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DELTA 8.7 CRISIS POLICY GUIDE



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THE CRISIS POLICY GUIDE: INTRODUCTION

How do we effectively tackle modern slavery in crisis situations?

For the purposes of this Policy Guide, the following operational definition of crisis was used:

Crisis represents a critical threat to basic human rights of a community or other large group of people, usually over a wide area. It requires a unified response from multiple actors, which may involve an international or cross-border response. It can include conflict and natural disasters (including pandemics).

In many ways, our understanding of the links between modern slavery and humanitarian crisis is still nascent. Just over five years ago, the United Nations held its first thematic debate on human trafficking, specifically condemning, “in the strongest terms, reported instances of trafficking in persons in areas affected by armed conflict”.¹ Resolution 2388 of November 2017 emphasized the importance of this issue at the international level and highlighted the specific vulnerabilities of women and children to exploitation during conflict and post-conflict situations. The Resolution stressed that trafficking undermines the rule of law and contributes to other forms of transnational organized crime that could exacerbate conflict and foster insecurity and instability, therefore undermining development.² Subsequently, the intersection between modern slavery and conflict and, more broadly, crisis situations including climate change, has been subject of many Resolutions and UN and civil society reports.³

Despite commitments at the international level, there is limited evidence of “what works” to combat modern slavery in crisis situations. This is not surprising given the breakdown of law and

order, increased insecurity and instability, and constantly evolving scenarios that take place during crises. Recognizing these challenges, but also the importance of comprehensive reviews to improving the understanding of effective policy responses, this Working Group was tasked with identifying and assessing the evidence base to identify promising practices, or “what works”, to eradicate modern slavery in crisis situations. The purpose of this Policy Guide, therefore, is support the achievement of Target 8.7 by determining promising policy responses in terms of preventing and responding to modern slavery in crisis situations and protecting those who are vulnerable to exploitation as a result.

Crisis and modern slavery

The scale of those affected by crisis situations have increased in recent years. The UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) Global Humanitarian Overview⁴ estimates that some 235 million people will need humanitarian assistance and protection in 2021 at a cost of USD 35.1 billion. The picture worsens when factoring in COVID-19; as of January 2021, the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that 8.8 per cent of global working hours were lost as a result of the pandemic, the equivalent of 255 million full-time equivalent jobs.⁵

There is no doubt that crisis increases the prevalence of, and individual vulnerability to, modern slavery. These individuals affected by crisis are vulnerable to forced labour, modern slavery, human trafficking and child labour for a variety of reasons including⁶:

- Erosion of the rule of law, a breakdown of protection, and the normalization of violence in conflict and disaster settings, which make it easier to exercise coercion.

- During times of crisis, existing law enforcement and other “guardians” of social and legal order have a reduced ability to intervene, whilst regions in which the State has little, or no effective control, can give license to criminals and opportunists to operate there with near impunity. This may result from poor infrastructure and lack of State resources, as in eastern Sudan, or a complete collapse of the State, as in the Central African Republic.
- Increased incidences of gender-based and sexual violence. Existing vulnerabilities may be exacerbated by crisis settings, including the increased vulnerability of women and girls to modern slavery. Whilst armed forces may set up networks of sexual exploitation, regular foreign military forces and peacekeeping forces may also be complicit.
 - Armed groups taking advantage of the situation to exploit individuals for power and revenues, low or no-cost labour and sexual services. Child soldiers and forced labourers may be recruited by armed groups as fighters, cooks, porters or runners, or for forced labour in begging or construction. Women and girls may also face forced marriage, rape, or forced sexual exploitation. Some recent examples include exploitation by groups such as ISIS, Boko Haram, al-Shabaab, and the Lord’s Resistance Army.
 - Physical, social, and economic vulnerability, such as loss of shelter and livelihoods. This in turn leads to risky coping behaviours, and, in some cases, dependence on non-State actors that use violence to provide protection.
 - Reduced access to education and disruption of family networks, which makes children more vulnerable to child labour and forced marriage. For example, there were reports of trafficking of children separated from parents after Cyclone Idai in Mozambique in 2019.⁷ Conflict may also reduce the ability of parents and guardians to prevent modern slavery abuses to their own children.
 - Reduced access to legal and regular means to migrate, increasing the use of migrant smugglers, which can make individuals vulnerable to modern slavery on both outward and return journeys. Reduced access to safe routes to return to home countries can lead to reduced visibility of those already vulnerable to exploitation, as seen in recent cases of domestic workers affected by COVID-19.
 - Natural disasters can magnify pre-existing vulnerabilities to modern slavery. This includes both rapid onset natural disasters, such as earthquakes, that have immediate impacts on individuals, as well as slow onset natural disasters, such as drought, which can lead to incremental large-scale displacement. Whilst there does not seem to be significant evidence of natural disasters causing vulnerabilities, the economic and social disruption they cause can increase the risks that affected individuals already face. Examples for rapid onset natural disasters include an increase in dangerous, irregular migration after the 2015 Nepal earthquake, and floods in Bangladesh, which led to a greater vulnerability to trafficking.

Migration and displacement often intersect within the modern slavery-crisis nexus, although forced migration is not always a critical factor in exacerbating existing, or creating new, vulnerabilities to exploitation in crisis settings. There are currently 70.8 million people forcibly displaced, of which 41.3 million are Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), 25.9 million are refugees, and 3.5 million are asylum seekers.⁸ These individuals are vulnerable to modern slavery and exploitation as, in such contexts, it may be more likely that outmigration from their community is unplanned and higher risk, increasing the likelihood that these individuals will face violence, exploitation or abuse as they migrate.⁹ Mass movement or displacement may make it difficult for local governments and protection actors to identify and respond to these risks and can create circumstances in which opportunistic individuals and criminal networks may take advantage. Transit routes can also be affected as well as destination countries, which can be destabilized due to an influx of migrants.

Existing definitions

Whilst the intersection between crisis and modern slavery is well documented, at least anecdotally, crisis does not have a universally recognized definition. It conjures images of conflict, natural disasters and displacement. It can be intrinsically linked to migration with individuals fleeing across borders or becoming internally displaced, or it can increase the vulnerability of those who remain *in situ*.

“Crisis” can be used interchangeably with humanitarian crisis, context, or emergency, or an emergency setting or context or disaster.

Crisis can be split into two different types:

1. Anthropogenic crises: including armed conflict and climate change
2. Natural disasters: including geophysical (earthquakes, tsunamis and volcanic eruptions), hydrological (floods, avalanches), climatological (droughts), meteorological (storms, cyclones) or biological (epidemics, pandemic plagues).

Different organizations have defined crisis in different ways.¹⁰ Across these definitions, common characteristics include:

1. Large numbers of civilian casualties, and of populations who are besieged or displaced quickly.
2. Critical threat to basic human rights of a community or other large group of people, usually over a wide area.
3. International and cross-border dimensions that require intervention by a range of participants beyond a single national authority.

Defining crisis for the purpose of this Policy Guide

The starting point for this Policy Guide was the non-comprehensive review of evidence conducted by the Rights Lab, University of Nottingham.

The Rights Lab researchers were provided with search strings based on synonyms for each of the sub-themes of crisis: migration, humanitarian, displacement, conflict. These search strings can be found in Appendix 1. Terms were added as researchers reviewed the literature. The final literature was very broad and touches on COVID-19 and other pandemics, natural disasters, anthropogenic disasters and conflicts.

From these search terms, the literature on crisis, and with input from the Working Group, the following operational definition was developed to inform the selection of relevant hypotheses:

Crisis represents a critical threat to basic human rights of a community or other large group of people, usually over a wide area. It requires a unified response from multiple actors, which may involve an international or cross-border response. It can include conflict and natural disasters (including pandemics).

Appendix 2 illustrates the decision tree used to determine which policy responses were or were not in scope of this Policy Guide.

