Working against Trafficking through the Multilateral System – A Study of Coordination between UN Agencies at Global, Regional and National Levels.

Commissioned by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs

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Andante - tools for thinking AB

October 25th, 2012
Acknowledgement

The Swedish Ministry for Foreign Affairs commissioned this study in the spring of 2012. It was meant to be a focused study, strategically oriented and brief. However, the subject of multilateral coordination is complex and the issue of trafficking itself is complex in nature. The study grew in size and came to involve many organisations and individual actors. It would not have been possible to complete it without the generous and committed assistance that I received in the course of this work. I would particularly like to mention:

- The staff of UN organisations who have kindly shared their insights during the interviews and who have taken their time to reflect and comment on the draft report.
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- The staff of Swedish embassies who have worked with the survey and contributed with information for this report and commented on the draft.
- The staff at Sida and the Ministry for Foreign Affairs who contributed when the draft was being finalised and when conclusions and recommendations were being discussed in a seminar at the Ministry.
- Other persons committed to anti-trafficking work, for example in the EU commission and the U.S. State Department, who have provided ideas, inspiration and knowledge and who have also commented on the draft report.

Finally I wish to thank Ambassador Hans Lundborg for continued support and patience with a continuously changing and developing process of study. I am grateful for all the inputs and advice that has contributed to improving the end result.

The usual disclaimer applies: this report does not reflect the policies or views of the Swedish Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The responsibility for its contents and any remaining errors rests entirely with the author.

Stockholm, October 2012

Kim Forss
Executive Summary

Background
Trafficking in persons is a huge and growing “business”. There are many uncertainties about exactly how much, how many, when and where. It is an illegal industry connected to organized crime, and hence many basic facts are hidden. The core of criminal activity is surrounded by practices of uncertain legality and it is constantly changing in nature. One thing is certain – trafficking exploits vulnerable persons, in particular women and children, and it is a blatant violation of basic human rights. Trafficking in persons appears in many guises and has been used as an umbrella term for activities involved when one person obtains or holds another person in compelled service.

Multilateral Response
The international response to act and to coordinate anti-trafficking activities started in the 1990s, and led to the UN Convention against Transnational Organised Crime, which includes the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Air and Sea. Several multilateral agencies have activities against trafficking, chief among them ILO, IOM, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNOHCHR and UNODC. Many others get involved from time to time, for example UNAIDS, UNDP, UNFPA, UNESCO and UN Women.

Purpose of the Study
The purpose is to analyse to what extent coordination between multilateral agencies can be strengthened. The study builds on a review of experiences of multilateral coordination; documenting cases of successful collaboration, identifying weaknesses and suggesting areas of action. It has been commissioned by the Swedish Ministry for Foreign Affairs and it is meant to be shared with other actors who are interested in contributing to the efforts to stop trafficking in partnership with UN agencies, bilateral organisations, and civil society. The General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Global Plan of Action to Combat the Trafficking in Persons in 2010, and in 2013 there will be a report on progress. One aim of this study is to contribute to the discussion and to generate ideas on intensified coordination among multilateral organisations.

Global Level Coordination
Coordination takes place through the mechanisms of the Inter-Agency Coordination Group Against Trafficking (ICAT) and, to some extent, through the Global Migration Group (GMG). ICAT has been rather passive in the past, partly due to a confusion of its roles in relation to project management of the project UN.GIFT. One of the present challenges is to define ICAT’s scope and function and to ascertain that it has a clear mission and mandate, distinct from GMG and other mechanisms. Coordination is also achieved through providing strategic guidance and clarity. Only one organisation has a strategy for trafficking work (UNODC), in the other organisations anti-trafficking is sometimes part of a strategic theme such as child protection (UNICEF), migrants’ protection (IOM) or workers’ protection (ILO). Informal coordination appears to work well, particularly amongst the handful of persons in the core agencies.

Regional Level Coordination
The visit to Bangkok shows that coordination between the agencies in the form of a joint project (UNIAP) has proven very effective in working directly with the governments in the region for policy development and capacity building. UNIAP has played an important role in assisting and facilitating coordination amongst countries in the region, which has been a precondition for fighting trafficking and assisting victims. Apart from this one
project with external funding, the agencies run their own regional projects. UNIAP has been less successful in coordination between the agencies, and there seems to be a limit to how far an external project can achieve such an objective. Still, there is a well-functioning division of labour and information is regularly and effectively shared between the actors. Informal coordination works well and there are several joint activities at the level of conducting seminars and conferences, producing training material and web-resources. The survey to embassies indicates that the level of regional coordination varies considerably and is probably nowhere as multifaceted and rich as in South-East Asia.

**National Level Coordination**

There are changes in management in the UN agencies at the national level that do not always facilitate coordination between the agencies. The UN reform process drives the logic of country-based coordination, but experiences show that effective anti-trafficking will often have a regional component. The case of Vietnam suggests that the agencies may well plan anti-trafficking under a common but abstract results framework, but in practice they manage interventions independent of each other and the result is a portfolio of small projects that are not likely to have any major impact on their own. In spite of coordination through technical working groups of different kinds, the difficulties in actually delivering jointly have not been overcome.

**Conclusions**

The study concludes that the overall picture of the multilateral response to trafficking is weak and fragmented due to competing or different mandates. The financial and human resources are scarce and none of the agencies devote any significant share of core resources to anti-trafficking. The overwhelming share of activities are financed through extra-budgetary resources and hence do not form part of the organisational core priorities. There is no overall strategic coordination and the existing strategies are partly overlapping and do not articulate any expectation of synergetic effects of working together. That being said, there are many projects that work well and make useful contributions to capacity building and to relieve the burden of victims of trafficking, and they have also made significant contributions to policy development – both at regional and national levels.

**Recommendations**

The study suggests five areas of action to strengthen the multilateral efforts to eliminate trafficking.

- The resource constraint needs to be addressed.
- Member states need to provide clear directives that anti-trafficking is part of the mission and mandate of the organisations and that they are expected to prioritise and coordinate such activities.
- Make use of the whole system and realize the strength of working together. There is a core of agencies that are active against trafficking most everywhere. Others have important contributions to make, but take part at random. This does not capitalise on experiences.
- Reinforce the global coordination mechanism by developing the mission and mandate of ICAT and clarify its role in relation to the GMG.
- Organisational change and the UN reform processes generate forceful internal instruments of steering and control. While these increase efficiency and effectiveness, they make coordination with partners more difficult. One remaining challenge is to create incentives for joint implementation of projects and programmes.
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<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of Southeast Asian Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>COMMIT</td>
<td>Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative Against Trafficking</td>
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<tr>
<td>DaO</td>
<td>‘Delivering as One’</td>
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<tr>
<td>GMG</td>
<td>Global Migration Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICAT</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Coordination Group Against Trafficking</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<tr>
<td>OHCHR</td>
<td>Office of The High Commissioner for Human Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoU</td>
<td>Memorandum of Understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
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<td>PCG</td>
<td>Programme Coordination Group on Social Protection</td>
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<td>ToR</td>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOT</td>
<td>Training of Trainers</td>
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<td>TWG</td>
<td>Technical Working Group</td>
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<td>UN Women</td>
<td>United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women</td>
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<td>UN.GIFT</td>
<td>United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Trafficking</td>
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<td>UNCTAD</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDAP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Assistance Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDESA</td>
<td>United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNIAP</td>
<td>United Nations Inter-Agency Project on Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (UNIAP)</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNITAR</td>
<td>United Nations Institute for Training and Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNODC</td>
<td>United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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Chapter 1. Background and introduction

Trends in Trafficking
In a more and more globalized world the spatial and controlled boundaries of existence are rapidly shrinking. The flows of capital and people are in a constant flux. This means endless opportunities, but also seemingly endless new ways of exploiting people. Today, approximately 27 million men, women and children are victims of human trafficking\(^1\) and ILO estimates that forced labour claims at least 20.9 million victims at any time. The real numbers are likely to be higher. Trafficking concerns hidden populations, thus an inherent problem in anti-trafficking work is to assess where, why and whom it is exploiting.

