Combat 18, rising militancy within the BNP.

1994 – Israeli Embassy, London.

2001 – 9/11 New York.

2005 – London Bombings.

2008 – Failed suicide bomb attack in Exeter.

2013 – Birmingham bombings of mosques.

2015 - Tunisia.

2017 – Westminster Bridge, Manchester Arena.

EXPLAINING TERRORISM

Whilst we know that terrorism is aimed at changing government policy, community values and religious ideologies, the boundaries between differing groups are not clear cut. For some nations, what is viewed as terrorism, may be perceived as freedom fighting or martyrdom.

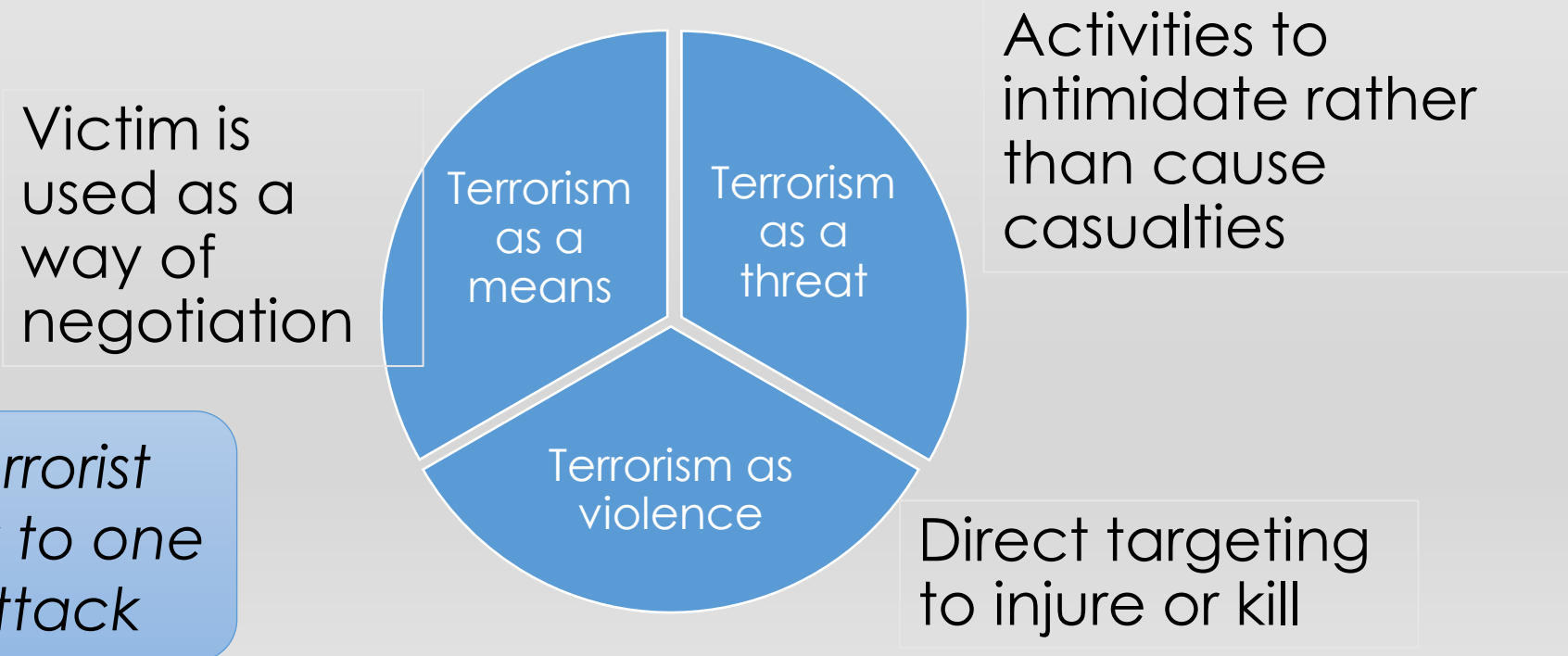
The nature of terrorism has changed in the last 50 years.

Previously, terrorist attacks were not designed to alienate the public, e.g., IRA; they would usually provide a warning in advance of their attack.

Modern terrorism focuses on indiscriminate mass destruction and there has been a significant increase in suicide bombing since the first modern suicide bomber outside the Israeli Embassy in 1981.

TYPES OF TERRORIST ACT

- Because of the various forms of terrorist activities, it can be difficult to establish patterns of behaviour. However using one database – ITERATE Yokota and colleagues (2007) identified three types of terrorist act:



CONSEQUENCES OF TERRORISM

Di Maggio & Galea (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of the aftermath of 9/11. The rate of PTSD was between 12 & 16% in affected population.