A NOTE ON LIMITATIONS

As a nascent field, data and robust reports on modern slavery in crisis situations were limited. The initial non-comprehensive evidence review identified 24 hypotheses; however only 8 were included here. Upon reviewing the hypotheses against the operational definition and inclusion criteria, 16 hypotheses were deemed not relevant to crisis settings, or the Working Group could not express high confidence in the evidence or hypothesis presented to warrant their inclusion.

The difficulties of defining crisis also hindered the non-comprehensive evidence review. The operational definition was determined post-evidence review and then used as an inclusion criterion for existing hypotheses. If time allowed, it would have been preferable to update some of the systematic searches using this updated operational definition.

Without an operational definition, certain key areas were missing from the original review, but were suggested as inclusions based on the Working Group’s expertise. This included exploitation of child soldiers and relevant policy responses,

which has instead been added as a 'promising practice' below. Other areas which warrant further exploration outside the scope of this Guide include the use of social protections, including non-

conditional and conditional cash transfers, as a preventative measure or means to build resilience in vulnerable communities.

THE POLICY GUIDE PROCESS

In 2015, 193 Member States pledged their commitment to Target 8.7 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). Target 8.7 commits Member States to:

Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.

Between April 2020 and March 2021, [Delta 8.7](#) convened global expert Working Groups to produce three Policy Guides to address “what works” to achieve Target 8.7 in three broad domains: [Justice](#), [Crisis](#) and [Markets](#).

The purpose of these Policy Guides is to provide a highly credible and current articulation of what we know about the global and national policies needed to accelerate progress towards Target 8.7 in a format that is useful for policy actors. They provide a snapshot of “what works” to achieve Target 8.7.

The specific audience for these Guides is multilateral and national-level policymakers. The Guides do not seek to dictate to policymakers how they should organize to achieve Target 8.7 — because that requires an understanding of the specific challenges in each country, the available resources and other contextual factors. Instead, they aim to provide an evidence-based policy resource that is useful across contexts and to policy actors around the world, including those thinking about multilateral policy frameworks.

The Policy Guides prioritize scientifically rigorous information regarding what works. As a result, the guidance offered is neither comprehensive nor definitive. It is thorough and deep in areas where evidence is comprehensive and robust, while in other cases it is patchier and more speculative. This will, however, help to highlight areas where evidence is strong and areas where it is lacking. The deliberative process by which

the Policy Guides are formulated is designed to be replicable. The aim is to capture the current state of knowledge on what works and allow future editions of these Policy Guides to reflect changes in the underlying state of knowledge.

The Working Group

Delta 8.7 convened a [global expert Working Group](#) to produce the Crisis Policy Guide.

Members were selected following an open call for nominations, with members appointed to bring together a diverse group with reference to gender, geographic, age, institutional, stakeholder group and discipline. The process endeavored to include one or more survivor voices in each Working Group consultation process, either through having a survivor member of the Working Group, or through bespoke consultations on the draft Policy Guide documents. Working Group members were allocated into subgroups based on their expertise and asked to assess the two research inputs for the hypotheses linked to their respective “sub-theme”.

Research Inputs

I. ASSEMBLING THE EVIDENCE

Between July and September 2020, Delta 8.7 assembled a database of evidence on what works to achieve Target 8.7. This was achieved through two processes: a public submission of evidence and a non-comprehensive evidence review carried out by Rights Lab, University of Nottingham.

Both of these processes sought to identify sources and bodies of evidence that are based on rigorous scientific methods and/or have been tested through government implementation. For each piece of evidence submitted, information on over 20 different data points was collected. This database enables the Working Group to map the contours of bodies of evidence relating to specific thematic areas and specific hypotheses about what works to achieve Target 8.7.

II. MAPPING THE BODIES OF EVIDENCE

The database was mapped in two ways: qualitatively and quantitatively. Both approaches offered assessments of the strength of evidence associated with specific themes and, where possible, specific hypotheses. The strength of evidence was broken into three components:

1. **Diversity of evidence** – indicates the variety of type, methods and design of the evidence associated with different themes and hypotheses. This data allowed each Working Group to distinguish themes and hypotheses that have been explored through a variety of research and implementation approaches from those that are backed by less diverse evidence.
2. **Size of body of evidence** – quantifies the size, scale and geographic reach of evidence associated with a theme or hypothesis. This helped the Working Group identify themes and hypotheses that have been more extensively tested.
3. **Technical quality of evidence** – derives from data provided by submitters related to “Evidentiary Quality”. This allowed the Working Group to understand both which themes and hypotheses were backed by evidence that is perceived to be of high quality.

Please see the [technical note](#) for a detailed breakdown of the process.

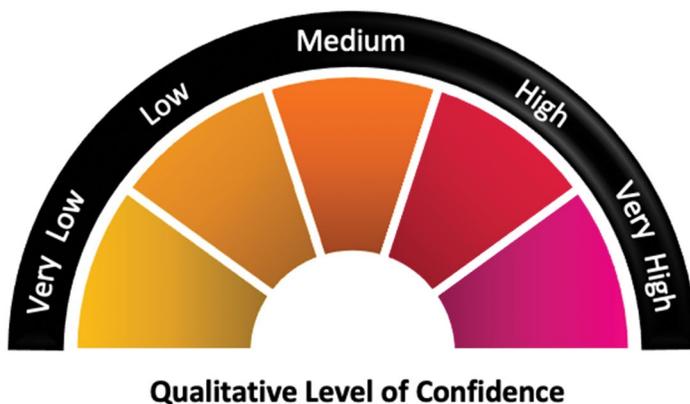
III. ASSESSING THE EVIDENCE

The Working Groups considered these background documents – the Rights Lab’s non-comprehensive evidence review, the underlying database and the Delta 8.7 quantitative assessment – and reworked them using a shared template into a Policy Guide aimed at providing a snapshot of evidence on what *may* work to achieve Target 8.7. Some of their duties included:

1. Identifying evidentiary sources that were missing and needed to be incorporated;
2. Discussing the strength of evidence associated with each theme and/or hypothesis;
3. Identifying other interventions or hypotheses that were not reflected in evidence but may be promising;
4. Assigning a confidence score to each hypothesis.

UNDERSTANDING AND INTERPRETING CONFIDENCE SCORES

Working Groups were asked to indicate their level of confidence in the effectiveness of an intervention or the validity of the hypothesis using a prescribed scale. Confidence in the certainty of a finding is based on the **strength of evidence** – this is assessed on the: a) diversity of evidence; b) size of a body of evidence and; c) technical quality of the evidence and on the experience of Working Group members. The strategy of the Crisis Policy Guide Working Group was developed



upon a more inclusive and shared narrative about labour exploitation, forced labour, and modern slavery that was based on the available evidence examined but also — and very importantly — on a synthesis involving the diverse personal, research and practical (criminal justice system, NGO, policymaking) experience of the Working Group’s members. The evidence base was not used as the sole indicator of the strength of a hypothesis but a starting point in a multi-stage, “adaptive” process towards setting and refining policy parameters.

The Confidence Score created a metric for the Working Group to discuss, consider and validate the two primary research inputs into the Policy Guides: The Rights Lab evidence review and the Delta 8.7 Quantitative Score. The evaluation to obtain a confidence score acts as an additional quality check, allowing the Working Group to assess bodies of evidence that the two research

inputs may have struggled to recognize or map. The degree of *certainty* in key findings is therefore based on the Working Group’s evaluations of the two primary research inputs. In the Policy Guide documents, it is expressed as a qualitative level of confidence from “very low” to “very high”.

Implementation notes

Delta 8.7 assembled these Working Groups to include practitioners and policy actors precisely because it aims to bridge the research-to-policy divides. With this in mind, Working Groups were able to include an “implementation note” in cases where a hypothesis may seem to have contradicted their own experience of practice/policy implementation, or if they felt it necessary to include a comment that provides additional nuance or shading to a conclusion.