Human trafficking in persons is a broad and complex term for the many different ways people are exploited as workers today. Research, literature and project work often tends to focus on sexual exploitation, thus concealing the many other forms of trafficking\(^2\). Particularly trafficking for purposes of forced labour has been seen as less significant, partly because this group is viewed as less vulnerable, being primarily male and often entering migration work voluntarily to then end up in trafficking. Forced labour is most common within agriculture, mining and construction, and manufacturing industries. Many women and children are exploited as household workers. In countries where dowry is a tradition many girls are forced to work as housemaids before marriage so as to be able to pay their dowry. Other spheres where trafficking is common include debt bondage, street begging, recruitment of child soldiers as well as prostitution.

People who end up in trafficking often come from poor circumstances. However, they can also be workers just looking for further opportunities or simply an adventure that ends up in trafficking because they rely on the wrong person. What victims of trafficking have in common is that they are all vulnerable, through a lack of knowledge on the dangers of trafficking, to the harsh reality of forced labour. UNESCO has identified three key cluster factors on why people end up in trafficking:

1. Socio-cultural factors such as acceptance of child labour, old traditions of migrant work, low education levels,
2. Economic inequality between rural and urban areas and a desire to escape poverty,
3. Juridical and political factors, the absence of legislation and little prosecution of traffickers, mistrust of the law and open borders.\(^3\)

Anti-trafficking work is supposed to protect human rights, but because of lacking political will, corruption and weak law enforcement it is not always successful. In addition it can be difficult to detect who actually is a victim of trafficking and thus victims sometime end up being prosecuted for their involvement in criminal work. The

\(^1\) Trafficking in Persons Rapport 2012, p. 7
\(^2\) UNESCO: Trafficking in Human Beings, p.141
\(^3\) UNESCO: Searching for best practices to counter human trafficking in Africa: A focus on women and children, p.11
bridge between criminal justice and human rights can be difficult to cross when it comes to trafficking. Yet, positive change is starting to come about in a global effort to combat trafficking. Governments as well as global cooperation’s are pressured in to action. A growing awareness, political will and concern in the global society has led to more funding and a call for tighter legislation on trafficking.

**Purpose of the Study**

In August 2010 The General Assembly of the United Nations adopted resolution 64/293; The Global Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons. The Plan refers to the background of conventions, protocols and agreements, and sets out the broad fields of action and calls for support from the international community. In 2013 there will be a report on progress. One aim of this study is to contribute to that discussion and to generate ideas on intensified coordination. This study builds on a number of assumptions. One assumption is that the global response through the multilateral system has its weaknesses and that these are not well known nor have they been subjected to a comprehensive analysis. Similarly, the successes that are sometimes claimed are usually not well documented and hence they do not get the attention that they might merit in terms of scaling-up and replicating such activities elsewhere.

The purpose of this study is thus to contribute to a more coordinated, comprehensive and cohesive global approach to stop trafficking in all forms. This has been done through a review of experiences of multilateral coordination, with an emphasis on documenting cases of successful collaboration, identifying weaknesses and to suggest areas of action.

The study has been commissioned by the Swedish Ministry for Foreign Affairs and it is meant to be shared with other actors who are interested in contributing to the efforts to stop trafficking, be it at global, regional or national levels, and in partnership with UN agencies, bilateral organisations, and civil society. While there are conclusions and recommendations in the final chapter, these are meant as inputs to a discussion rather than as a blueprint for decision-making.

**Methods**

The multilateral response to trafficking is shaped at many levels. This study focuses on three distinct levels where organisations relate to each other; the global, regional and national levels. The global and national levels are not problematic, but the regional level is. The choice of where to put the focus is difficult as the definition of what constitutes a region is not set in stone. A study of anti-trafficking must take a look at what takes place at a national level and at a global level. Once that is done, it becomes equally obvious that some kind of in-between level is also needed as much of the multilateral interventions, and indeed national interventions too, occur in collaboration across borders.

The data on the approaches to coordination, strengths and weaknesses of the different coordination mechanisms, and the lessons to be learnt, come from three sources:

1. The multilateral agencies themselves as well as bilateral agencies that provide funding, regularly commission reviews and evaluations. These have been put together and synthesised to distinguish what the common patterns – if any – are
in terms of the most commonly used evaluation criteria; efficiency, effectiveness, impact, sustainability and relevance. The databases of different donor organisations contain reviews and evaluations of anti-trafficking efforts by other actors too, such as civil society organisations and bilateral programs, or even the combined activities of organisations. As there are lessons to be learnt from these as well they are included in the synthesis.

2. Individual interviews with actors in the UN system and their partners at global, regional and country levels. In the course of the study visits were made to the headquarters of UNODC in Vienna, as well as to UNICEF, UN Women, and UNDP in New York, and country visits to Vietnam, and a study of regional coordination in Bangkok. Annex 2 contains a list of people met through this part of the study.

3. A survey directed to the Swedish Embassies in a sample of countries where trafficking is an issue, that is, countries that are classified as Tier 2, Tier 2 Watch list or Tier 3 in the US State Department’s Report on Trafficking in Persons from 2011.

The study has been conducted in the course of eight weeks between March and September 2012 and it cannot be anything but a starting point of an analysis of a global response to trafficking. The issues are complex and the situations different in every country. The risk here is that the experiences from Vietnam and South East Asia influence the overall conclusions more than they should. It is recommended that readers question the analysis in light of their own experiences, and that an overall conclusion is mediated by insights from other countries and regions. The study focuses on the multilateral system and on coordination; it is not a study of civil society responses, nor a catalogue of projects and programmes and their effects. The topic of anti-trafficking activities is fortunately much broader than what is covered in this study. Yet another limitation – this is not a study of trafficking as such, which would have required an altogether different approach.

**Guide to the Reader**

Following a brief descriptive introduction to the activities of the UN agencies in Chapter 2, the study turns to an analysis of global coordination in Chapter 3. This focuses on the UN.GIFT project and the ICAP as formal coordination mechanisms, but the chapter also looks at policy and strategy formulation and organisational structures as means of coordination. Chapter 4 consists of a synthesis of evaluation reports, and Chapter 5 presents the analysis of UN coordination at country level in Vietnam and at the regional level in South East Asia (with a focus on the Greater Mekong Sub-region). This is based on case studies, describing and analysing coordination and concluding on lessons from the region. Chapter 6 presents the findings from a survey sent to Swedish embassies in thirteen countries in Latin America, Africa and Asia. Chapter 7 discusses the conclusions and recommendations of the study. This last chapter raises the question; who are supposed to act on recommendations? The recommendations are not directed specifically to the UN agencies or to the government of Sweden. Instead, they are meant for an imagined community of concerned stakeholders who, together, are committed to strengthen global coordination to eliminate trafficking.
Chapter 2. Anti-trafficking activities in the UN system

Before turning to the core subject of this study, coordination of anti-trafficking efforts, this chapter will describe the foundations of such activities as well as present the organisations that play a role.

