

The following sets out Liberty Shared’s submission to the CEDAW Committee and identifies the issues that we believe are relevant to inform the formulation of the General Recommendation on Trafficking in Persons pertaining to Article 6 of The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

***About Liberty Shared***

Liberty Shared was established in 2011 with the goal of providing solutions to change the way human trafficking is addressed. The organisation is made up of a group of dedicated professionals from different industries who feel strongly that a more effective, coordinated response to human trafficking is essential.

Our core aims are to: (a) prevent human trafficking through the strategic capture and communication of intelligence, information, knowledge and data, using technology, publications, and training to develop and empower stakeholders’ capacities and collaboration; (b) make positive recommendations to improve the rule of law insofar as it relates to human trafficking; (c) promote greater access to justice for victims of human trafficking; and (d) disrupt trafficking through banking and private sector interventions.

Liberty Shared’s long term strategy is to use information to ensure the costs of protection and prevention are priced into and reflected by the market. This can only be done by increasing awareness through improved access to knowledge, information and intelligence. Wider and deeper transparency allows society in general, consumers and stakeholders, to better assess the implications and potential outcome of their decisions and those of their elected representatives and the effects of choices they make; what they will and will not accept.

Ultimately, Liberty Shared seeks to improve the lot of some of the most vulnerable in society by highlighting the human cost of trafficking in persons and thereby influencing those who are in a position to effect positive change from individual consumers to global businesses and governments. Further information about our programs and publications can be accessed at www.libertyshared.org

***Key Recommendations***

Trafficking is a multi-billion US Dollar a year industry. As traffickers become more sophisticated in their methodologies, so the tools and methods at the disposal of States in the fight against trafficking and in efforts to protect victims of this crime must be updated and re-evaluated to keep pace with the changing face of trafficking.

In light of this we recommend:

1. States must be called upon to strengthen and adopt specialized Anti-Money Laundering and Countering Financing of Terrorism (AML/CTF) measures which are necessary to identify, disrupt, and confiscate illicit revenues from trafficking. Any confiscated funds should be ring-fenced for the purpose of redistribution to victims primarily by way of compensation for the wrongs that they have suffered. States must issue guidance and hold the relevant private actors accountable for violations of AML/CTF laws relating to human trafficking.
2. States must recognise trafficking is a ‘crime of many crimes’ and a crime that involves violations of multiple rights. It must never be viewed in isolation from the broader framework of women’s rights and human rights. Criminalisation of trafficking does **not** preclude the need for a robust employment protection regime. The cornerstone safeguard for migrant workers is strong employment legislation designed to protect workers and minimise the opportunities for exploitation by providing very clear protections relating to basic employment rights such as minimum wage, overtime, the right to freedom of association, health and safety, rest days and decent working conditions. It is imperative that employment protections are extended to all migrant workers irrespective of level of skill or the sector in which they work.
3. The number of prosecutions against corporates in South-East Asia for exploitation of labour is extremely limited and in certain countries non-existent. This is because corporates do not qualify as legal persons against whom proceedings can be brought. States must be called upon to hold corporates accountable for their role in coercive recruitment and exploitation of vulnerable migrant women and girls by being encouraged to legislate with such effect or actively enforce existing laws. States must also call upon corporates to offer workers company level operational grievance mechanisms that are gender-sensitive, transparent, clear and available to those who have a legitimate complaint and are in need of access to a remedy. The enforcement of corporate accountability laws will require robust inspection efforts from Labour Inspectors. States must be called upon to commit to adequately resource their Labour Inspectorates such that proactive and consistent enforcement of laws protecting workers can take place across varying sectors and locations.

***The Relevance of Anti-money Laundering and Counter-terrorist Financing Practices to the General Recommendation***

The General Recommendation should encourage States to adopt AML/CTF practices specialized in the detection of proceeds of human trafficking, especially trafficking in women and girls. This approach is essential as female victims are commonly concentrated in low skilled and low paid jobs such as domestic work, agriculture, manufacturing or sex work. Typically they work in unregulated, underregulated and informal sectors with little or no legal protection. They may find themselves in remote locations and/or subject to restrictions on their freedom of movement. Their vulnerability to exploitation is exacerbated by the absence of fair, efficient and accessible means in those sectors to resolve grievances when they occur.