HYPOTHESIS 1

Providing support services to people on the move in crisis situations helps to reduce trafficking in persons.

Very High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: The studies supporting this hypothesis, though few in number, were persuasive and of relatively high quality. The studies covered a diverse geographical area. The study findings were consistent with the practical experience of the reviewers.

Description

Records noted the need for States and non-State agencies to provide support services to people on the move during crises, as they are vulnerable to trafficking in persons. Research shows that people on the move face a range of challenges during their migration, including the inability to access health services and decent, affordable and safe accommodation; the possibility of arrest and detention; and the lack of available psychosocial care.

It was highlighted that trafficking is often considered a problem of countries of origin and destination countries, whilst transit countries are often ignored in the design and implementation of policy on the protection of vulnerable persons on the move – when it is, in fact transit countries that should be the focus of policy design. It is whilst adults and children are on the move that they need a range of support and are at a heightened risk of trafficking. Recommendations include increasing the financial and human resources available to provide support services to people on the move; improving the training of front-line personnel responsible for identifying and supporting vulnerable migrants and displaced persons; streamlining and ensuring fairness in asylum procedures; applying gender-sensitive approaches to supporting migrants; and adopting a humanitarian approach to supporting migrants and displaced persons.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

The diversity of evidence underpinning this hypothesis is quite good. Studies were fairly balanced across primary and secondary studies, with the majority of claims tested through primary data collection and predominantly adopting qualitative research methods and observational design. One study involved interviews with migrants and key informants working on migration and modern slavery issues.

SIZE

The studies were geographically diverse, with the majority focusing on migration and displacement globally. Two records focused on a single jurisdiction (Australia and Norway respectively), whilst the other covered Jordan and Lebanon. Interviews were the most commonly used data collection method.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

The strength of evidence underpinning this hypothesis was assessed to be strong, with the majority of claims recorded to be clear, transparent, context-appropriate, valid and reliable. Further, the evidence was considered to be cogent or somewhat cogent in the majority of cases. Primary studies in this group were generally supported by literature reviews and supplementary desk research, which strengthens the underpinning evidence and the possibilities

for extrapolating findings to other contexts. Authors drew on international literature discussing the challenges facing people on the move in the context of conflict and displacement,

as well as the challenges faced by migrants in general as they attempt to travel through transit countries to destination countries.

Evidence Base
Claire Healy, <i>The Strength to Carry On – Resilience and Vulnerability to Trafficking on Migrations Routes to Europe</i> (Vienna: International Centre for Migration Policy Development, 2019).
Maria Gabriella Boria, <i>Human Trafficking and Natural Disasters: An Empirical Analysis</i> (Chestnut Hill, MA: Boston College, 2016).
International Labour Organization, “ <i>Independent evaluation: ILO’s Programme of Work in Lebanon and Jordan in Terms of Decent Work and the Response to the Syrian Refugee Crisis 2014-2018</i> ” (Geneva: ILO, 2018).

HYPOTHESIS 2

Access to economic and livelihood opportunities can reduce vulnerabilities of individuals at risk of human trafficking and modern slavery in crisis situations.

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: The studies supporting this hypothesis, though few in number, were persuasive and of relatively high quality. The study findings were consistent with the practical experience of the reviewers.

Description

The need for decent economic and livelihood opportunities in order to prevent trafficking in persons was explored in five studies. These studies broadly emphasized the need for strengthened efforts to provide economic and livelihood opportunities and considered the lack of employment opportunities as a push factor for risky cross-border migration, which can lead to vulnerability to trafficking in persons. In one study, the authors stated that the livelihood programmes in Typhoon Haiyan-affected areas provided skills training, increased employability, promoted sustainable livelihoods, and reduced the vulnerability of individuals in danger of falling below subsistence levels. Similarly, another study in Nigeria emphasized that creating economic opportunities in poor rural areas of Nigeria would lead to decreased poverty and reduce vulnerability to trafficking. A further study identified local economic alternatives to labour migration from a village-level perspective, bringing first-hand knowledge about what could work to address exploitation and trafficking, particularly of young people in Benin.

Some studies highlighted how employment and livelihood opportunities can also support longer-term protection for victims of modern slavery, including the provision of access to social benefits and the right to work, which can facilitate integration in destination societies, aid recovery, and prevent re-victimization and re-trafficking.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

Overall, the studies were diverse, with four primary studies, one secondary and one mixed. Four studies were qualitative, with use of interviews and observations, and one was quasi-experimental using mixed methods. One study, concerning poverty being the main reason that children in Nigeria were trafficked, presented a good sample of children, parents, guardians, and others. Another was supported by a diversity of respondents, such as those from government and civil society, as well as survivors.

SIZE

Amongst the five studies related to this hypothesis, three of the studies focused on specific States: Benin, Nigeria and the Philippines. One study discussed modern slavery globally. One study considered modern slavery in Europe, whilst the other focused on two countries: Jordan and Lebanon. One study, which included a literature and document review, included interviews with 35 government and non-governmental organization (NGO) actors, and included data at the household level. Another was a comparative country case study that included desk research on each of the countries, and semi-structured key informant interviews with policymakers, support providers, and trafficking survivors. Another study included interviews with 170 community leaders, community members, and current and former young migrants. Another study included interviews with 17 parents and guardians, as well

as 20 individuals related to child employment. All in all, the studies represented a wide array of stakeholders and on-the-ground voices.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

All studies underpinning this hypothesis were published: two were published in peer-reviewed journals, two were intergovernmental reports, and one was an NGO report. The studies were published between 2012-2017. Two of the five studies did not have a clear research framework and were not transparent. Two studies were not deemed to be reliable or provide valid claims and were only somewhat cogent. The evidence underpinning this hypothesis was largely based

on observations and key informant interviews, although primary studies were underpinned by current literature, thereby strengthening the quality of the evidence.

IMPLEMENTATION NOTES

The Working Group understands that this hypothesis could be tested by looking beyond the traditional human trafficking literature to find further support for how economic and livelihood programming reduces general vulnerabilities. With additional, focused research, the hypothesis could be proven more strongly, especially in terms of reducing vulnerabilities in crisis situations.

Evidence Base
Iffat Idris, <i>Interventions to Support Victims of Modern Slavery</i> (Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies, 2017).
International Labour Organization and International Organization for Migration, <i>Impact of recovery initiatives on reducing vulnerability to human trafficking and illegal recruitment: Lessons from Typhoon Haiyan</i> (Geneva: IOM, 2015).
International Labour Organization, <i>Independent evaluation: ILO's Programme of Work in Lebanon and Jordan in Terms of Decent Work and the Response to the Syrian Refugee Crisis 2014-2018</i> (Geneva: International Labour Office, 2018).
Joanne Van Selm, <i>Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Measures for the Integration of Trafficked Persons</i> (Paris: IOM, 2015)
Neil Howard, "Protecting children from trafficking in Benin: in need of politics and participation," <i>Development in Practice</i> 22, 4 (2012): 460-472.
Olubukola Adesina, "Modern day slavery: poverty and child trafficking in Nigeria," <i>African Identities</i> 12, 2 (2014): 165-179.

HYPOTHESIS 3

Dismantling border controls and restrictive migration legislation improves migrant protection, particularly during times of crisis.

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: The evidence supporting this hypothesis was strong, with a significant quantity of relevant data, though no studies used quantitative data. The study findings were consistent with the practical experience of the reviewers.