Characteristics of Trafficking
One of the main problems that affect coordination is that trafficking in persons can be approached from a variety of perspectives, and by a variety of actors. Organisations with otherwise widely different aims and purposes come to be concerned with trafficking and in that sense it is a truly cross-cutting issue. This means that there are many views on the same phenomenon. What kind of a problem is trafficking – and hence, why would an organisation involve itself in efforts to curb and end trafficking? The following approaches outline some of the complexities of dealing with trafficking:

- **Criminal Problem.** This approach sees trafficking in persons from a penal viewpoint, treating trafficking as a crime. The aim is then to introduce more effective ways of investigation, prosecution and punishment of trafficking in persons. This approach also aims at intensifying police and judicial co-operation in order to facilitate prosecution of international criminal groups that organise trafficking in persons. A benefit of treating human trafficking as a crime is that it enables victims to be treated as such and therefore able to access protection and assistance from the government.

- **Migration Problem.** In this approach, the focus is on trafficking in persons as a problem of migration. Preventive measures in this approach include monitoring the movement of persons e.g. through increased border control, through increased control of travel documentation or through preventing migration in the first place. This approach, however, fails to capture trafficking that is not transnational in nature, e.g., trafficking of a country’s own citizens within its borders.

- **Human Rights Problem.** In this approach, trafficking in persons is seen as a violation of human rights. In this approach, all measures to prevent and combat the phenomenon, as well as measures to support and assist victims are guided by basic human rights principles, guaranteeing the rights of the victims of trafficking.

- **Labour Issue Problem.** This approach sees trafficking in persons as a result of foreign migrants’ poor status. In this view, trafficking in persons can be prevented through guaranteeing workers’ rights for migrants also in the countries of destination. If the working conditions were secured, these persons need not be trafficked in the first place but could instead travel as migrant workers.

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• **Health Problem.** This approach focuses on the side effects of trafficking in persons. Trafficking, especially for the purpose of sexual exploitation, is seen as a contributor to the spreading of diseases, especially sexually transmitted ones. In this perspective the focus is on the trafficked persons as transmitters of disease and as a threat to the health of the rest of the population.

The point is not that one can choose what kind of a problem trafficking is, but instead that it is a problem that needs to be confronted from multiple sides and that it concerns many actors. In extension, one can identify trafficking as a problem relating to human development, and in particular to the notion of capacities and justice as articulated by Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum. The starting point is that human development is about the capacity of people to make the appropriate choices and realize the life they want to live, and that there is an obligation to strive for an equitable distribution of such capacities.

**The process towards the Palermo Protocol**

Trafficking has been an issue and a problem for long but the history of international counter-measures is relatively recent. It has been said that Governments realised the threats posed by the increase in transnational crime during the late 1990’s and then started to develop a new international instrument for combating transnational organised crime. It seems as if the collaboration against organised crime became the vehicle that also brought along collaboration against trafficking, as there is a close connection between the two. The Declaration adopted at the meeting of the Ministers of Interior and Justice in Naples in 1996 called for actions to combat organised crime. As a result, Poland drafted a first outline for a convention against organised crime. The General Assembly founded an Ad-hoc Committee in 1998 with the aim to draft the Convention against Transnational Organised Crime. The first meeting for the development of the convention took place in Warsaw, Poland in February 1998. During the Seventh Session of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice in 1998, Argentina suggested drafting a new convention against trafficking in minors. On the suggestion by Greece, Member States decided to expand the scope of the instrument and included all forms of trafficking in persons. Women and children were given special attention, as they tend to be especially vulnerable to this form of crime. It was agreed that the document would be elaborated as a Protocol to the UN Convention against Transnational Organised Crime. The Convention includes three optional Protocols:


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6 UNESCO, Trafficking in Human Beings. p.140
The Committee convened at the United Nations in Vienna eleven times. Some 120 countries participated in the negotiations together with a large group of non-governmental organisations. The negotiations for the Trafficking Protocol were finalised in October 2000. The General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Convention together with two Protocols on 15 November 2000. The Trafficking Protocol was opened up for signatories at the Signing Conference in Palermo, Italy in December 2000. Almost eighty states signed it on that occasion.

**The Content of the Palermo Protocol**

The Trafficking Protocol is primarily a law enforcement instrument but it also encompasses the protection of victims. The concept adopted during the negotiations for the Protocol aims at keeping a balance between the penal and the human rights perspective to trafficking. It combines traditional law enforcement measures with measures for victim protection. While criminalising the traffickers, the Protocol highlights that prosecution and punishment should not endanger the safety of the victim.

**Box 1. The Palermo Protocol's Definition of Trafficking**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trafficking in persons means:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• By means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or giving or receiving payments or benefits to a person in control of the victim,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• For the purpose of exploitation.</td>
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The definition of exploitation includes the:

• Exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

Article 9 of the Protocol requires States to implement comprehensive policies and measures to prevent and combat trafficking in persons and to protect victims, especially women and children from the risk of becoming victims again. It is known that in some cases persons who have been trafficked, saved and then deported to their country of origin may face being trafficked again. Hence the implementation of the Protocol, including the implementation of the provisions dealing with repatriation, should aim at minimising that risk. This can for example mean aiding victims of trafficking to relocate in a third country.

Furthermore, states shall engage in research, information and mass media campaigns and social and economic initiatives in co-operation with non-governmental organisations and other relevant organisations. Mass-media campaigns have successfully been organised in several countries.
Countries shall also strengthen measures to ease the factors that make especially women and children vulnerable to trafficking. States shall thus fight poverty, unemployment and lack of equal opportunity (paragraph 9.4). The Protocol also calls for States to discourage the demand that fosters all forms of exploitation of persons, especially women and children, which leads to trafficking (paragraph 9.5). It is crucial to both address the root-causes of trafficking as well as the demand that maintains trafficking. The demand can be approached in different ways. One interpretation of this paragraph is that the demand for trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation could be reduced through addressing the clientele of prostitution. Additionally, trafficking for the purpose of labour could be reduced through promoting clean supply chains, greater corporate accountability and transparency on use of forced labour, and greater consumer awareness.

Article 34 of the Crime Convention states that the TIP Protocol requires criminalization of TIP regardless of its transnational nature: “The offences established in accordance with articles 5, 6, 8 and 23 of this Convention shall be established in the domestic law of each State Party independently of the transnational nature or the involvement of an organized criminal group as described in article 5 of this Convention.” Nevertheless there are governments and international organizations that limit human trafficking to movement or transnationality rather than focusing on the use of force, fraud or coercion leading to the exploitation of persons.

The Palermo Protocol thus challenges the international community and it points to areas in need of development cooperation and greater attention to rule of law through international efforts. The traditional roles of UN specialised agencies as well as of the UN funds and programmes; namely normative (standard setting, information exchange, pilot research) and operational (capacity building through project and programme implementation) can be applied for these purposes.