In addition, lack of accountability for recruitment agencies and the debts involved in migration have a significant impact on the majority of women who leave their homes in order to migrate for a job with the help of recruitment agencies who are often the only source of employment information for these women. In many jurisdictions, the recruiters operate in an environment of impunity where their abuses are not investigated or prosecuted.

Adoption of AML/CTF practices could assist victims of trafficking as follows:

1. Financial investigation can assist law enforcement in a criminal investigation to detect and disrupt human trafficking networks. The reporting by Financial Institutions of suspicious transactions, can help stimulate investigation into suspicious activities related to human trafficking. There are specific indicators of money laundering related to human trafficking that can flag potential cases of human trafficking. Examples include payments to labour agencies, recruiters or employment websites, especially if those are based overseas or multiple low value remittances to jurisdictions known to be of a higher risk for human trafficking for sexual exploitation.
2. AML/CTF regimes can also support law enforcement efforts to identify and confiscate the proceeds of human trafficking when the investigation commences. Particularly in countries where execution of judgment can take many years, this can help to prevent traffickers from moving their assets abroad and/or declaring themselves bankrupt to avoid confiscation of their assets and payment of compensation. Use of powers such as asset tracing/freezing, seizure, forfeiture and sale send a strong message to traffickers that their actions will not go unpunished. Additionally, asset tracing is a burdensome process which, in some jurisdictions is left to the victims. NGOs and victims often lack experience and resources (both in terms of finances and time involved) to locate all of the trafficker’s assets. This would be accomplished far more effectively by trained anti-money laundering officers. However, it is important that forfeited assets be ring-fenced to be used as compensation for the victims rather than going directly to the State.

The relevance of international AML/CTF practices to the General Recommendation is well established. For instance, at paragraph 15, the Concept Note draws attention to "*the growing financial gains derived from trafficking, the scale of possibilities available to disguise such revenues, and the wide impunity enjoyed by perpetrators of the crime*" as well as "*the impact of globalization, entailing the increased movement of peoples, goods and services, and the advancement in technological innovations, including the Internet, social media platforms and mobile technology used for the deception, recruitment, coercion, control and sale of potential and actual victims of trafficking . . . .*"

At paragraph 37, the Concept Note cites the International Labour Organization's estimate that profits of US$ 150.2 billion per year are generated by forced labour, two thirds of which is attributable to forced sexual exploitation. Furthermore, the Concept Note emphasizes, "*States parties have a responsibility to detect such flows and confiscate and redistribute the proceeds for the benefit of victims*."

The CEDAW Committee's General Recommendation 28 guides States that policies against discrimination must "*apply to both public and private economic spheres*" and that women whose rights have been violated must be able to seek reparations in various forms, including monetary compensation.

**In view of these principles, we submit that "*all appropriate measures to prevent all forms of trafficking in women and* girls" must be understood to embrace those specialized AML/CTF measures which are necessary to identify, disrupt, and confiscate illicit revenues from trafficking for the purpose of redistribution to victims.**

*International AML/CTF Movements*

As with proceeds of any other crime, the revenue generated by the global human trafficking industry will ultimately find its way into the mainstream financial sector. Against this backdrop, a growing number of inter-governmental organizations and NGOs have acknowledged, and are working to raise awareness of, the linkages between AML/CTF and counter-human trafficking efforts.