Description

The role of dismantling border controls and restrictive migration legislation to improve migrant protection was explored and well supported by the evidence as well as on the basis of an array of experience of those drafting this Guide. Restrictive migration legislation was shown to lead to the use of more dangerous and expensive routes, with strict border control thus resulting in the unintended effect of pushing people into difficult and protracted situations. In this way, restrictive legislation and policies render people more vulnerable to forced labour and human trafficking. One study describes the combined pressures both to control borders and manage trafficking. One study discussed a prosecution-led policy whereby services were only available to migrants once they put themselves at risk of being charged with immigration violations and held in detention. This is reflected in another study that emphasizes the prioritization of immigration controls over forced labour concerns. The consequence of increasingly restrictive borders was illustrated in another study, which found that measures attempting to reduce undocumented migration in fact increased risk of trafficking through more expensive and dangerous routes. This also applied to children and young people, although most studies related solely to adults. Children and young people were sometimes portrayed as passive subjects, with their best interests broadly disregarded. Often, they were criminalized in the process of carrying out these policies.

How to resolve the issue was addressed in a number of the studies. A general consensus appears to be the need to facilitate legal migration

to ensure that it is easier and more affordable than illicit routes. This is with the aim of making trafficking less profitable and increasing methods of legitimate ways to obtain work. One study points to enforcement measures on migration, asserting that those relying on criminalized migration mechanisms, such as people smugglers, must be incorporated into current protection dialogues. Another study points to the importance of immigration policy solutions and temporary migration status for victims escaping forced labour, increased sanctioning of employers, and improved access to information. On the whole, studies advocate increasingly open borders for greater migration opportunities.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

Studies were predominantly qualitative based on interviews and observational designs. There was a mix of primary, secondary, mixed method and theoretical studies. No quantitative methods were utilized. Although perhaps implicit in some studies, there was little evidence of meaningful survivor engagement in research design and implementation beyond participation as interviewees.

SIZE

There was a broad geographical base for this hypothesis across a large range of evidence compiled. Qualitative studies were available across a range of source, transit and destination countries with, for example, studies undertaken

within Brazil, Ethiopia, Malaysia, Syria, Thailand, Turkey, the UK, the US and jurisdictions of sub-Saharan Africa. Mixed method studies were also available, including within Greece, Jordan and Lebanon. Some secondary data supported studies from Malaysia. Sample sizes for qualitative studies ranged from 18-248 interviewed participants.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

The body of evidence supporting this hypothesis was assessed to be of strong quality. The majority

of studies were peer-reviewed academic articles and some non-peer-reviewed but authoritative texts from international non-governmental and campaigning organizations. Many studies were considered to be clear, transparent, context-appropriate and reliable, with a small percentage of studies considered to lack transparency in methodological approach. There was a range of primary, secondary and theoretical studies, supported by literature reviews and desk research, with some studies considered as descriptive.

Evidence Base
Alinka Gearon, "Child Trafficking: Young people's experiences of front-line services in England," <i>The British Journal of Criminology</i> 59, 2 (2019): 481-500.
Annie Wilson, "Notes from the Field Trafficking Risks for Refugees," <i>Societies Without Borders</i> 7, 1 (2012): 100-118.
Benjamin Perrin, "Just Passing Through? International Legal Obligations and Policies of Transit Countries in Combating Trafficking in Persons," <i>European Journal of Criminology</i> 7, 1 (2010): 11-27.
Daniel Murphy, <i>Hidden Chains: Rights Abuses and Forced Labor in Thailand's Fishing Industry</i> (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2018).
Gabriella Sanchez, "Critical Perspectives on Clandestine Migration Facilitation: An Overview of Migrant Smuggling Research," <i>Journal of Migration and Human Security</i> 5, 1 (2017): 9-27.
International Labour Organization, <i>Independent evaluation: ILO's Programme of Work in Lebanon and Jordan in Terms of Decent Work and the Response to the Syrian Refugee Crisis 2014-2018</i> (Geneva: International Labour Office, 2018).
Lenore Lyons and Michele Ford, "Trafficking Versus Smuggling: Malaysia's Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act," <i>Human Trafficking in Asia: Forcing Issues</i> , 35-48 (2014).
Louise Gomez-Mera, "Regime Complexity and Global Governance: The case of trafficking in Persons," <i>European Journal of International Relations</i> 22, 3 (2015): 566-595.
Nazli Avdan, "Human trafficking and migration control policy: vicious or virtuous cycle?," <i>Journal of Public Policy</i> 32, 3 (2012): 171-205.
Peter Dwyer, Hannah Lewis, Lisa Scullion and Louise Waite, <i>Forced labour and UK immigration policy: status matters?</i> (York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2011).
Pooja Theresa Stanslas, "Transborder Human Trafficking in Malaysian Waters: Addressing the Root Causes," <i>Journal of Maritime Law and Commerce</i> 41, 4 (2010): 595-606.
Tuesday Reitano, "A Perilous but Profitable Crossing: The Changing Nature of Migrant Smuggling through sub-Saharan Africa to Europe and EU Migration Policy (2012-2015)," <i>The European Review of Organised Crime</i> 2, 1 (2015): 1-23.

HYPOTHESIS 4

Gender-based approaches to programming in crisis situations can prevent gender-based violence and trafficking.

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: Whilst a moderate number of studies supported this hypothesis and were variable in quality, the practical experience of the reviewers increased confidence in this hypothesis.

Description

This hypothesis noted that gender-based approaches are necessary to prevent gender-based violence and human trafficking within contexts considered to fall within the “crisis” description. Those drafting this guidance considered this to be a crucial and useful framework based on their experience and the limited evidence reviewed. Only two sources were included in the evidence review that supported this hypothesis, despite the evidence that women and girls are particularly vulnerable to modern slavery, representing 70 per cent of the 40.3 million people in modern slavery, and the understanding that this vulnerability increases during times of crisis. Gender-based approaches were considered key to programming across a broad range of contexts by grassroots, local, national and global organizations. Studies included the role of women as front-line workers, plus the establishment of gender-sensitive monitoring and referral systems. Further data on children, including those separated and unaccompanied, is required across a range of displacement contexts in order to understand the utility of gender-based approaches for minors.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

A limited amount of evidence was reviewed, which was based mainly on secondary studies and reviews of qualitative and quantitative data. One was a qualitative study of academic literature, policies and laws. The other was a quantitative quasi-experimental research design using the new 3P Anti-trafficking Policy Index. The two studies

used literature reviews based on documents and reports provided by humanitarian agencies, international and local organizations and NGOs as well as media reports as the basis for a case study.

SIZE

One study covered Nepal, and the second was a global review of literature covering gender disparities in elected office.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

The strength of evidence underpinning this hypothesis was assessed to support a positive finding on the hypothesis. The majority of studies were also considered context appropriate, somewhat valid, reliable or somewhat reliable and cogent. All studies combined evidence from multiple international and local sources to produce a stronger evidentiary foundation for conclusions drawn.

IMPLEMENTATION NOTES

Whilst the evidence included under this hypothesis was limited, the experience of the Working Group highlighted that a gender-sensitive approach is important in dealing with modern slavery in conflict settings. Much has been written of the specific vulnerabilities of women and girls in conflict settings, including abduction and the use of forced marriage, rape and forced sexual exploitation as both a strategy and tactic of war by armed groups. The vulnerabilities of women and girls is also emphasized at the multilateral level in various UN Resolutions and reports. More evidence is needed to drill into the specific policy responses required to reduce the vulnerability of women and girls to modern slavery in crisis situations.

Evidence Base

Kay Standing, Sara Parker, and Sapana Bisba, "[Grassroots responses to violence against women and girls in post-earthquake Nepal: lessons from the field](#)," *Gender and Development* 24, 2 (2016): 187-204.

Niklas Potrafke, "[Policies against Human Trafficking – The Role of Religion and Political Institutions](#)," *CESifo Working Paper* 4278 (2013).