Gabriel et al. (2007) looked at the aftermath of the Madrid train bombings in 2004. In the three months after the event where nearly 200 people died, they looked at three groups:

Those injured in the
blasts

The residents of the
local area

The police involved
in the rescue



They found mental health problems in 58%, 26% and 4% of the individual groups respectively.

CONSEQUENCES CONTINUED



Jhangiani (2010) reviewed 118 studies of the psychological consequences of 9/11 and found that in general there was poorer mental health overall in New York and Washington for up to six months after the events.



Moreover, the effects were worse if:

There was a history of mental health conditions

They lived in close proximity to the areas

If they knew someone who was involved in the tragedy



However, a positive outcome also emerged; there was a long-term increase in helping behaviour, an increase in people's belief in religion and a rise in general life satisfaction.

TERRORIST PERSONALITY- SUICIDE BOMBERS

- Are suicide bombers all religious zealots?
- The Tamil Tigers of Sri Lanka are not, they are a political movement, but they are responsible for a significant amount of suicide bombings worldwide.
- Furthermore, we often associate violent acts with males, however a significant proportion of suicide bombers are female. In particular, the Tamil Tigers and the Kurdistan Workers Party often utilise females in their suicide bombings.



PSYCHOPATHOLOGY & TERRORISM

Research has shown that terrorists are no different (Ruby, 2002; Borum, 2004).

Merari (2007) studies 32 suicide bombers and found no evidence for social dysfunction or suicidal tendencies.

In addition, academics have commented that it is too simplistic to view them as extreme religious fanatics.

We do we associate their deviance with madness?

We like to think that such atrocities must mean they have some form of abnormality or personality defect.

However, think back to Milgram (1974) and how easily ordinary individuals will obey commands to create harm.

PSYCHOPATHY & TERRORISM

- Due to the extreme atrocities, humiliation and slow videoed decapitations, we ask the question in terms of psychopathy.
- Borum (2004) argues that terrorists and suicide bombers are very different to psychopaths;
- Psychopaths are generally not good at working within organisations and furthermore, terrorists and suicide bombers do not share any of the defining characteristics of a psychopath.



SUICIDAL TENDENCIES

Although suicide bombers are responsible for a high number of deaths, the acts themselves are still relatively rare.

Suicide bombers are generally stable, ordinary and viewed as heroic and in a positive light by family members.

Townends (2007) assessed the similarities and differences between what we know on general suicide victims and what psychological characteristics we know of in potential suicide bombers.

There were absolutely no correlations between the two groups and their motivations behind their actions were very different.

Furthermore, in the general population religion is a protective factor from suicide, whereas in SB's religion is the driving factor, along with revenge.

TERRORIST PROFILE

- What are the potential problems in creating a terrorist profile?
- For suicide bombers, there is clearly very little point.
- In addition, creating a profile may be counter-productive...
- Organisations would just recruit the opposite to the profile and those individuals would be less likely to come to the attention of the security forces.
- Can we then describe a `typical SB or terrorist`?
- Early attempts by Russell & Miller (1977) identified young, urban,, middle-upper class, university educated single male that subscribes to extreme ideologies... BUT?

RISK & REHABILITATION

Measuring risk factors is very problematic because they are essentially `normal`.

And, how would you assess risk in a convicted terrorist?

Dernevik et al. (2009) argue that psychologists and psychiatrists do not have sufficient knowledge to produce an accurate risk assessment because:

Different terrorists come to terrorism via different pathways

Recidivism is difficult to calculate because there is often no prior criminal activity

Psychometric measures do not apply

They do not have personal criminal histories

WHAT MAKES A TERRORIST?

Even with the most vulnerable individual, creating a terrorist takes time.



The psychological motivations used by recruiters are

Belonging

Personal identification



Factors such as social alienation, boredom and dissidence can eventually lead to terrorism.



Merari (2007) notes that some individuals may be vulnerable to indoctrination, particularly SB's as they were often young and unattached. Also, there are histories of abuse, trauma, humiliation and perceived injustice.

RECRUITMENT TACTICS

Terrorist organisations recruit via interpersonal connections, supporting individuals up to the point of becoming a SB.

Group members will spend hours promoting martyrdom and the will of God, enmeshing individuals with one another and increasing their allegiance to the organisation, each other and the final contract.

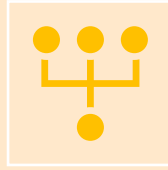
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graph TD; A[Indoctrination] --> B[Group commitment]; B --> C[Personal commitment];
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Indoctrination

Group
commitment

Personal
commitment

RECRUITMENT TACTICS



Deciding to become a SB is not a conscious decision, but rather a gradual involvement and the process of socialisation.



Borum (2004) used `life story studies` to help identify those individuals susceptible to influence.