Critically, the Financial Action Task Force ("**FATF**"), the pre-eminent AML/CTF standard setting body, has made fighting laundering of funds from human trafficking a central pillar of its Special Recommendations. In Recommendation 3, FATF sets out that countries should criminalise money laundering on the basis of the Vienna Convention and the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (the "**Trafficking Protocol**").FATF further advises in Recommendation 3 that "*[c]ountries should apply the crime of money laundering to all serious offences, with a view to including the widest range of predicate offences.*"[[1]](#footnote-2) The predicate offences identified by FATF include trafficking in human beings and migrant smuggling as well as sexual exploitation, including sexual exploitation of children.[[2]](#footnote-3) In 2016, UN Security Council Resolution 2331 encouraged FATF and FATF-Style Regional Bodies to consider including an analysis of financial flows associated with trafficking in persons that finances terrorism as part of its ongoing work. In addition, Member States were "*call[ed] upon to investigate, disrupt and dismantle networks involved in trafficking in persons in the context of armed conflict, in accordance with national legislation, including anti-money laundering, anti-corruption and anti-bribery laws and, where appropriate, counter-terrorism laws*".[[3]](#footnote-4)

In UN Security Council Resolution 2388 (2017) Member States were "called upon to combat crimes that might be connected with trafficking in persons in areas affected by armed conflict, such as money laundering, corruption, the smuggling of migrants and other forms of organized crime, including by making use of financial investigations in order to identify and analyse financial intelligence."[[4]](#footnote-5) Member States were called upon to "strengthen compliance with international AML/CFT standards and increase capacity to conduct proactive financial investigations to track and disrupt human trafficking".[[5]](#footnote-6) **We believe that Member States should be called upon to strengthen their AML capabilities and apply proactive financial investigations to all forms of trafficking with a view to disrupting the activities of trafficking networks and creating the possibilities for redistribution of seized proceeds to those who have endured exploitation.**

FATF elaborated these concerns in its Report on Financial Flows from Human Trafficking published in July 2018 in cooperation with the Asia Pacific Group of Financial Intelligence Units (the "**2018 FATF Report**"). Acting in conjunction with national governments, FATF urges that financial institutions can and should play a role in identifying and reporting proceeds of human trafficking to interested law enforcement. The 2018 FATF Report helpfully enumerates general indicators of money laundering related to trafficking to assist in these endeavours.

FATF is not alone in emphasizing trafficking within the AML/CTF framework. The United States, acting through the Department of Treasury’s Financial Crimes Enforcement Network, published *Guidance on Recognizing Activity that May be Associated with Human Smuggling and Human Trafficking — Financial Red Flags* which provides red flags specific to the United States. For example, it makes reference to cross border transactions between the United States and neighbouring jurisdictions.[[6]](#footnote-7) Similarly, the Financial Transactions and Reports Analysis Centre of Canada has published *Indicators: The laundering of illicit proceeds from human trafficking for sexual exploitation* to support financial institutions in Canada in recognising and reporting financial transactions related to laundering of funds from sexual exploitation.[[7]](#footnote-8)

In October 2017, the UK Home Office issued *A Typology of Modern Slavery Offences in the UK* outlining the ways in which trafficking manifests in the UK. The typology is based upon detailed data from convicted slavery and trafficking offences as well as case files collated by competent authorities on suspected victims of modern slavery, referred to the UK’s National Referral Mechanism from statutory agencies and NGOs. The Royal United Services Institute published its report, *Disrupting Human Trafficking: The Role of Financial Institutions*, in March 2017, wherein it critically evaluated the role that global financial institutions play in addressing trafficking and forced labour.[[8]](#footnote-9)

In Asia Pacific, NGOs have been on the front line of these efforts. For example, Liberty Shared (formerly Liberty Asia) has been sharing actionable information and data with banks and financial institutions, law enforcement and FIUs globally in the form of typologies and names of individuals, organisations and assets linked to slavery through the medium of third party databases such as WorldCheck. In addition, Liberty Shared provides extensive training for compliance and financial crime specialists in different locations across South-East Asia.