HYPOTHESIS 5

Addressing the root causes of vulnerability to human trafficking and modern slavery can reduce re-victimization in crisis situations

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: A large number of studies supported this hypothesis. The studies were of high quality and in most cases used good sample sizes. The studies covered a diverse geographical area. The study findings were consistent with the practical experience of the reviewers.

Description

Fifteen studies were reviewed in relation to this hypothesis. These studies highlighted the need to address various factors that make people vulnerable to human trafficking and modern slavery. Such factors can be further exacerbated in situations of conflict or during natural and anthropogenic disasters. One study argued that reducing domestic violence is necessary for decreasing the risk of child trafficking, whilst another study argued that formal education, citizenship, maternal education, higher caste status, and birth order were protective determinants that mitigate an individual's risk to be trafficked in South-East Asia. One study that focused on preventing human trafficking along migration routes recommended increased provisions for migrants, including access to regular travel alternatives, safe accommodation, vocational training and employment, access to regularized migration status, and fair asylum procedures.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

The studies included a variety of methods, such as reviews of scholarly literature and policies, quantitative analysis, and qualitative methods, such as ethnographic participant observation, and interviews with migrants, survivors of trafficking and abuse, and key informants from government agencies and NGOs.

SIZE

The studies were geographically diverse, covering Bangladesh, Bulgaria, China, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Kenya, Lebanon, Madagascar, Nigeria, North Macedonia, Pakistan, Poland, Serbia and jurisdictions within South-East Asia.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

The studies were mostly published in peer-reviewed publications. Studies from NGOs, universities, and an intergovernmental organization were also included. Many of the studies lacked a focus on crisis situations, and further evidence could enhance the diversity of research related to this hypothesis. With additional, focused research, including additional empirical data, the hypothesis could be proven more strongly in terms of specific root causes of vulnerability to human trafficking and modern slavery, especially in crisis situations.

IMPLEMENTATION NOTES

Identifying and addressing the root causes of human trafficking and modern slavery for many people requires identifying the complex reasons that they leave home to find work, as well as the diverse ways they are exploited by traffickers. This relates to also understanding their socioeconomic situation. Addressing the root causes of modern slavery involves engaging with survivors on what factors prompted them to migrate, how they were impacted by a crisis, what factors made them vulnerable to trafficking, and what skills and other support would help them to achieve sustained liberation.

The Working Group believes that the hypothesis, as stated, is not clear or narrow enough to advance policy on root causes that can be addressed to prevent human trafficking and modern slavery in crisis contexts. It seems that addressing the root causes of anything will help address problems related to such root causes. Identifying the most

critical root causes, and how best to address and mitigate them, are key challenges. Therefore, additional evidence is needed to more clearly articulate helpful solutions about what root causes can be addressed, and how they can be addressed, especially in crisis situations.

Evidence Base
Amber Peterman, Alina Potts, Megan O'Donnell, Kelly Thompson, Niyati Shah, Sabine Oertelt-Prigione and Nicole van Gelder, " Pandemics and Violence Against Women and Children ," <i>Centre for Global Development Working Paper</i> 528 (2020).
Christopher Horwood and Tuesday Reitano, <i>A Perfect Storm? Forces shaping modern migration and displacements</i> (Copenhagen: Danish Refugee Council, 2016).
Claire Healy, <i>The Strength to Carry On – Resilience and Vulnerability to Trafficking on Migrations Routes to Europe</i> (Vienna: International Centre for Migration Policy Development, 2019).
Diego Hernandez and Alexandra Rudolph, " Modern Day Slavery: What drives human trafficking in Europe? ," <i>European Journal of Political Economy</i> 38 (2015): 118–139.
Elena Shih, " Health and Rights at the Margins: Human trafficking and HIV/AIDS amongst Jingpo ethnic communities in Ruili City, China ," <i>Anti-Trafficking Review</i> 2 (2013).
Farhan Yousaf, " Forced migration, human trafficking and human security ," <i>Current Sociology</i> 66, 2 (2018): 209-225.
Hannah Britton and Laura Dean, " Policy Responses to Human Trafficking in Southern Africa: Domesticating International Norms ," <i>Human Rights Review</i> 15 (2014): 305-328.
Holly Atkinson and Judith Bruce, " Adolescent Girls, Human Rights and the Expanding Climate Emergency ," <i>Annals of Global Health</i> 81, 3 (2015): 323–330.
Huong Tu Nguyen, " Gender vulnerabilities in times of natural disasters-Male-to-Female Violence in the Philippines in the Aftermath of Super Typhoon Haiyan ," <i>Violence Against Women</i> 25, 4 (2018): 421–440.
International Labour Organization, Asian Research Center for Migration, Institute of Asian Studies and Chulalongkorn University, <i>Employment Practices and Working Conditions in Thailand's Fishing Sector</i> (Bangkok: ILO, 2014).
Javier Trevino-Rangel, " Magical legalism: human rights practitioners and undocumented migrants in Mexico ," <i>The International Journal of Human Rights</i> 23, 5 (2019): 843-861.
Jérôme Ballet and Augendra Bhukuth, " Recruitment Patterns of Child Trafficking in Madagascar: An Analysis Based on Missing and Recovered Children ," <i>Journal of Human Trafficking</i> 2, 3 (2016): 235-254.
Julia Paccitto and Elena Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, " Writing the 'Other' into humanitarian discourse: Framing theory and practice in South-South humanitarian responses to forced displacement ," <i>University of Oxford Refugee Studies Centre Working Studies Paper</i> 93 (2013).
Kelsey Perry and Lindsay McEwing, " How do social determinants affect human trafficking in southeast asia and what can we do about it: A systematic review ," <i>Health and Human Rights</i> 15, 2 (2013): 138-159.
Lester Thompson, Linda Tupe, David Wadley, and Karen Flanagan, " Mobilizing cultural supports against the commercial sexual exploitation of (female) children (CSEC) in Solomon Islands community development ," <i>Community Development</i> 50, 3 (2019): 315-331.

Lucrecia Rubio Grundell, "EU Anti-Trafficking Policies and Crime Control to Prevention and Protection," <i>Migration Policy Centre</i> 9 (2015).
Lukas Olynk, <i>Meneshachin Scoping Study-A global synthesis and analysis of responsible recruitment initiatives targeting low-wage, migrant workers</i> (New York: The Freedom Fund, 2020).
Michael Gerrard, "Climate Change and Human Trafficking After the Paris Agreement," <i>University of Miami Law Review</i> 72 (2018): 345-368.
Milan Dharel, Writu Bhatta Rai and Nanimaya Thapa, <i>Understanding Vulnerabilities and Strengthening Response: Community-based Integration of Anti-trafficking and Human Rights Protections within Post-Earthquake Recovery Efforts in Sindhupalchok District, Nepal August - December 2015</i> (Sindhupalchok, Nepal: Swatantra Abhiyan, Freedom Fund, Free the Slaves and GMSP, 2016).
Mónica Hurtago, Ángela Iranzo Dosdad, and Sergio Gómez Hernández, "The relationship between human trafficking and child recruitment in the Colombian Armed Conflict," <i>Third World Quarterly</i> 39, 5 (2019): 941-958.
Neil Howard, "Protecting children from trafficking in Benin: in need of politics and participation," <i>Development in Practice</i> 22, 4 (2012): 460-472.
Nlerum Okogbule, "Combating the 'New Slavery' in Nigeria — An Appraisal of Legal and Policy Responses to Human Trafficking," <i>Journal of African Law</i> 57, 1 (2013): 57-80.
Peter Olayiwola, "Killing the Tree by Cutting the Foliage Instead of Uprooting It? Rethinking awareness campaigns as a response to trafficking in South-West Nigeria," <i>Anti-Trafficking Review</i> 3 (2019): 50-65.
Pooja Theresa Stanslas, "Transborder Human Trafficking in Malaysian Waters: Addressing the Root Causes," <i>Journal of Maritime Law and Commerce</i> 41, 4 (2010): 595-606.
Randall Akee, Arnab Basu, Nancy Chau, and Melanie Khamis, "Ethnic Fragmentation, Conflict, Displaced Persons and Human Trafficking: An Empirical Analysis," <i>Institute for the Study of Labor</i> 8, 5142 (2010).
Stephanie Gentry, <i>Anti-Trafficking Policy Compliance with International Norms in Estonia and the Former Soviet Space</i> (Seattle: University of Washington, 2016).
Thanos Maroukis, "Keeping Up Appearances: The British Public Policy Response to the Trafficking of Domestic Workers in a Changing Regime of Social Protection," <i>Journal of Immigrant and Refugee Studies</i> 15, 2 (2017): 155-170.
United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, <i>Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Trafficking in Persons</i> (Vienna: UNODC, 2020).