It appears to be attributed to group processes rather than individual psychology.



Soibelman (2004) interviewed 5 failed SB`s. They all shared certain characteristics:

Bad experiences with the military

Political beliefs

Previous involvement with demonstrations etc.

As situations escalated, so did the recruitment tactics.

SARANGI & ALISON (2005) STUDY

Studies the left-wing Maoist terrorists in Nepal and India. Twelve terrorists including six members who had left. The average was 26, with no formal education. Key themes emerging were; images of self, significant others & visions of the future.



IDEOLOGIES AND COGNITIONS

- How do ideologies and cognitions change?
- Ideologies and cognitions shift towards favouring and justifying specific behaviours.
- Normal cognitions erode and inhibitions to violence are removed due to changes in perceptions from influence.
- Atram (2003) found that the Gaza teens during the first Palestinian Intifada demonstrated pride and social cohesion as a result of exposure to violence. Their outlook for the future was positive.



IDEOLOGY WORKS IF IT:

1. guides and justifies the action



2. is characterised by rigid orthodoxies which do not allow questioning and challenge



3. the acts themselves have clear and meaningful goals



This akin to Bandura's techniques of moral disengagement (1990), where the consequences of the action bring about:

The perception of
being morally good;
fighting evil

A displacement of
responsibility

The minimisation of
suffering

Dehumanising the
victim

BECK (2002)

- Terrorist thinking is similar to other individuals who commit violent acts.
 - Overgeneralising the perceived failings of the enemy
 - A dichotomy of good versus bad
 - A tunnel vision of destruction



PLANNING TERRORIST ATTACKS

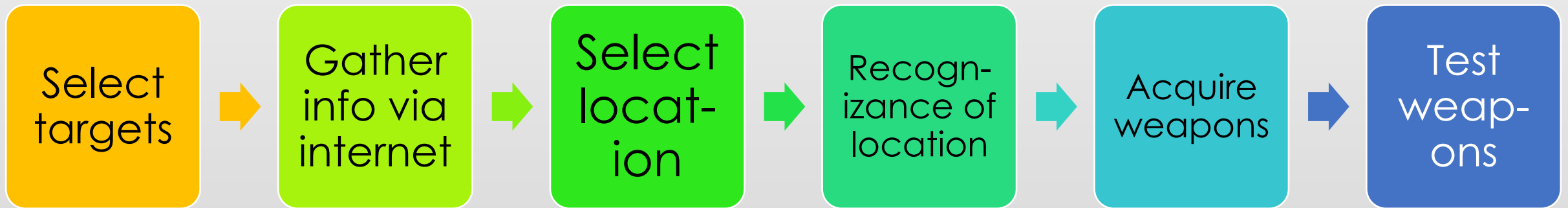
We desperately need information; Romyn & Kebbell (2013) simulated the planning process.

Two teams, the red team consisted of individuals asked to **plan** an attack, with people trained in anti terrorism and people without the training.

The blue team were tasked with **anticipating** a potential terrorist attack and consisted of police officers and people with anti-terrorism training.

The processes involved in planning and anticipating the acts were all in agreement with one another as shown on the next slide.

ROMYN & KEBBELL (2013)



ENDING TERRORIST ORGANISATIONS

Until 2011, this had not been explored. Reinares explored the disengagement of Basque territory EA over a 30 year span.

He held 35 long interviews with ex-members. He found:

What was of importance however, is that their ideologies did not change!

The death of Franco in 1975, the Spanish Dictator saw a move to democracy, political and social changes and many people found this to be sufficient to disengage.

Leadership tactics and internal functions of groups were another factor, when disagreements were present.

Others left when either in hiding or when in prison.

Some left due to forming relationships and having children.

HOSTAGE BARRICADES

- The term refers to when police officers and security besiege a property/plane/location where an individual/s is/are being held hostage.
- Hostage release is extremely risky and largely at the mercy of the terrorists.
- The problem lies in the police and security involved knowing the risk factors for each incident.



PERCEPTION OF RISK FACTORS

Yokota et al. (2004) found that police officers held the following beliefs regarding risk factors:

Highly excitable
individuals were
more risky

The longer the
siege the more
the risk

If interpersonal
problems are
present it is more
risky

If
communication
is poor...

In a second part to the study, 22 hypothetical situations were given to police officer for evaluation:

There was only a very weak correlation between the officers evaluation of risk and the findings from real-life similar scenarios.

HOSTAGE NEGOTIATION

Most likely to occur in domestic violence situations and robberies, however Wilson & Smith (2000) reported that even in extremely violent circumstances, there is a degree of normality, where behaviour is bound by two rules:

- 1. the rules for normal behaviours in hostage situations
- 2. the rules for everyday behaviour as a fall-back of other rules cannot be applied.