We also highlight the toolkits developed by the Thomson Reuters Foundation and European Bankers Alliance (comprising European financial institutions, NGOs focused on human trafficking, Europol, the UK National Crime Agency and legal professionals) to provide material including red flag indicators and case studies for European banks to identify human trafficking,[[9]](#footnote-10) and separately by the United States Bank Alliance in collaboration with the Thomson Reuters Foundation in July 2018 (superseding the exercise conducted by Thomson Reuters Foundation with the New York County District Attorney’s office in 2014).[[10]](#footnote-11)

*Importance of a Multidisciplinary and Multi-sector Approach*

Human trafficking is, in reality, a ‘crime of many crimes’. That is to say, the act of trafficking in persons consists of, occurs alongside, and is facilitated by, numerous other illicit acts. These include identity theft, deceit, violence against the person, theft, fraud, false imprisonment, organized criminal activities, money laundering, corruption, and terrorist financing, among many others. While not every country is a participant to the Trafficking Protocol, all of the aforementioned acts are, in most respects, criminalized worldwide, and nearly all States participate in FATF or a FATF-style regional body and are therefore committed to implementation of the FATF Recommendations.

As noted in the conclusions reached in the 2018 FATF Report, the more interaction and exposure offenders and/or victims of human trafficking have with government agencies and the formal financial sector, such as through banking or remittance activities, the more opportunities there would be to identify laundering of proceeds.

Financial institutions are in the best position to leverage their visibility of money flows within and between jurisdictions to assist law enforcement authorities in detecting and identifying trafficking-related conduct which falls within the scope of existing criminal offences under the Trafficking Protocol. In conjunction with other interested groups, financial institutions have the potential to raise awareness within particularly susceptible industries of the prevalence of such issues, so that perpetrators of these crimes can be held accountable for their actions and victims might seek compensation from traffickers' ill gotten profits.

Proceeds of trafficking are often processed through characteristic patterns of transactions involving relatively small sums, multiple financial institutions and multiple jurisdictions. In light of the difficulties encountered in the detection of such patterns, guidance is needed for personnel of financial institutions to make sense of information collected through due diligence and know-your customer checks to identify transactions potentially connected to trafficking-related activity (see FATF Recommendation 34). Unfortunately, in the absence of endorsement by a majority of States, there may be little regulatory incentive for, and indeed awareness among, financial institutions in some jurisdictions that such typologies exist and should be taken into account in their compliance activities. Furthermore, research recently commissioned by Liberty Shared (formerly Liberty Asia) found that a majority of jurisdictions surveyed did not have formal, government-sponsored mechanisms for compensating victims of trafficking from seized proceeds.[[11]](#footnote-12)

In consideration of these factors and the convergence of similar international efforts within and outside of the United Nations system, we firmly believe that AML/CTF should be emphasized in the General Recommendation as a practical and appropriate measure for a multidisciplinary and multi-sector approach to combating trafficking in women and girls. It is imperative for States to use existing anti-money laundering laws and infrastructure and issue guidance in respect of its application to proceeds originating from human trafficking and related forms of exploitation. In this way financial institutions can be truly accountable for identification, investigation and seizure of money flows and proceeds that are linked to exploitation.

***Exploitation of women and girls in unregulated, informal and under-regulated sectors***

Women are over-represented in informal employment settings in developing countries, in part because there is a higher proportion of women who work as contributing family workers. According to the ILO, the share of women in informal employment in developing countries was 4.6 percentage points higher than that of men, when including agricultural workers. The share of women in non-agricultural employment who are in informal employment is over 90 per cent.[[12]](#footnote-13) Societal stigmatization, the discriminatory impacts of policies and legislation, and violence and harassment not only undermine a woman’s access to decent work but can also result in low pay, the absence of equal pay and the undervaluation of female-dominated sectors (ILO, 2018a)[[13]](#footnote-14). According to the International Domestic Workers Federation, there were 67.1 million domestic workers globally in 2015, of whom 11.5 million were migrant domestic workers. It is a highly feminized sector – approximately 80 per cent are women. The heavy presence of women in sectors that are under/un regulated underscores the need for robust employment, criminal and civil laws that will offer women the requisite protection against exploitation. When considering the content of the General Recommendation we would urge the CEDAW Committee to consider the following:

**Trafficking is a crime of many crimes and involves violations of multiple rights.** It must never be viewed in isolation from the broader framework of women’s rights and human rights. Dealing with trafficking simply as a stand-alone crime reflecting the most egregious of violations, runs the risk of creating a victim hierarchy that will be detrimental to survivors. There is a need for complementarity between a robust labour law regime and the criminal law regime. An anti-trafficking law is less likely to be effective and fit for purpose if labour laws undermine the rights of workers by not affording them the requisite protection. This need for complementarity is very obvious in the domestic work sector where domestic workers are frequently given rights pursuant to a “shadow labour regime” rather than the main labour laws. It is generally agreed that the UN Palermo Protocol definition of trafficking and its interpretation and application by States sets the bar very high for bringing a trafficking case. This issue is particularly acute in relation to labour exploitation cases where the lack of definitional clarity between forced labour and human trafficking results in operational hurdles. As a result, many human trafficking and forced labour cases are erroneously dealt with as labour or employment issues. To avoid failing vulnerable workers it is very clear that protection from exploitation must be rooted in labour protection and criminal laws must be available to address issues of exploitation that slide beyond the spectrum of labour rights violations. It is also very clear that a weak employment framework creates an environment ripe for exploitation. We hope that the General Recommendation will remind States of the fundamental need for a robust labour law regime if States are serious about preventing trafficking.

The following are some examples of why it is essential to embed trafficking in a broader framework of rights:

* Often domestic workers are not granted rights similar to those afforded to other workers under employment law. As an example, in Singapore, domestic workers are completely excluded from the protections in the Employment Act (Chapter 91) and are covered under separate legislation (the Employment of Foreign Manpower Act (Chapter 91A)) which does not provide equal protections. Domestic workers have certain entitlements such as basic upkeep and maintenance, including adequate food and medical treatment, one rest day per week, safe working conditions, personal safety, acceptable accommodation, fixed monthly salary and adequate rest daily.[[14]](#footnote-15) However there is insufficient guidance as to the nature and extent of the rights so facilitating the potential for abuse.[[15]](#footnote-16)
* Whilst working excessive overtime in order to earn a minimum wage is recognized as contributing to forced labour situations, domestic workers are not entitled to minimum wage protection. In Singapore, there is no mandatory minimum wage for any workers, whether local or foreign. In Malaysia, domestic workers are excluded from the national minimum wage order. Although women workers on palm oil plantations are entitled to the national statutory minimum wage, in practice they earn less due to exploitative temporary/flexible work arrangements imposed by employers.
* Foreign domestic workers often are governed by separate employment rules or immigration policies that breed various forms of abuses.
  + In Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore foreign domestic workers are required to reside in their employer’s home. The live-in rule creates power imbalances between employer and employee. It exacerbates the very limited rights to which workers are entitled and increases their vulnerability to various types of abuses. The fact that their only residence in the country is their employer’s home disincentivizes foreign domestic workers from making complaints for fear of having their employment terminated. Further, given that abuse is likely to occur in the privacy of the employer’s home, the live-in rule has made monitoring and enforcement of regulations on foreign domestic workers extremely difficult.
  + Hong Kong immigration policy provides that upon termination of employment, a foreign domestic worker is legally allowed to remain in Hong Kong for only two weeks. This disproportionately limits the time available for a worker to find new employment, increasing fears about job-insecurity and the ability to access justice as it is unlikely that proceedings through the Labour Tribunal could be commenced and completed within two weeks.
  + Foreign domestic workers are tied to their employer by their domestic helper visa or work permit, which is required in order for them to maintain legal status. In Singapore foreign domestic workers are required to obtain a letter of consent from their current employer prior to transferring jobs. There are no obligations on the employer not to unreasonably withhold such consent.[[16]](#footnote-17) The inability to leave or change employer means they remain in situations of abuse with little ability to influence their own futures and frustrates the fundamental freedom of choice to leave an employer.
  + The levy on migrant workers in Malaysia and the Foreign Worker Levy system in Singapore both result in employers adopting exploitative practices such as salary deductions to recoup the levy cost, when dealing with domestic workers.
  + Similar to the levy, the Singapore security bond (up to $5,000) applies to every employer of a foreign domestic worker employed (unless the employer is a Malaysian). The bond encourages control over the behaviour of foreign domestic workers. Mandatory pregnancy tests every 6 months to ensure foreign work permit holders do not become pregnant are also extremely discriminatory. The ban on pregnancy undermines the rights of women to reproductive rights.
  + Rest days are frequently withheld from foreign domestic workers. In Singapore, although foreign domestic workers are entitled to “adequate” rest by law, it can be negotiated away by mutual agreement for compensation in lieu. Given the differences in negotiating power between employer and employee, many women, particularly new arrivals, are pressured into accepting “no rest day contracts”. Many workers are also not compensated for working on their rest day in contravention of the regulations prescribed by the Ministry of Manpower.
  + Disproportionate numbers of women are targeted to be temporary or casual workers on palm oil plantations which translates to underpayment and fewer rights for women. In Indonesia, women are made to work less than 21 days, meaning they are considered to be temporary workers. Women who help their spouses in palm plantations to fulfil the quota are not paid for their labour. On some plantations women are not allowed to receive payment for work done, men collect on their behalf. The above examples highlight how weak employment regimes serve to foster an ideal environment in which exploitation can flourish.