HYPOTHESIS 6

Adopting a human rights-based approach strengthens the prevention of human trafficking during crisis situations and strengthens the protection of vulnerable persons.

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: The studies were relatively diverse, and of moderately high quality. The practical experience of the reviewers was a strong factor in the confidence score expressed in this hypothesis.

Description

Tensions between a crime-oriented and a human rights-based approach for preventing human trafficking and addressing vulnerabilities were captured in ten sources. This hypothesis explored how the adoption of a human rights-based approach might strengthen the prevention of human trafficking, particularly in contexts deemed as in “crisis”. It also explored how a human-rights based approach could strengthen the overall protection of people deemed to be “vulnerable”, replacing crime-oriented approaches prevalent in human trafficking work. Rather than focusing on the effectiveness of a human rights-based approach to prevent human trafficking, all studies focused on arguing that this approach reduces vulnerability of victims to trafficking, without demonstrating that a lower vulnerability will limit or eliminate the risk of being trafficked or re-trafficked. The underlying assumption of all the studies is that an overfocus on a crime-centred approach is detrimental to the rights of survivors and victims of trafficking.

Three studies used existing international standards, posed by either the UN Palermo Protocol or the 2011 European Union Anti-Trafficking Directive, as a framework to assess domestic legislation and to establish if a human rights-based approach had been adopted. By contrast, three analyses argued that a genuine human rights-based approach in national legislation is hindered by the fundamental design of these international standards, or because these standards collide with other principles underpinning conflicting regulatory frameworks.

Thus, whilst one study proposes the development of further legal instruments within the human rights regime for complementing the criminal law approach of the UN Palermo Protocol, two records emphasize that the problem lies in the collision of regulatory frameworks with conflicting principles, namely migration law versus anti-trafficking law, and the fact that former is favoured over the latter. The importance of this hypothesis was reflected and supported in the practice and experience of those drafting this Guide as well as evidence presented.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

The diversity of evidence underpinning this hypothesis was mixed, including primary, secondary and mixed-method studies. Most were qualitative and primary studies, but studies also included combined qualitative and quantitative plus theoretical approaches. There was only one study with clear survivor engagement, with most studies focusing on key informants.

SIZE

Studies included source, transit and destination countries and regions with, for example, studies undertaken across Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean and in individual States, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, Turkey and the UK. Sample sizes were fairly small, ranging from 14-24 interview participants, with young people, adults and key informants from a range of anti-trafficking organizations.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

Studies were generally supported by literature reviews and desk-based studies of available global evidence and were heavily reliant on national legislative frameworks. All studies appeared in peer-reviewed journals. Primary studies in this group were also generally supported by supplementary desk research or literature review,

strengthening the underpinning evidence.

However, it should be noted that findings cannot be easily extrapolated to other contexts because they were heavily reliant on national legislative frameworks. Most studies had a clear or somewhat clear research framework and were transparent. The majority of claims were somewhat valid, reliable and cogent.

Evidence Base
Alinka Gearon, " Child Trafficking: Young people's experiences of front-line services in England ," <i>The British Journal of Criminology</i> 59, 2 (2019): 481–500.
Beatriz Camargo Magalhães, " Mind the Protection (Policy) Gap: Trafficking and Labor Exploitation in Migrant Domestic Work in Belgium ," <i>Journal of Immigrant and Refugee Studies</i> 15, 2 (2017): 122-139.
Evelyn Probst, " Victims' protection within the context of trafficking in human beings and European Union standards ," <i>Academy of European Law</i> 19, 3 (2019): 357-367.
Letizia Palumbo, " Protection of trafficked people in Italy: policies, limits and challenges ," <i>Journal of Money Laundering Control</i> 18, 1 (2015): 52-65.
Louise Gomez-Mera, " Regime complexity and global governance: The case of trafficking in Persons ," <i>European Journal of International Relations</i> 22, 3 (2015): 566-595.
Rebecca Miller and Sebastian Baumeister, " Managing Migration: Is border control fundamental to anti-trafficking and anti-smuggling interventions? " <i>Anti-Trafficking Review</i> , 2 (2013): 15-32.
Sarah Warpinski, " Protecting Women and Girls from Human Trafficking in the Democratic Republic of Congo: Toward Justice for Victims of Gender-Based Violence ," <i>Michigan State University College of Law International Law Review</i> 21, 1 (2013): 155-194.
Stephanie Nawyn and Nur Banu Birdal, " Counter-Trafficking Policy and Immigrant Rights in Turkey ," <i>Insight Turkey</i> 16, 4 (2014): 77-85.
Stephanie Nawyn, Nur Kavakli, Tuba Demirci-Yılmaz, and Vanja Oflazoğlu, " Human trafficking and Migration Management in the Global South ," <i>International Journal of Sociology</i> 46, 3 (2016): 189-204.
Tanya Basok and Nicola Piper, " Management Versus Rights: Women's Migration and Global Governance in Latin America and the Caribbean ," <i>Feminist Economics</i> 18, 2 (2012): 35-61.

HYPOTHESIS 7

Multi-agency coordination within States and in regional contexts strengthens the response to modern slavery during crisis situations.

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: The studies were diverse, and of moderately high quality. The practical experience of the reviewers was a strong factor in the confidence expressed in this hypothesis.

Description

12 studies supported this hypothesis. These studies highlighted the need to improve coordination between government agencies within States, and internationally across countries. One study highlighted the need to collaborate between governments and business, and one other highlighted the need to collaborate between sex worker organizations and other stakeholder groups, including anti-trafficking and labour rights organizations and trade unions. This national and international coordination was related to the prevention of human trafficking, including reducing the exploitation of migrants; reducing the prevalence of trafficking and; providing better protection for victims, including coordinating repatriation and reintegration between sending and receiving States. Few studies were explicitly related to crisis as defined by this Guide, instead viewing collaboration as important to coordinating a national response to trafficking, or to improve collaboration on policies to prevent “illegal” migration. Few mentioned explicit coordination mechanisms, instead mentioning in more general terms the need to collaborate to prevent or reduce trafficking. One study discussed the need for bilateral agreements or an independent agency to formally assist in the repatriation of victims.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

Five studies were non-empirical, with four studies employing qualitative methods, including

interviews, observation, and focus group discussions. One study used mixed methods, including a survey of 100 construction companies in the United Arab Emirates.

SIZE

The studies largely covered Asia-Pacific including Australia, Cambodia, Thailand and Nepal. One study covered the European Union. Two studies covered national contexts in Mexico and Zimbabwe. Three were global.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

The studies were mostly published in peer-reviewed publications. Three studies from intergovernmental organizations and an NGO were included. Many of the studies lacked a focus on crisis situations, and further evidence could enhance the diversity of research related to this hypothesis. The claims within the studies were somewhat valid, reliable and cogent, whilst two of the three studies had a clear research framework. With additional, focused research, including additional empirical data, the hypothesis could be proven more strongly in terms of specific collaboration mechanisms, especially in crisis situations.