In addition, these factors are also important:

- Motivation – political, personal, ideological
- Planning & resources – insight for level of planning, detail and predictability

In addition, both sides must be willing to negotiate otherwise the breaking of these `rules` may lead to direct authority intervention.

BOLZ & SCHLOSSBERG (1970`S)

Minimal
encouragement,
emotional labelling,
Paraphrasing,
mirroring, `I`
messages, Open
ended questions.

Developed crisis negotiation techniques involving three elements:

- 1. negotiate with hostage taker whilst keeping him contained in the environment.
- 2. use any method to establish their motives and personality.
- 3. go at a slow pace to allow them to express their feelings and encourage them to realise rationality.

These skills involve active listening, a series of techniques to encourage communication:

MODELS OF HOSTAGE NEGOTIATION

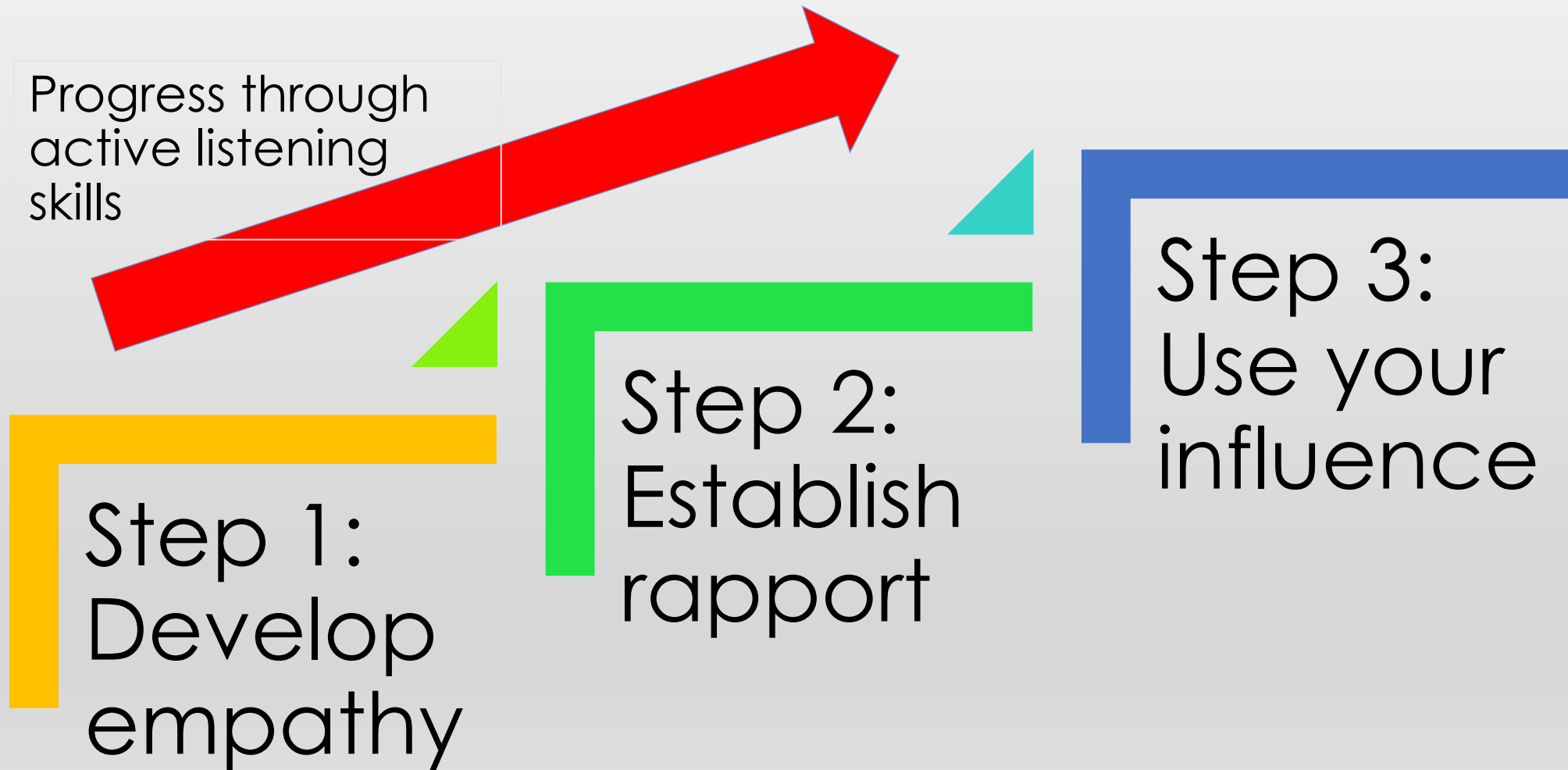
Mainly theoretical
rather than
empirical...