**Mandates and Activities of Organisations**

Trafficking is a subset of many other human development and law enforcement areas, such as the safety and well being of children, equitable development for women and men, safe labour and safe migration, education and knowledge dissemination, culture and information, etc. The root causes are associated with poverty, and hence organisations that see poverty alleviation as their main objective also do play a role in fighting trafficking. Similarly, trafficking is directly related to several of the Millennium Development Goals, even if it is not explicitly mentioned in them. Hence, there are many UN agencies that could play a role in the struggle against trafficking. The following appear to be most active, and the text below gives and introduction to what these organisations do and why this is part of their mandate. 

**UNODC**

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) engages in anti-trafficking work in their efforts to eliminate transnational organized crime. The focus of work is on the judicial system and its response to organized trafficking, but UNODC also has

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7 The presentation is based on official publications, annual reports, website presentations, and other public documents, primarily accessed through the www.ungift.org/knowledgehub.
programmes on prevention and protection. UNODC’s human trafficking technical assistance work currently providing assistance to more than 80 countries globally. Since the Trafficking in Persons Protocol was launched in 1999 most countries have legislated against trafficking. However, as the 2009 report Global Report on Trafficking in Persons shows, two out of every five countries covered in the report had never recorded a single case of trafficking, and that is of course far from the real extent of the problem. As in the case of trafficking in general the knowledge on the nature of its characteristics and how to assess it is limited. Among the problems in trafficking is that few countries have examples of how a successful prosecution on trafficking would be conducted, especially on a comparative international scale. As one of its normative instruments, UNODC has developed a Human Trafficking Case Law Database where official documents from prosecutions are accessible to the public all over the world. Information on convictions, sentences as well as victims own stories can be accessed. The database serves to assist judges, governments, media researchers and private persons in the work to combat trafficking. Today the site has over 200 cases from 30 different countries.

UNODC has also launched the Blue Heart Campaign to raise awareness on trafficking in the global society and in the public sphere. Through social media, posters and pamphlets, celebrity collaborations and movies the Blue Heart Campaign aims to increase public demand for action and to put pressure on governments and organizations to allocate more resources for anti-trafficking work. It is also possible for national governments to ratify the Blue Heart Campaign as their official response to trafficking. UNODC then requires of them to live up to a minimum standard of anti-trafficking work, the Blue Heart Terms of Engagement. Countries that have adopted the campaign today are for example Mexico and Brazil.

ILO
The International Labour Organization (ILO) has since its inception worked against forced labour and addressed the circumstances that allows for it to exist. In 1998 ILO adopted a declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and its Follow-up (FPRW). This document obligates member states to work actively for workers rights to freedom of association, collective bargaining, a discriminatory free work place and abolition of all kinds of forced labour and child labour. ILO interventions against trafficking are largely focused on awareness raising with the aim to inform workers on the content of the FPRW declaration in order to give them knowledge of their rights and thus decrease their vulnerability.

In November 2001 a new programme was launched in order to further promote the Declaration, The Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour (SAP-FL). The main objective of SAP-FL is to raise awareness about the nature of forced labour and to mobilize initiatives against forced labour on a broader scale. The activities are carried out through transnational campaigns and also in country specific programs and through field studies. It involves work with many diverse aspects of forced labour such as human trafficking, bonded labour, forced domestic work, rural servitude, and forced prison labour. SAP-FL has led projects such as assisting governments in developing National Action Plans against forced labour and in formulating and implementing legislation acts on trafficking. SAP-FL are also involved in educative work, such as informing high risk groups and government workers on forced labour as well as rehabilitating work with victims of trafficking.
The International Organization for Migration (IOM) is part of the multilateral system and works to regulate and manage migration in order to assist both migrants and the society at large. IOM is not part of the UN, but it is a multilateral organisation, founded in 1951 – today it has 145 member states and 98 observers. Counter-trafficking is a large part of its work. The distinction between migrant workers and trafficking victims is often fine, thus anti-trafficking work is a crucial part of managing migration. Since 1994, IOM has implemented 800 projects on trafficking in 100 countries, giving assistance to over 20 000 trafficking victims.

IOM works to address trafficking at three levels; (1) to protect and empower victims of trafficking, (2) to raise awareness and understanding on the issue in targeted communities and the global society, and (3) to bring justice to trafficked persons. IOM’s preventive work includes extensive research on trafficking focused on a wide variety of areas, such as; legislation and policy development and implementation, human trafficking routes and trends, the causes and consequences of human trafficking both for the individual trafficked person and for society at large, as well as the structures, motivations, and working processes of organized criminal groups.

To prevent people from ending up in trafficking IOM leads extensive information campaigns both in source and final destination countries to make people aware of the dangers of migration work as well as to educate vulnerable groups in how to protect themselves from the recruitment tactics of traffickers. This entails a close collaboration with different kinds of media to reach as many people as possible through newspapers, posters and local theatre. Since much of IOM’s work is conducted at borders it also puts resources in to capacity building among government officials, police as well as NGO-personnel in recognising and knowing how to aid victims of trafficking. IOM works directly in the field with rescue operations and to provide help for victims of trafficking. This includes temporary accommodation, medical and mental help, skills development, reintegration assistance and help to a dignified travel back to their country of origin or to resettle in a third country. IOM also works especially with children, given that one-third of all victims of trafficking are estimated to be below 18 years of age.

IOM has also developed a Handbook on Direct Assistance for Victims of Trafficking, collecting suggestions and guidance in trafficking work from IOM’s experience. For more than a decade, IOM has also collected information from research and fieldwork in its Counter Trafficking Module Database (CTM), which is the largest database in the world with primary information on victims of trafficking. The CTM facilitates management of IOM projects; direct assistance, movement and reintegration processes as well as mapping of victim’s experiences with trafficking. This serves as a useful tool for research, since it provides extensive data on causes, processes and trends in trafficking over time.

UNICEF
As mentioned above, children are one of the most vulnerable groups when it comes to human trafficking. They are sold as into prostitution, domestic aids and beggars, forced into illegal and under-aged marriage, used as child soldiers and illegally adopted, or as cheap labour in mining and agriculture in particular. In UNICEF’s mandate to protect children from all forms of abuse, violence and exploitation, anti-trafficking is an obvious
component. UNICEF’s work covers prevention, direct assistance and prosecution as well as evidence-based research to develop all intervention work. UNICEF works closely with other UN agencies, as well as NGO’s, local human rights groups and government offices to incorporate a special outlook on children in all work on anti-trafficking. The broad spectrum of their work is crucial to get to the core of the problem.

The main approach of UNICEF is to reduce the vulnerability of children in designated areas to eliminate incentives for trafficking. This entails programmes such as strengthening laws, policies and services, increasing access to education and establishing minimum labour standards. UNICEF also targets the demand for child trafficking by working closely with communities to change the attitude and norms that exacerbate children’s vulnerability to trafficking. This also entails addressing the demand for commercial sex and cheap labour in general.