***The need for greater corporate accountability***

Multinational corporations are rarely held accountable for the forced labour and exploitation of women and children in supply chains across different geographies and different sectors. The business and human rights agenda in South-East Asia is largely viewed through the lens of voluntary corporate social responsibility, thus circumventing corporate accountability for human rights abuses that take place in supply chains.

A multi-jurisdictional legal gap analysis in South-East Asia produced by Liberty Shared (formerly Liberty Asia) notes that corporate accountability remains elusive in the region with some jurisdictions not recognising corporations as legal persons capable of being prosecuted for civil or criminal offences. Others that do have laws that can be used to hold corporations accountable, enforce these laws very sparingly. Our Thailand Legal Gap Analysis in 2017 found one successful conviction under the Prevention and Suppression of Human Trafficking Act with a nominal fine of 600,000 baht (US$19,150) imposed on Boonlap Fishery Limited Partnership for labour trafficking charges.[[17]](#footnote-18) In January 2019, migrant workers were awarded 1.7 million baht (US$53,000) in compensation to be paid by a chicken farm, though for less serious employment rights violations.[[18]](#footnote-19) This demonstrates how difficult it is to secure remedies and accountability when businesses in the region have violated human rights.

Our research in the palm oil industry in Malaysia also demonstrates weak corporate accountability in an industry which is rife with abuses.[[19]](#footnote-20) Migrant workers, many of them women, are recruited and employed by labour brokers instead of plantation owners, essentially denying them access to rights and benefits such as medical care and access to operational grievance mechanisms.[[20]](#footnote-21) Not only do these women earn less than the Malaysian minimum wage but they also work in hazardous conditions involving the use of pesticides/herbicides such as Paraquat without proper protective equipment.[[21]](#footnote-22) In an industry where recruitment is deceptive and debt-inducing, where working conditions are poor and access to justice remains elusive and inaccessible to many, it is imperative to hold corporates accountable for their recruitment practices, the provision of poor working conditions and the exploitation of workers’ vulnerabilities for profit. Accountability is all the more necessary given the vulnerability of workers to exploitation due to practices such as coercive recruitment fees, passport retention, wage theft, health and safety hazards all of which corporations must be held accountable for. Corporate accountability requires a commitment to upholding the rights of all direct or indirect employees, due diligence into risk areas within the supply chain and robust remediation of all risks. Such efforts must be underscored by the vigorous implementation of laws and an effective and properly resourced labour inspectorate to assist with enforcement.