One example – FBI
Behavioural Influence
Stairway Model (Vecchi et
al., 2005).

This has influenced
other models, such as
the stairway model in
UK (Van Hasselt,
Romano & Vecchi,
2008).

The main elements of the model
are that you can move up and
down between each level, there is
no timescale specified for
negotiation and the aim of the
model is to bring about a peaceful
halt to the situation based upon
building co-operating relationships.

THE BEHAVIOURAL INFLUENCE STAIRWAY MODEL



EXAMPLE OF TERRORISM:



- Beslan School, (2004).
- 1,200 hostages, 300 deaths, 21 killed on first day and thrown out of a window.
- 130 explosives detonated by 4 of the hostage takers. A total of 50 hostage takers in the building.
- As a result, Dolnik & Fitzgerald (2011) summarised the `new terrorist` as being someone who is;
 - Difficult to trick due to extensive research
 - Adheres to extreme religious rhetoric
 - More willing to harm than previously
 - Communication with colleagues at other locations
 - Willing to die

FINALLY, THEIR SUGGESTIONS:

- An effective hostage negotiator should:
 - 1. be able to influence thinking and decision-making processes.
 - 2. continually question their own assumptions regarding the terrorists; do not make judgemental decisions.
 - 3. remember that part of the dialogue could be potentially rational.
 - 4. use active listening skills to understand the motivations and grievances.
 - 5. respond in an empathetic manner.



MODERN-DAY SLAVERY



- Modern slavery is defined in terms of exploitation through the utilization of victim vulnerabilities.
- Cases are not only characterized by violent acts and threats, but by the manipulation of victims even to the point that they may claim that they are acting under their own free will.
- Typical examples may include labourers working in fields under abhorrent conditions or prostituted individuals who believe that they are in a consensual relationship with their pimps.
- Stereotypical cases often associate modern slavery with human trafficking and evidence suggests that large numbers of individuals are trafficked for the purpose of slavery.
- However, modern slavery also involves the exploitation of local people and these cases are being exposed more frequently across the UK (Machura et al., 2018).

THE PROBLEM OF DEFINITION:



- “Generally, the term slavery is applied to extreme forms of subordination to the purpose of labour exploitation.”

(Weber, 2015, p20).

- It does not necessarily require “complete control of one person by another” (Bales, et al., 2015, p.18) and victims may receive some form of payment for their work.
- However, this pay may not be appropriate for the work (significantly below minimum wage), the individual may not have given legitimate/genuine consent to the work, and living/working conditions may be dangerous or substandard (e.g. BBC, 2017 case report).
- Manzo (2005) identified an important difference between historic forms of slavery and their modern equivalents: the latter no longer involves the legally recognized ownership of people.
- However, the cultural stereotype of people in chains owned by their masters has been perpetuated in the media, and this has led to both opposition and confusion in relation to the label “modern slavery” (Short & Lloyd, 2016b).

THE UK MODERN-DAY SLAVERY ACT 2015

- Article 4 of the UK Modern Slavery Act 2015 in Section 1 defines a perpetrator as a person knowingly holding
- *“another person in slavery or servitude” or knowingly requiring “another person to perform forced or compulsory labour.”*
- The law lists scenarios that may exemplify modern day slavery. *“All the circumstances”* have to be taken into account and the law makes a few constellations explicit: the *“person’s personal circumstances (such as the person being a child, the person’s family relationships, and any mental or physical illness) which may make the person more vulnerable than other persons”*.
- In Section 3, some types of offences are marked clearly: the law refers to sexual exploitation, removal of organs, and *“securing services etc. by force, threats or deception.”*

PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF MDS

- A recent UK survey found that 55% were unaware of the common signs of modern slavery and 67% of the adults were unaware of the measures in place to tackle modern slavery in the UK (YouGov & University of Hull, 2016).
- Many of the responses reflected misconceptions about the nature of modern day slavery. Those surveyed focused on female exploitation, despite the fact that 48% of the 3,805 cases identified in the UK in 2016 were for males (National Crime Agency, 2017).
- This finding supports an earlier survey comparing attitudes to human trafficking across Europe (Sharapov, 2014), which concluded that the media focus on female “sex slaves” from overseas has dominated public attention in the UK.
- Since 59.8% of the respondents indicated obtaining their information about human trafficking from the news and 40% of the respondents reported gaining information from newspapers, Sharapov (2014) argued that the media has a substantial impact on the misinformation held by the general public in relation to modern slavery.

PERCEPTIONS CONTINUED...

The “imaginarium” of overseas female sex slaves has the effect of associating human trafficking and modern slavery with the emotive issue of immigration and implies that the crimes can be addressed by tightening border regulations (Sharapov, 2014).