**OHCHR**
The United Nations Human Rights Office, OHCHR, is an important contributor to the collaborative work with anti-trafficking as they watch over and work with securing human rights on a broad international scale. The aim is to integrate human rights watch in to the anti-trafficking initiatives at all levels. The work of OHCHR is undertaken at a somewhat broader scale than other organizations. Its preventive work addresses questions of socio-political circumstances and root economic causes that create situations where people become vulnerable for traffickers. Their protective work concerns questions of how to develop reinforced victim protection, helping victims of trafficking to return to their old life or start a new one. In 2002 OHCHR released *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking* guiding organizations in how to incorporate a human-rights framework in their efforts to fight trafficking. Furthermore the commission has three assigned Special Rapporteurs covering human trafficking; the *Special Rapporteur on trafficking in persons, especially women and children*, the *Special Rapporteur on Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography*, and the *Special Rapporteur on Contemporary Forms of Slavery*. All the rapporteurs report annually on the subject and thus could bring much up to date and coordinated information on the subject.

**UNHCR**
While the concern for victims of trafficking does not fall immediately under UNHCR’s mandate, it is still one of the core agencies in anti-trafficking. As its work takes place in areas and among socio-political groups where victims of trafficking often end up they are naturally involved in UN collaborative work on anti-trafficking. Their main areas of focus are to prevent high risk groups to become victims of trafficking, to ensure international protection for victims of trafficking and to ensure that victims of trafficking are provided with identification documents in order not to be classified as stateless. Most of its work is conducted through risk-reducing among refugee populations. The interventions of UNHCR include awareness-raising activities to inform about the risks of involvement in trafficking and advocacy for asylum sensitive anti-trafficking legislation.
The Involvement of Other Agencies

In chapters 5 and 6 a number of other UN organisations are mentioned; UNDP, UNFPA, UNESCO, UNAIDS, UN Women. Apart from the six organisations presented above, other organisations – such as these - can and do get involved against trafficking. Their mandates relate more or less immediately to trafficking, for example, UN Women, which has no main programme for anti-trafficking but on many occasions advocate for the need of a gender based approach to successfully end human trafficking. UNESCO has no programs directly targeting trafficking but other activities that involve observing and counteracting modern forms of slavery. The UNESCO Slave Route Project aims to combat the lingering consequences of the slave trade and discrimination and racism. UNESCO has published extensive educational reports on the issue and the role of trafficking. These two examples are but two indications of how other organisations may get engaged in counter-trafficking, but it must be concluded that such examples are few and far in between, and for most it is only a marginal and small share of activities, even though it seems as if counter-trafficking would belong to their tasks.
Chapter 3. Global Coordination

This chapter analyses the coordination between the main organisations described in the previous chapter. As we have seen, anti-trafficking measures engage many organisations. The brief description of activities shows that there are many potential overlaps and there is a risk for duplication of efforts, while at the same time it should also be clear that there is a scope for synergies as the experiences and core competencies of the agencies supplement each other.

Understanding Coordination

Coordination is a difficult subject and it is often given a narrow interpretation – meaning that coordination takes place through coordination meetings. A common definition is that coordination is "the synchronization and integration of activities, responsibilities, and command and control structures to ensure that the resources of an organization are used most efficiently in pursuit of the specified objectives. Along with organizing, monitoring, and controlling, coordinating is one of the key functions of management.” But this does not reflect the idea of inter-organisational coordination, which cannot build on an assumption of hierarchical control as the definition does. Instead, there are a few distinctions to make.

First, one the one hand coordination can be seen as a process entailing a number of activities. On the other hand coordination could also describe a situation, that is, a state of affairs where things are coordinated, meaning that the elements involved are in balance and well ordered in relation to each other.

Second, coordination as a process involves a number of specific tasks that can be summed up as exchanges of information, consultation, and joint decision-making.

Third, coordination takes place through a number of organisational instruments with different labels, such as; task forces, working groups, technical groups, etc. Coordination can also occur through joint programming, in the context of board meetings, steering committees, conferences and meetings, etc.

Fourth, coordination can be formal as well as informal. When people in organisations pick up the phone and call each other to check progress, compare experiences, etc. coordination takes place, just as it does in the formally convened task force with terms of reference, protocol, membership. But the former is said to be far more cost-effective.

In the following, the focus will be on the process of coordination, but one should not forget that it is the end result that counts. Herbert Simon (1973) pointed out that “much problem solving that ultimately leads to superior results is very messy in the process”, and

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8[http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/coordination](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/coordination).

it is really effective results that are the goal. One should also remember that coordination can be quite costly, and it often has declining marginal utility once the first benefits of information sharing have been gained.

Coordination through Policies, Strategies and Action Plans
A first glimpse of coordination can be seen through the steering documents that the organisations have in respect of trafficking. Do these documents reflect each other, refer to each other, contain strategic directions in terms of coordination, indicate a division of labour where the organisations supplement each other, or point to synergetic effects to be achieved through coordination?

UNODC strategic framework
UNODC formulated its organisational strategy to counteract trafficking in 2011. The document starts by noting that “UNODC is uniquely positioned to ensure an effective and comprehensive criminal justice response to trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants founded in the full implementation of the Protocols to the Organized Crime Convention. In addressing all aspects of these crimes within UNODC’s mandates, including research and awareness-raising, implementation and capacity-building and strengthening partnerships and coordination, UNODC is seeking to become the policy lead and central hub for the international community’s response. This comprehensive strategy sets out the complementary nature of UNODC’s work in preventing and combating these crimes and defines the priorities for future action and engagement.”

UNODC’s role is further elaborated in its capacity as the guardian of the Organized Crime Convention and its Protocols on Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants. The strategy says that UNODC plays a leading role in strengthening and coordinating the criminal justice response to human trafficking and smuggling of migrants. According to the strategy, the Protocols provide clear mandates to UNODC to support efforts:

- To prevent and combat trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants;
- To protect and assist the victims of trafficking and smuggled migrants, with full respect for their human rights;
- To prosecute those who traffic persons and smuggle migrants, upholding justice and ensuring an effective criminal justice response;
- To promote cooperation among States Parties and other stakeholders in order to meet those objectives.

The last bullet point can be seen to define a role in coordinating the work of other agencies. The strategy also points to other specific mandates that have been given to UNODC through the Global Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons adopted by the General Assembly in 2010 and other resolutions of the General Assembly, ECOSOC, the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ) and the Conference of the Parties to UNTOC and its Protocols. As such, UNODC has been asked to undertake, *inter alia*, the coordination of inter-agency efforts to combat trafficking in persons through ICAT and UN.GIFT (which we will turn to later), the management of the United

10 UNODC. A Comprehensive Strategy to Combat Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants.
Nations Voluntary Trust Fund for Victims of Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, servicing working groups of the Conference of the Parties on trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants and the research and publication of the Global Report on Trafficking in Persons.

Given its broad mandates and the expertise that it has developed over the last decade in research, ensuring the effective implementation of the Protocols and providing valuable coordination between Member States and other actors, UNODC seeks to position itself as the policy lead and central hub for the international community’s response to human trafficking and the smuggling of migrants. The strategy then goes on to present the programmatic areas of work against trafficking, namely its activities in (1) research and awareness-raising, (2) promotion of protocols and capacity-building, and (3) strengthening of partnerships and coordination.