IMPLEMENTATION NOTES

Whilst the evidence underpinning this hypothesis was limited, the Working Group decided to retain it within the Guide in order to highlight the importance of multilateral collaboration in responding to crisis situations. Much has been written about humanitarian collaboration and partnership, but little in the context of responding to modern slavery. A brief overview and analysis

of current practices and challenges in addressing trafficking in persons within the Global Protection Cluster was conducted between October 2017 and June 2018. It found that anti-trafficking efforts in the architecture cluster did not have a consistent

approach, but that trafficking in persons has been receiving an increased focus within the cluster. Recommendations included need for training, and operational tools that could be easily contextualized.¹¹

Evidence Base
Andreas Schloenhardt and Mark Loong, "Return and Reintegration of Human Trafficking Victims from Australia," <i>International Journal of Refugee Law</i> 23, 2 (2011): 143–173.
Brighton M. Mvumi, Marion Pratt, Helen Robson, "Second Joint Donor Review of International Organization for Migration (IOM) Programmes on Emergency Assistance to Mobile and Vulnerable Populations in Zimbabwe, Humanitarian Assistance to Returned Migrants and Mobile Populations at the South Africa-Zimbabwe," (Geneva: International Organization for Migration, 2007).
Cristina Popescu, "Illegal Migration-Conceptual Delimitations," <i>Challenges of the Knowledge Society</i> 3 (2013): 605-612.
Deanna Davy, "Responding to Child Sex Trafficking: Transnational Advocacy Networks in the Greater Mekong Subregion," <i>Women & Criminal Justice</i> 23, 4 (2014): 304-325.
Gergana Danailova-Trainor and Frank Laczko, "Trafficking in persons and development," <i>International Migration</i> 48, 4 (2010): 38-83.
Milan Dharel, Writu Bhatta Rai and Nanimaya Thapa, <i>Understanding Vulnerabilities and Strengthening Response: Community-based Integration of Anti-trafficking and Human Rights Protections within Post-Earthquake Recovery Efforts in Sindhupalchok District, Nepal August - December 2015</i> (Sindhupalchok, Nepal: Swatantra Abhiyan, Freedom Fund, Free the Slaves and GMSP, 2016).
Chloé Taillard Yévenes, Emma Proust, <i>Enhancing the safety and sustainability of the return and reintegration of victims of trafficking</i> (Geneva: International Organization for Migration, 2019).
Ntokozi Yingwana, Rebecca Walker, and Alex Etchart, "Sex Work, Migration, and Human Trafficking in South Africa: From polarised arguments to potential partnerships", <i>Anti-Trafficking Review</i> , 12 (2019): 74-90.
Nur Subono and Meidi Kosandi, "The regionalism paradox in the fight against human trafficking: Indonesia, and the Limits of Regional Cooperation in ASEAN," <i>Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Human Ethics</i> 16, 2 (2019): 89-98.
Palita Thapa, "Human trafficking in Nepal: Changing dimensions," <i>Asian Journal of Women's Studies</i> 21, 4 (2015): 450-459.
Victoria Rietig, "Prevent, Protect, and Prosecute Human Trafficking in Mexico – Policy and Practical Recommendations," <i>International Migration</i> 53, 4 (2014).
Walk Free Foundation, "Protecting People in A Pandemic," (Perth: Walk Free Foundation, 2020).

HYPOTHESIS 8

Long-term support for survivors of human trafficking and modern slavery can increase the likelihoods of their effective and sustained recovery.

High Confidence

Reason for confidence score: The evidence supporting this hypothesis was relatively strong, with a significant quantity of relevant data and strong geographic reach. The study findings were consistent with the practical experience of the reviewers.

Description

Seven studies were examined in support of this hypothesis. Survivors who receive inadequate support are at risk of entering cycles of re-trafficking, as they return to the same socioeconomic conditions that made them vulnerable to exploitation in the first place. One study argued that young people require a response that protects them from further harm, and where they are listened to and believed, whilst another study indicated that psychosocial support for survivors is crucial to their recovery and integration. In addition, tailored support is important, as is the provision of shelter that fosters a sense of stability. Deportation, if they seek help, is an unspoken fear of many. Risk of deportation for some individuals could therefore mean an increased risk of harm to self or family members.

One significant study on the lives of reintegrated survivors is the Butterfly Longitudinal Research Project, a ten-year initiative exploring how male and female survivors of human trafficking and sexual exploitation have integrated after receiving support from NGO survivor aftercare programmes. The study stressed the importance of market-driven vocational training at international quality standards to enhance prospects of sustainable employment after reintegration. The survivors in this study reported that a “successful life” was one that had a good and stable income. The Working Group believes that with additional, focused research, the hypothesis could be proven more strongly. Furthermore, long-term support could be better understood with further insight on different target groups. Additional research could bring

further insight into the specific types of support that could enable effective and sustained recovery of different groups including those in crisis situations.

Strength of evidence

DIVERSITY

All in all, the studies represented diversity in the research methods they employed. These included focus groups, semi-structured interviews, academic and grey literature review, policy review, and a review of multi-national European Commission-funded projects on child trafficking. Furthermore, one study was based on a ten-year longitudinal study of male and female survivors of human trafficking and sexual exploitation. Data was generated from policymakers, support providers, trafficking survivors, and respondents from government and civil society.

SIZE

The studies explored for this hypothesis represented Europe, including the European Union, specifically Belgium, France, Hungary, Italy and the UK. Additional studies focused on Asia, including Cambodia and Nepal; another focused on the US. One study had an international context.

TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

The studies were a mix of peer-reviewed articles and NGO reports, with one authored by an intergovernmental organization. The studies

highlighted the need to provide survivors of modern slavery with critical support, rather than articulating specific positive outcomes that could result from any specific approach. The focus was,

therefore, often less centered on clear evidence for long-term survivor support that could increase the likelihoods of effective and sustained recovery.

Evidence Base
Alexandra Seltzer, " Human trafficking: the case of Burmese refugees in Thailand ," <i>International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice</i> 37, 4 (2013): 279-293.
Alexandra Williams-Woods and Yvonne Mellon, " Irregular Victims: Investigating the Immigration Status Decisions of Post-NRM Victims of Human Trafficking, the Availability of Eligible Benefits and the Related Impact on Victims of Trafficking ," <i>Journal of Modern Slavery</i> 4, 2 (2018): 66-92.
Alinka Gearon, " Child Trafficking: Young people's experiences of front-line services in England ," <i>The British Journal of Criminology</i> 59, 2 (2019): 481-500.
Caterine Palmer, " Trafficked children and child protection systems in the European Union ," <i>European Journal of Social Work</i> 22, 4 (2019): 551-562.
David Rousseau, <i>Review of Models of Care for Trafficking Survivors in Thailand</i> (Washington DC: Winrock International, 2019).
Evelyn Probst, " Victims' protection within the context of trafficking in human beings and European Union standards ," <i>Academy of European Law</i> 19, 3 (2019): 357-367.
Ivan Briscoe, <i>New Humanitarian Frontiers: Addressing criminal violence in Mexico and Central America</i> (Geneva: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2015).
Iffat Idris, <i>Interventions to Support Victims of Modern Slavery</i> (Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies, 2017).
Joanne Van Selm, <i>Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Measures for the Integration of Trafficked Persons</i> (International Organization for Migration: Paris, 2015)
Kay Standing, Sara Parker, and Sapana Bisba, " Grassroots responses to violence against women and girls in post-earthquake Nepal: lessons from the field ," <i>Gender and Development</i> 24, 2 (2016): 187-204.
Margaret Chambeshi, Amanda Eckhardt, Xinyi Wang, and Chris Muller, <i>Healthcare Access for Foreign-National Survivors of Trafficking</i> (New York: Restore NYC, 2019).
Susan Rosas, " Sex Trafficking in Cambodia as a Complex Humanitarian Emergency ," <i>Advocates Forum</i> (2011): 41-50.