This conclusion conflicts with data from the National Crime Agency which reported 326 identified cases of modern slavery for British nationals in 2016, placing the country after Albania and Vietnam as one of the top three countries of origin for such cases occurring in the UK (National Crime Agency, 2017).

In addition to misunderstandings relating to the victims, further research reveals a lack of public understanding in relation to the characteristics of the crime itself.

One survey (Dando, Walsh, & Brierley, 2016) approached students, people attending public university events, and adults in a city centre.

PERCEPTIONS CONTINUED

- Respondents did not grasp the concept of non-physical “psychological coercion” common to modern slavery offences.
- They “believed that human trafficking was the illegal movement/illegal immigration of people from one country to another; for prostitution, or work” (Dando et al., 2016, pp. 9–10).
- Short and Lloyd (2016) acknowledged that the crime of modern slavery remains ill-defined and poorly understood by both the public and the authorities.
- The absence of a clear understanding has significant ramifications for tackling modern slavery: the general public and those working with victims may fail to recognize and report instances of slavery.
- Alternatively, those who are reported as potential victims of slavery fail to cooperate with the authorities because they are unwilling and fearful to identify themselves as ‘slaves’; and law enforcement agencies fail to identify cases of modern slavery, particularly when the offence overlaps with other criminal acts (Short & Lloyd, 2016).

PROFESSIONAL PERCEPTIONS



- This lack of understanding extends to those most likely to come into contact with victims, such as nurses, mental health advisors, shelter staff, and social workers (Jones, Engstrom, Hilliard, & Diaz, 2007).
- According to a research report by PROTECT (Provider Responses, Treatment and Care for Trafficked People), 86.8% of NHS health professionals did not know what questions to ask in order to identify a potential victim of trafficking and 78.3% of these professionals felt insufficiently prepared to manage trafficking cases (Oram et al., 2016, p. 99).
- Law enforcement officials form a specific group of frontline staff for whom an understanding of modern slavery is essential to the success of the Modern Slavery Act 2015.
- However, there is currently very little research in the UK on police perceptions of modern slavery and human trafficking.
- In line with the survey findings for the general public in the UK, Farrell and Pfeffer (2014) found a strong focus on adult female sexual exploitation and this has led to significant problems in recognizing and addressing male labour exploitation.

PERCEPTIONS CONTINUED



- Their research has also highlighted problems associated with overlapping crimes and the difficulties in avoiding criminalizing victims of slavery (Farrell, Pfeffer, & Bright, 2015).
- Qualitative data in the form of quotes suggested that many police officers struggled to understand the role of consent (Farrell & Pfeffer, 2014).
- Poor understanding of psychological coercion was also found across the survey data presented by Dando et al. (2016), and these findings highlight one of the key problems in understanding victims of modern slavery.
- In addition to these misconceptions held by the police and public, victims themselves may hold similar misunderstandings about modern slavery.
- It may affect their ability to recognize their own situation as modern slavery thus resulting in a failure to raise an alarm or cooperate further with the authorities.
- People who have been trafficked may not identify with the 'victim' label (Jordan, Patel, & Rapp, 2013; Bjelland, 2017), and this impacts negatively on victims making themselves known to the authorities and their cooperation with law enforcement and support agencies.

A CASE STUDY:

The terror that grips a victim of abuse can be the same whether physical violence or psychological force is used.

- Rashi was a victim of modern-day slavery for over ten years. She was brought to the United States as a domestic servant and was forced to work from morning to night, was not paid, and was made to sleep on a mat on the floor. She was forced to beg for her meagre portions of food and suffered from untreated tuberculosis because she was not allowed to seek medical care.
- Rashi had no contact with the outside world because her employer forbade her to leave the home, to use the telephone, or even to watch television. She was denigrated and verbally abused on a daily basis.
- Her employer frequently flew into rages, threatening to have her family killed if she tried to escape. After years of this treatment, a hard stare from her employer was enough to send her cowering into the corner. When Rashi was finally rescued, she was asked why she had not left.

PSYCHOLOGICAL MECHANISMS OF COERCION

Psychological coercion can be as effective as physical violence in exerting control over a person. Coercion includes violent as well as nonviolent or psychological force.