UNODC’s work in providing technical assistance and capacity building is emphasized in the strategy (pages 17 – 19). The field offices in 150 countries, as well as headquarter’s staff are engaged in these operational activities. UNODC has an integrated programme approach. At the global level, UNODC’s overall objectives and policy guidance in relation to transnational organized crime is contained in the Thematic Programme of Action Against Transnational Organized Crime and Illicit Trafficking, Including Drug Trafficking (2011 – 2013). This Programme is meant to ensure a coordinated and comprehensive response to all different facets of transnational organized crime. The Thematic Programme contains a results matrix that identifies the outcomes and indicators and provides for monitoring and evaluation.

At the field level, UNODC is also developing regional programmes that are designed to capture the diversity and inter-connected nature of UNODC’s work and to maximize the value-added contribution of UNODC in addressing cross-border challenges. These programmes address the priority needs of the Member States of each region in a strategic and integrated manner and are developed in close consultation with the relevant authorities, focusing on development results and achieving visible impact. Country programmes are also being developed to complement the regional programmes, by focusing on country-specific needs.

The strategy discusses organisational arrangements and budgets and concludes that the different units within UNODC that work on human trafficking and migrant smuggling have insufficient human and financial resources. The units that work on trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling receive no regular budget funding. This is so, despite the fact that a number of activities performed by staff, such as providing secretariat support to the Conference of the Parties and its Working Groups on Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants, are core mandated activities of UNODC. There is no doubt that such a lack of predictability in funding has negatively impacted on longer-term work planning and limited the ability of the units to be pro-active and strategic. The strategy presents how a new Human Trafficking and Migrant Smuggling Section will be created to help to ensure efficiencies and synergies in the work performed by UNODC staff. The new unit will also allow for a coordinated approach to fundraising.
IOM’s Strategy and Activities

IOM’s strategic approach is presented in the document "Trafficking in Persons: IOM Strategy and Activities". The objective is to “to curtail migrant trafficking and to protect the rights of migrants caught up in the practice”. The main programmatic elements for achieving the objective are seminars and forums, information gathering and research, technical cooperation, information dissemination, voluntary return and reintegration activities, and counselling and medical services. The strategic approach is set out in the following bullet points;

- Responses to trafficking should be comprehensive and integrated, applying a global concept of migration management to analyse migration patterns, and should include the prevention of trafficking through awareness-raising and capacity-building, to enable governments and agencies, through technical cooperation, to manage the problem themselves, and assist and protect the victims through immediate assistance, shelter, access to services, return and reintegration.

- Tackling the root causes of trafficking, i.e. poverty, lack of opportunities, gender discrimination, wealth inequalities, lack of education, and others, particularly among the most vulnerable populations, should be included in all activities against trafficking in order to avoid combating the symptoms rather than the main causes of the phenomenon.

- Addressing the factors facilitating trafficking both in countries of origin (root causes) as well as in countries of destination (demand) should be included in the IOM programmes to combat and prevent trafficking in human beings.

- Data collection, research and analysis are of crucial importance to understand and address new forms, trends, mechanisms and patterns of trafficking globally. Information should be collected and exchanged with all concerned partners in the combat against trafficking. The IOM counter-trafficking database will be expanded and installed in all regions. Research should include countries of origin, transit and destination.

- Awareness raising campaigns should be implemented as an ongoing process and target potential victims, clients and policy makers in countries of origin and destination.

- Gender aspects should be included in all counter-trafficking activities by acknowledging that trafficking concerns both men and women. There are similarities and differences in the trafficking experience of women and men in relation to vulnerabilities, abuses and consequences,

- but the impact of policies and programmes against trafficking is different on men and women.

- Protection of the human rights and safety of the victims of trafficking should be the paramount preoccupation of IOM’s direct assistance activities.

- Specific programmes for the assistance and protection of children victims of trafficking should be developed in all regions of the world, taking into account the cultural characteristics of each form of trafficking and the particular needs of children.

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Global, rapid response to trafficked victims should be provided, including access to protection, assistance and support measures through shelters, physical and psychological health care, legal counselling, voluntary return, and temporary residence when possible.

Reintegration assistance should be an integral part of voluntary return programmes to address the root causes of trafficking and avoid potential re-trafficking of victims after return. Reintegration elements to be included are, *inter alia*, medical and psychological assistance, security protection, vocational training, job referral, subsidized employment, self-employment and microcredits tailored to each individual case, with a view to empowering victims in their country of origin.

Health risks and consequences of trafficking for victims should be addressed in all parts of the protection, assistance, and return and reintegration process. HIV/AIDS and STD prevention and assistance, including supporting and strengthening national capacities in this field, are an integral part of assistance programmes.

Regional and sub-regional strategies – convinced that trafficking should be combated through a multi-country approach rather than a country-by-country one, IOM should bring together countries sharing similar problems to look for common solutions to be implemented regionally. This would enhance cooperation among affected countries searching for best practices.

Capacity-building activities for governmental institutions, particularly law enforcement, migration, consular and security services, on trafficking issues in general and on their respective roles to combat trafficking and protect victims specifically, should be strengthened.

Reinforcement of the necessary legal reforms at the national level, including the adoption and implementation of appropriate anti-trafficking legislation and the creation of better protection and assistance for victims of trafficking.

Cooperation with NGOs and other international organizations working in the field of counter-trafficking should be part of programme development and implementation, in order to make better and more cost-effective use of resources through a coordinated approach. When dealing with assistance and reintegration, cooperation with local NGOs should be strengthened so as to ensure sustainability and establish a clear exit strategy for IOM.

As the text shows, it is a very broad response, and it seems to take the IOM into programmatic areas that go well beyond migration per se, such as tackling the root causes of trafficking. However, the strategy also contains examples of project activities, and these appear to focus on research, awareness, protection and capacity building. The strategy concludes by pointing to the need for cooperation, but one can still reflect on that in respect of for example HIV issues, gender aspects, child protection, there’s no specific mention of other agencies.

The overall IOM Strategy was revised in 2010, and though it does not contain any specific reference to trafficking beyond the strategy reviewed above, it does have a section on coordination. It says that, IOM continues to develop its “improved status quo” relationship with the United Nations. This is being done both at the Headquarters and Field levels and includes partnerships as diverse as IOM’s participation, *inter alia*, in the United Nations country team in every country in which IOM has a Field presence, in the
Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), including its cluster activities, and in the GMG. It also includes enhanced cooperation with individual agencies wherever appropriate, including through the conclusion or updating of memorandums of understanding. The United Nations reform emphasis on system-wide coherence and “Delivering as One” requires IOM to work hand-in-hand with its partners in the United Nations and international community more broadly to share information and coordinate activities. However, because IOM is not a formal member of the United Nations system, certain important barriers exist to full information sharing and cooperation with United Nations bodies (namely, lack of participation in key United Nations policy coordinating mechanisms). It is generally accepted that close collaboration between the United Nations and IOM is needed to effectively address migration challenges.

Turning to the other four agencies, one of the problems in international coordination is that they don’t have any overall guiding instrument of trafficking per se. Instead their strategic approach must either be deduced from the activities they engage in, or extrapolated from a larger strategic context.