Supporting former child soldiers

Although not included in the initial review of evidence, a review of the updated version of Walk Free's Promising Practices Database revealed an additional five studies related to former child soldiers. These studies were diverse and so did not support the existing hypotheses, whilst they represent only a small subset of the literature on support to child soldiers. As such, the Working Group decided to pull out some of the common lessons from these documents, rather than developing additional hypotheses. It is hoped that future versions of this Guide will provide more detailed assessment of effective policy responses for child soldiers.

Four of the studies in this subset were evaluations of interventions providing support directly to child soldiers, either in the form of disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programmes, such as those that facilitate the release, return and reunification with families and

communities. One study focused on community-based interventions targeting post-traumatic stress disorder and another focused on the provision of non-formal education to facilitate reintegration. One study reviewed the preparation and sensitization of receiving communities to facilitate their return and social reintegration, whilst one reference provided a longitudinal study of 39 former soldiers and their longer-term outcomes. The studies covered interventions in Angola, Nepal, Mozambique, Sierra Leone and Uganda.

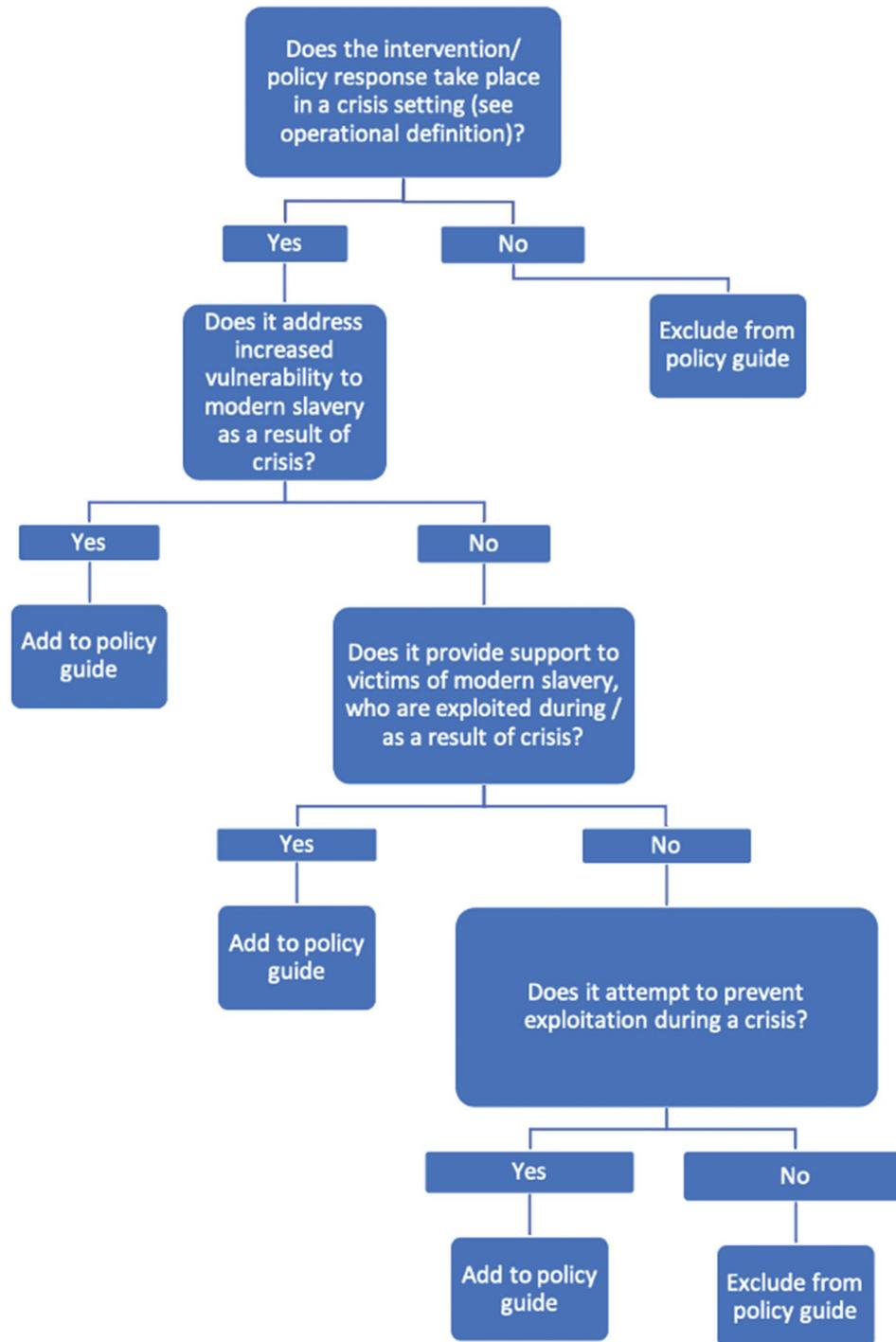
These studies emphasize¹², as does much of the current literature, that traditional DDR programmes may not be sufficient for supporting the reintegration of child soldiers into their communities. These studies highlighted the importance of community-based interventions, non-formal education and apprenticeships to support the children affected. Support was also required for the host community, in terms of preparation and sensitization and family reunification, as well as community works projects and outward support of traditional community rites to facilitate reintegration. Longer-term support was emphasized throughout.

Evidence Base
Brighton M. Mvumi, Marion Pratt, Helen Robson, <i>Second Joint Donor Review of International Organization for Migration (IOM) Programmes on Emergency Assistance to Mobile and Vulnerable Populations in Zimbabwe, Humanitarian Assistance to Returned Migrants and Mobile Populations at the South Africa-Zimbabwe</i> (Geneva: IOM, 2007).
Child Soldiers International, <i>Final Report - Project of Reintegration of Child Soldiers in Angola</i> , Christian Children's Fund (London: Child Soldiers International, 2004).
Gloria Fauth, Bonnie Daniels, <i>Youth Reintegration Training and Education for Peace (YRTEP) Program: Sierra Leone, 2000-2001, Impact Evaluation</i> (Washington DC: USAID, 2001).
Neil Boothby, "What happens when child soldiers grow up? The Mozambique case study," <i>Intervention</i> 4, 3 (2006): 244-259.

APPENDIX 1: CRISIS SEARCH STRINGS

INITIAL SEARCH TERM	TERM HARVESTING
Modern slavery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slavery; antislavery; modern slavery; contemporary slavery; contemporary forms of slavery • Servitude; involuntary servitude • Forced labour; compulsory labour; forced work; coerced labour • Institutions and practices similar to slavery; practices similar to slavery; slavery-like practices; serfdom; debt bondage; bonded labour; unfree labour; peonage; exploitative adoption • Human trafficking; trafficking in persons; trafficking in human beings; trafficking in people; sex trafficking; labour trafficking • Worst forms of child labour; child exploitation • Forced marriage; servile marriage
Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • War; warfare; combat; armed combat; armed conflict;
Humanitarian contexts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflict zones; armed conflict; war zones; combat zones; civil war; international conflict; domestic conflict; • Natural disasters; environmental disasters; environmental events; • Emergencies; complex emergencies; • Political emergencies; political conflict;
Displacement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal displacement; domestic displacement; domestic movements;
Migration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-border migration; international migration; domestic migration; internal migration; • Regular migration; legal migration; irregular migration; illegal migration; clandestine migration; migrant smuggling; • Asylum seeking; seeking refugee; • Forced migration; • Urban-rural migration;

APPENDIX 2: DECISION TREE USED TO DETERMINE INCLUSION OF HYPOTHESES



ENDNOTES

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