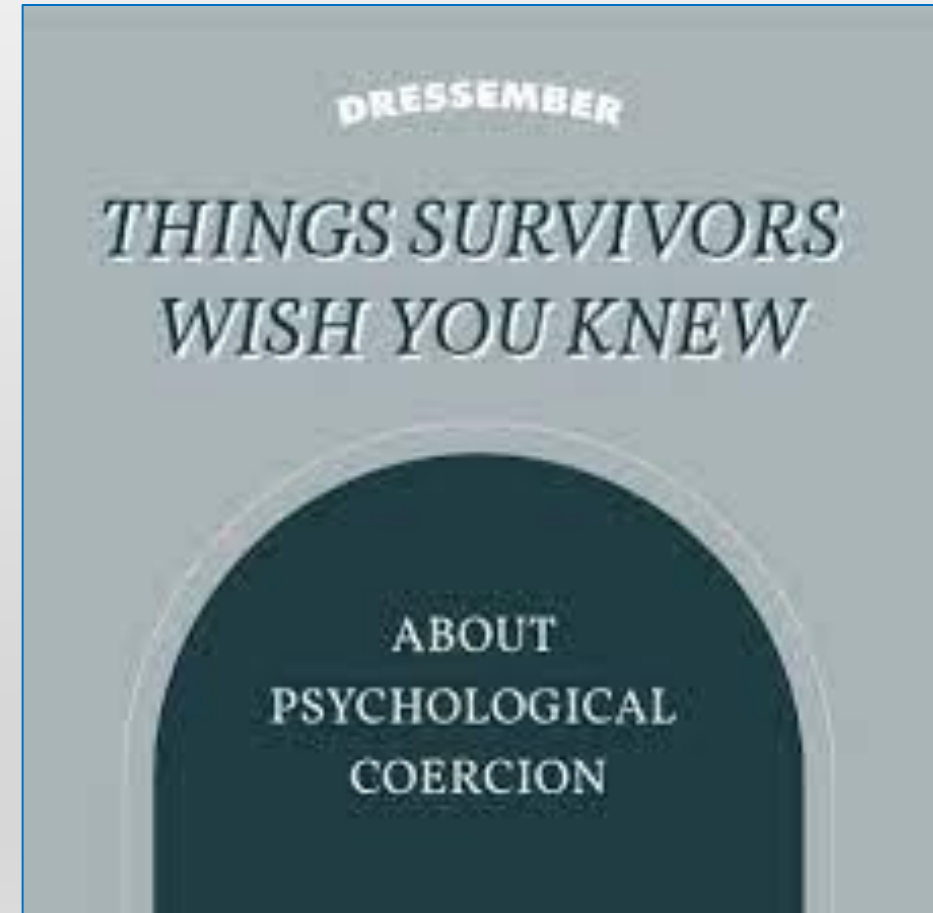
Abuse of power or the vulnerability of others means the victim “believes he or she has no reasonable alternative but to submit to the labour or service demanded”

Such coercion includes taking advantage of the vulnerabilities resulting from the person having entered the country illegally or without proper documentation, pregnancy, any physical or mental disease or disability of the person, including addiction to the use of any substance, or reduced capacity to form judgments by virtue of being a child.

Research acknowledges that perpetrators utilize psychological manipulation and fear to maintain control, making “representations to their victims that physical harm may occur to them or others should the victim escape or attempt to escape.”

PSYCHOLOGICAL COERCION

There has been little research to date on psychological coercion of modern slavery victims. However, we can begin to understand psychological means of control by examining the literature regarding psychological coercion of other victims of abuse, such as prisoners of war, torture survivors, cult members, and victims of domestic violence.



PRISONERS OF WAR

- Various conditions of detention such as denial of privacy, cramped or overcrowded confined spaces, solitary confinement, and sensory deprivation;
- Deprivation of physiological needs including restriction of food, water, sleep, toilet facilities, bathing, motor activities, and medical care;
- Deprivation of social contacts including isolation and loss of contact with the outside world;

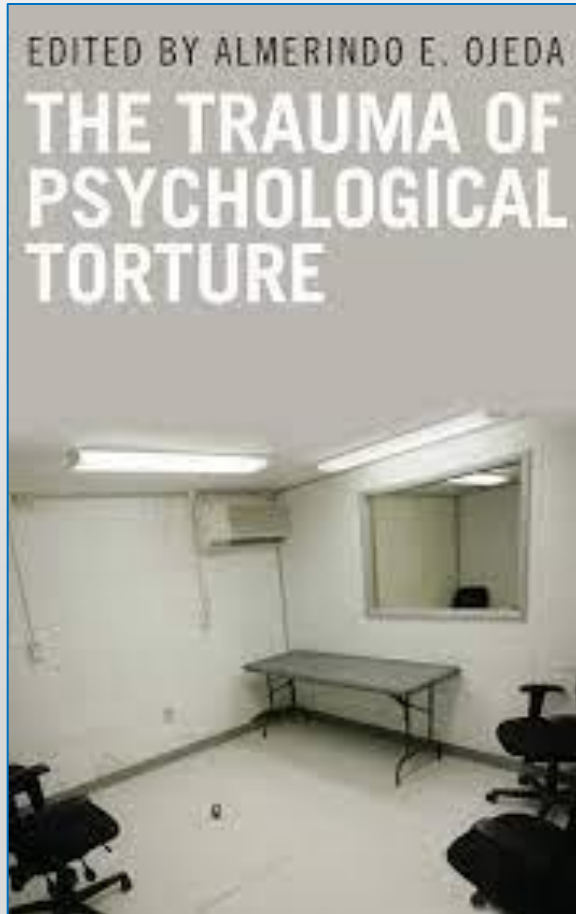
Deprivation of basic physiological needs may “serve to disorient victims, to induce exhaustion, difficulty concentrating, impair memory and instill fear, helplessness, despair, and, can result in severe anxiety and hallucinations and other psychotic reactions.”