**ILO actions and related programs**

As for ILO, its strategic approach to trafficking is best seen in its 2008 publication “ILO action Against Trafficking in Human Beings. Although this is a mainly descriptive, it does point to strategic choices made by the organisation. In 2005, under the follow-up to the 1998 Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, the ILO Governing Body adopted a Global Action Plan against Forced Labour. ILO estimates that the total number of victims of forced labour amounts to some 12 million individuals, and furthermore that some 2.4 million of these were trafficked.

The Global Action Plan calls for greater participation of workers’ and employers’ organizations in national coordination councils against forced labour and trafficking. Based on its specific mandate and expertise, the ILO has also been involved in the consultations on regional action plans, such as the European plan on best practices, standards and procedures to prevent and combat trafficking in human beings that was adopted by the European Council in 2005. Despite growing recognition that human trafficking needs to be tackled through a holistic approach, anti-trafficking strategies still remain isolated from other national policies, for example policies on employment and vocational training, gender discrimination or poverty reduction and migration management.

Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP) have now been signed or are in the process of being signed by ILO member States. These programmes address four dimensions – rights, employment, social protection and social dialogue. Linking national anti-trafficking strategies to DWCP will ensure policy coherence and stronger emphasis on the prevention of trafficking, which is a key objective of the ILO. While the Global Action Plan and the 2008 publication do show what the ILO does, neither of them contain any references to the other five organisations. In terms of strategic coordination, the documents calls for coordination but they do not in themselves carry any coordinating content. The ILO Global Action Plan is a combination of a normative instrument as well as a strategic outline of ILO’s role in combating forced labour on the whole.
UNICEF and Child Protection Systems

UNICEF’s work against trafficking falls under its thematic area of child protection. The Child Protection Strategy defines the contribution of UNICEF to national and international efforts to fulfil children’s rights to protection and to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. It defines the goal as preventing and responding to violence, exploitation and abuse is essential to ensuring children’s rights to survival, development and well-being. The vision and approach of UNICEF is to create a protective environment, where girls and boys are free from violence, exploitation, and unnecessary separation from family; and where laws, services, behaviours and practices minimize children’s vulnerability, address known risk factors, and strengthen children’s own resilience. This approach is human rights-based, and emphasizes prevention as well as the accountability of governments.

Two of the strategic elements deserve to be mentioned in particular; first that there is a need for broad-based partnerships that can leverage gains in child protection, and second that need to synergize the work of United Nations agencies to achieve child protection results. The strategy puts an emphasis on the need for a systems approach to child protection and it outlines action in respect of prevention and protection, policy development, and it points to the need for systematic research, and learning from experience. The strategy is comprehensive and cohesive, and its elements can all be applied to the specific problem of protecting children from trafficking. However, trafficking as does not stand out in the strategy, whereas some other areas, such as child labour and children in armed conflicts do. It may thus require quite a lot of interpretation to derive a strategic approach to trafficking from this overarching strategy for child protection. However, it is interesting to note that when searching for ‘strategy’ and ‘trafficking’ on UNICEF’s website, the above mentioned UNODC strategy appears under the title of “Framework for Integrated Action on Trafficking in Persons”, but whether that should be seen as an example of strategic coordination is not clear.

UNICEF’s work in other thematic areas also relates to trafficking. Within the thematic area of Social and Economic Policy, UNICEF has published relevant and interesting research, as for example the study Preventing Child Trafficking in the Gulf Countries, Yemen and Afghanistan. This paper examines the causes of child trafficking from Yemen and Afghanistan to Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. Unless the causes leading to trafficking in both origin and destination countries are understood, the chain of trafficking is difficult to break. A comprehensive approach to combating child trafficking has been proposed to build upon recent successes that utilized innovative child trafficking interventions. This approach will enact and enforce national legislation, foster inter-country collaboration, offer targeted income support and cash transfers and develop a comprehensive prevention strategy for all source countries. So here is another example of a policy approach, building on the same basic elements of research, awareness-raising, policy development and protection. In this case, the actual work appears to come closer to some of the root causes of trafficking as it offers income support.

The UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights

The OHCHR does not have a strategy for its trafficking work, but as indicated in the previous chapter, it has a number of high-level and global activities in areas which also concern trafficking – not least the three special rapporteurs whose field of work also concern human trafficking. Trafficking is approached as other topics, through the three modes of operation of the organisation; standard-setting, monitoring, and implementation on the ground. According to the website presentation, OHCHR does so by offering the best expertise, and substantive and secretariat support to the different United Nations human rights bodies as they discharge their standard-setting and monitoring duties. It seeks to ensure these international human rights standards are implemented on the ground through greater country engagement and through field presences.

The UN High Commissioner for Refugees

The UNHCR does not publish any strategy on trafficking work either but presents its approach through the publication14 ‘Human Trafficking and Refugee Protection: UNHCR’s Perspective’. The starting point is that neither the issue of human trafficking nor trafficking victims as such fall under UNHCR’s mandate. However, as part of a broader international response to human trafficking, UNHCR becomes involved where human trafficking impacts on persons of concern to the Office, in particular:

• to prevent refugees and other persons of concern (asylum seekers, returnees, stateless and internally displaced persons) from becoming victims of human trafficking and to address the needs of persons of concern who have fallen victim thereto;
• to ensure international protection needs of trafficking victims (or those at risk of being trafficked) which may arise as a result of their trafficking experience are properly identified; and
• to assist States in ensuring that trafficking victims who are without identity documents are able to establish their identity and nationality status in order to prevent them from being rendered stateless, and to protect stateless victims of trafficking.

UNHCR’s interventions and activities in the area of human trafficking are based on the premise that this specific crime may entail abuses or serious threats to the human rights of the victims and that an international protection response may be called for to ensure the well-being of the persons concerned. Hence UNHCR will get involved with interventions in the following areas:

• Prevention through awareness-raising activities to disseminate information among refugee populations and other persons of concern to alert them to the different modalities of human trafficking and the associated risks.
• Protection of victims of trafficking, for example in advocacy efforts to promote asylum-sensitive anti-trafficking legislation and practice at the national level, including through participation in National Working Groups on Trafficking.

• Similarly UNHCR undertakes *Training and capacity building* and provides support to national asylum authorities on refugee status determination, including through training on the Guidelines on the “Application of Article 1A(2) of the 1951 Convention or 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees to Victims of Trafficking and Persons at Risk of Being Trafficked”.

• Furthermore the UNHCR staff regularly visits holding and detention centres and conducts border-monitoring missions to evaluate the arrival of refugees within mixed migratory flows, and help ensure identification of trafficking victims or individuals at risk of being trafficked.

As the list shows, the approach has much in common with the other organisations and builds on the same framework of the three Ps, though articulated somewhat differently.

**Are Strategies Coordinated and Do They Lead to Coordination?**

As the text shows, there are several similarities between the strategic approaches of these organisations;

• they all emphasize the need for a holistic approach to the problem;
• several of the strategic elements are the same; prevention, protection, and prosecution, and policy development (the 4 ‘P’s), but prosecution is not articulated in all of the above reviewed strategies;
• the implementation of activities build on capacity building interventions, research and the dissemination of information, normative instruments in the form of guidance and inputs to national policies;
• the strategic approaches do emphasize the need for partnership, not least coordination among the UN agencies, so there is an expressed desire at the highest level of the organisations to increase coordination.