1. Financial Action Task Force, International Standards on Combating Money Laundering and the Financing of Terrorism & Proliferation (The FATF Recommendations), at 10, 112 (15 Feb. 2012), *available at* <http://www.fatf-gafi.org/media/fatf/documents/recommendations/pdfs/FATF%20Recommendations%202012.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
2. *Id.* at 32, 112. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
3. UN Security Council, Security Council resolution 2331 (2016) [Maintenance of international peace and security], 20 December 2016, S/RES/2331 (2016), available at <http://undocs.org/S/RES/2331(2016)>. [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
4. UN Security Council, Security Council resolution 2388 (2017) [Maintenance of international peace and security], 21 November 2017, S/RES/2388 (2017), available at <http://undocs.org/S/RES/2388(2017)>. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
5. *Id*. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
6. *See* <https://www.fincen.gov/sites/default/files/advisory/FIN-2014-A008.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
7. *See* <http://www.fintrac.gc.ca/guidance-directives/overview-apercu/operation/oai-hts-eng.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
8. *See* <https://rusi.org/publication/whitehall-reports/disrupting-human-trafficking-role-financial-institutions> [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
9. *See* <https://www.ibtimes.co.uk/european-banks-ngos-tackle-human-trafficking-financial-data-toolkit-1619627>. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
10. *See* <https://www.reuters.com/article/usa-trafficking-banking/rpt-banks-get-tools-to-spot-human-traffickers-moving-illicit-profits-idUSL8N1UF4LU>. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
11. *See* Liberty Shared, Compensating Victims of Trafficking: Country analysis of victims compensation regimes (Oct. 2018). [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
12. International Labour Organization (ILO), Women and men in the informal economy: a statistical picture, Geneva: ILO, 2018, available at <https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_626831.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
13. International Labour Organization (ILO), The Women at Work Initiative: The push for equality (Geneva), 2018, available at <https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_629239.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
14. *See* FOURTH SCHEDULE of the Employment of Foreign Manpower (Work Passes) Regulations 2012; *See also* Employment of Foreign Manpower Act (Chapter 91A). [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
15. Humanitarian Organization for Migration Economics (HOME) and Liberty Shared, Behind Closed Doors: Forced Labour in the Domestic Work Sector in Singapore, at 27 (Jan. 2019), Legislative framework: Exclusions and Regulatory Gaps, p.29-30, available at: <https://s3.ap-southeast-1.amazonaws.com/freedom.collaborative.prod/uploads/Behind%20Closed%20Doors-%20Forced%20Labour%20in%20the%20Domestic%20Work%20Sector%20in%20Singapore.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
16. *Id.* at 9. [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
17. Liberty Shared, Legal Analysis of Human Trafficking in Thailand (2017), available at <https://static1.squarespace.com/static/53038dd2e4b0f8636b5fa8c3/t/596dd926e4fcb5c508fdff49/1500371244284/LIN.LAT.664+Thai+Gap+Analysis+draft+8-WEB.PDF>. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
18. *See* <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-thailand-myanmar-workers/thai-top-court-orders-compensation-for-myanmar-workers-in-landmark-case-idUSKCN1P9114>*.*  [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
19. *See* Liberty Shared, Potential for Legal Liabilities and Claims for Unpaid Wages in the Palm Oil Industry (2018), available at <https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5592c689e4b0978d3a48f7a2/t/5b9a15438985830bc3e5b27d/1536824656319/Position+Paper#1+-+Palm+Oil.pdf>; *See also* Liberty Shared, Health Hazards, Child Labour and Data Protection Breaches on Palm Oil Plantations, available at <https://s3.ap-southeast-1.amazonaws.com/freedom.collaborative.prod/uploads/PositionPaper2_A4%20%281%29.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
20. *Id.* [↑](#footnote-ref-21)
21. Tenaganita and PAN Asia and the Pacific, Poisoned and Silenced: A study of Pesticide Poisoning in the Plantations (2002). p.21, available at: <https://www.publiceye.ch/fileadmin/files/documents/Syngenta/Poisoned-and-Silenced.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-22)