A variety of non-violent, non-physical forms of coercion have been used to manipulate prisoners of war including:

- Humiliation and verbal abuse;
- Threats of violence;
- Exposure to ambiguous situations or contradictory messages;
- Compulsory violation of taboos or religious beliefs;
- Being forced to betray or harm others;
- Being forced to witness atrocities performed on others.

Verbal abuse, humiliation, threats, and other forms of psychological abuse “represent deliberate attempts to break down the will of individuals and are often used to induce the sense of ‘learned helplessness.’

TORTURE SURVIVORS



- The principal objective of torture is to create a specific psychological effect in another person, often involving a subjugation of the will and a sense of helplessness to escape or resist.
- Coercive interrogation techniques are used to induce “suggestibility, compliance with external instructions, malleability, and plasticity, and thus, an impaired capacity to freely exercise a voluntary and informed choice of decision and action.
- If sufficiently severe, such factors will produce stress disorders.” (Stuart et al., 1993).

CULT LEADERS

- Social psychological research into cults has described similar psychological means utilized by cult leaders to coerce and control behaviour.
- Within a cultic system there is generally a powerful leader who exercises control over the individual freedom of members.
- Some of the means of psychological control utilized within cults include: separation from familiar surroundings, deception, creation of confusion, social isolation, prohibitions against dissent or free will, induction of guilt, the offer of affection that is dependent on compliance, threats of harm, and creation of fear (Anderson, 19985).



DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Batterers also utilize a range of psychological techniques to maintain control over their partners, creating conditions of psychological captivity.

In domestic violence: Physical barriers to escape are rare. The barriers to escape are generally invisible. They are nonetheless extremely powerful.

Children are rendered captive by their condition of dependency. Women are rendered captive by economic, social, psychological, and legal subordination, as well as by physical force.

Many victims of domestic violence report that the psychological abuse is as harmful, or worse, than the physical abuse that they have suffered.

Some common forms of psychological control used by perpetrators of domestic violence include: isolation, provoking fear, alternating kindness and threats to produce disequilibrium, encouraging feelings of guilt and self-blame, creating dependency, and establishing conditions that lead to learned helplessness (Boulette & Anderson, 1986).

SO WHAT ABOUT MODERN SLAVERY?

Significant similarities have been noted between hostages, political prisoners, prisoners of concentration camps, battered women, and other victims of captivity.

All of these coercive systems utilize high levels of control, exposure to chronic stress and threat, isolation, provocation of fear, and the creation of a sense of helplessness in victims.

The methods that enable one human being to enslave another are consistent and are based upon the systematic, repetitive infliction of psychological trauma.

Modern Slavery cases have many elements in common with the forms of abuse previously described.

RAYMOND ET AL. (2002).

A study examining the experiences of women trafficked in four countries reported high levels of psychological abuse, in addition to physical and sexual violence.

Over seventy percent of these women reported that they had suffered emotional abuse, verbal threats, and control through use of alcohol and drugs.

Other means of psychological coercion used included: threats to report the women to police, immigration-related threats, death threats to the women or their families, control through the use of weapons, and control by withholding money.

Because of the similarities of modern slavery to other situations of traumatic stress, the psychological consequences may be assumed to be similar. High rates of emotional, behavioural, and psychological problems have been reported by trafficked and sexually exploited women, with the majority of women reporting symptoms such as depression or sadness, guilt and self-blame, anger and rage, and sleep disturbances.

WHAT CAN BE DONE TO ADDRESS MDS?



- What Looks Promising for Tackling Modern Slavery: A review of practice based research (Van Dyke & Brachou, 2021). It sets out the way forward, recommendations and `what looks promising`.
- Nine chapters, focused on -
- The role of NGOs and academics/researchers in policy development and implementation, and influencing good practice.
- Support Services.
- Criminal investigation and prosecution.
- Cultural mediation.
- Prevention.
- Developing awareness and capacity amongst frontline professionals.
- Systemic change.
- Survivor Voice, Service User Engagement and Evaluation.