That being said, the review also points to some problematic areas;

• it is only two of the organisations that have articulated a strategy against trafficking, and as for the others their strategic approach must be deduced from other publications or from broader strategic themes. Even though that can be done, it may lead to misunderstandings and the risk is that it fails to show the level of priority that anti-trafficking work has/should have;
• the organisations do not refer much to each others work, and hence the strategies may show that several organisations aim to contribute to policy development or to capacity building but exactly how they supplement each other or divide the labour according to the basic competencies of each organisation is not clear. This can also lead to overlapping and sometimes conflicting capacity building efforts – for law enforcement, for protection and prevention activities also. It is essential that the agencies on the ground agree on what line to take vis a vis their different anti-trafficking projects;
• The level of abstraction is high and if anything, the strategic approaches outlined above points to a considerable risk for duplication of efforts.
• However, as all the organisations face financial as well as personnel constraints, most of them will not be able to work on all dimensions of their strategies, but as the strategies start from a holistic approach it is not clear how decisions on
allocation of scarce resources will take place. Hence there is a risk that important aspects of counter-trafficking, particularly internal trafficking, do not get the attention they deserve.

Other strategies and strategic approaches are of course also articulated, and one could also turn to other agencies such as UNDP, UN Women and UNESCO to analyse whether they take a similar approach or do something different. There are also other documents; one undated pamphlet\textsuperscript{15} presents six UN agencies advocating for change, and that is signed by UNODC, UNIFEM, OHCHR, UNHCR, UNICEF and ILO. This shows an example of six UN agencies ‘speaking with one voice’ and advocating for anti-trafficking measures in the European context.

**Coordination through Regularly Convened Groups**

The discussion below centres on two formal mechanisms for coordination. The perspective on coordination chosen in this study make these two important instruments of coordination work at the global level, but they are part of coordination – the tip of the iceberg, perhaps a bit more. They relate to and interact with other means of coordination, and at times it might raise some concern that the existence of these instruments has not lead to closer coordination of strategies.

**The Inter-Agency Coordination Group against Trafficking (ICAT)**

ICAT was established by the General Assembly in 2007 to enhance cooperation and coordination and facilitate a holistic and comprehensive approach by the international community to the problem of trafficking in persons. 16 United Nations agencies make up ICAT's membership and UNODC plays a dual role, acting as both a member and as the coordinator of ICAT. The membership of ICAT includes:

- Department for Peace Keeping Operations (DPKO)
- International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)
- International Criminal Police Organization (ICPO-Interpol)
- International Labour Organization (ILO)
- International Organization for Migration (IOM)
- Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)
- United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
- United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women (UN Women)
- United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI)
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
- United Nations Joint Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)
- United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)
- World Bank

\textsuperscript{15}http://www.europarl.europa.eu/document/activities/cont/201006/20100610ATT75834/20100610ATT75834EN.pdf
According to the information on ICAT\textsuperscript{16}, its purpose is to support the activities of the United Nations to ensure a full and comprehensive implementation of all international instruments and standards relating to the prevention and combating of trafficking in persons, including through protecting victims of trafficking. In ensuring that coordination, ICAT draws upon the comparative advantages of each of its partners and promotes the efficient and effective use of existing resources. ICAT also provides a platform for the exchange of information, experiences and good practices on anti-trafficking activities of the partner agencies to share with Governments, international and regional organizations, NGOs and other relevant bodies. However, according to the evaluation of UN.GIFT, ICAT was meant to meet biannually, but actually only met 4 times between 2007 and 2010. It is thus questionable if it has been able to undertake activities in relation to all these objectives\textsuperscript{17}.

The coordination activities of ICAT were hampered in the first years of its operation by a lack of resources. Now in 2012 it seems as if efforts are under way to make the work more effective, with the decisions in 2010 to rotate the position of chair of ICAT amongst its member organizations and to establish an ICAT Working Group consisting of the member organizations that are most active in advancing the work of ICAT. The current members of the Working Group are ILO, IOM, OHCHR, UNHCR, UNICEF and UNODC, although the membership in the Working Group is open to any interested organization.

As already noted, the coordination function of ICAT focuses on the policy-level. While the impact of ICAT’s work has been limited in the past, at present its Working Group, appears to reorganise to provide more effective policy coordination. The above mentioned evaluation of UN.GIFT was helpful also in providing advice on ICAT. It is now increasingly focusing its efforts on policy consultations and the development of jointly formulated policy guidelines on measures to prevent and combat human trafficking. Six such policy briefs were presented at the ICAT meeting for Member States in New York May 2012.

**The Global Migration Group (GMG)**

GMG grew out of an existing inter-agency group, the "Geneva Migration Group", which was established in April 2003 by the heads of ILO, IOM, OHCHR, UNCTAD, UNHCR and UNODC. As time passed the group was transformed and came to be established as the GMG by the United Nations Secretary General in 2006, as a high-level group of agencies involved in migration-related activities. Over time, the membership of the GMG increased and there are currently 16 member organizations:

- International Labour Organization (ILO)
- International Organization for Migration (IOM)
- Office of The High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)
- United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)

\textsuperscript{16} A Comprehensive Strategy to Combat the Trafficking in persons and Smuggling of Migrants . UNODC 2011, page 24

\textsuperscript{17} There is no requirement on how often to meet, and over the last two years the ICAT working groups has set the goal to meet twice a year (also attained).
The difference between ICAT and GMG is that the latter brings together UN agencies to address issues related to international migration rather than trafficking only. Trafficking is one of the issues to be addressed, but only one of twelve issues. The GMG is meant to operate at the working level as well as at the level of heads of agencies. The chair of GMG rotates amongst the heads of its member agencies and the Executive Director of UNODC will assume the chair in the second half of 2012 and will also participate in the governance “troika” during the periods both before and after its chairmanship. The agency of the chair is responsible for providing secretariat functions to GMG.

As with ICAT, GMG seeks to strengthen inter-agency cooperation and ensure greater consistency in policy formulation. The Group promotes increased application of all relevant international and regional instruments and norms relating to migration, including the Trafficking in Persons and Migrant Smuggling Protocols. The GMG also seeks to improve the overall effectiveness of the policy and operational response to international migration by the United Nations and the international community. The GMG has produced joint publications and surveys on issues relating to international migration. A working group on data and research was established to coordinate the activities of the member agencies working on data and research issues. However, it seems as if the GMG has only met infrequently in recent years and it is an organisation and a process which is in need for reform and rejuvenation. Trafficking has not figured extensively on its agenda and the deliberations do not appear to have contributed to any major step forward in combating trafficking.

The GMG works with the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD), a Member State-led initiative to address interconnections of migration and development in practical and action-oriented ways. The Forum is an informal, non-binding, voluntary and government-led process that acknowledges the limits of a strictly national approach to issues of migration. In view of the societal implications of these issues, civil society has been involved in the GFMD from its creation. UNODC acts as chair of GMG in the second half of 2012, and has declared that it will seek to actively promote activities and

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18 It seems that the level of GMG interaction has increased since this information was obtained, and there are now working level meeting every 4 weeks and a scheduled decision-making Principals meeting on 1 November 2012 (a requirement of each Chairmanship term is to convene at least one meeting of the Principals).
discussions relating to its mandates, such as ensuring effective criminal justice responses to migrant smuggling and human trafficking, including protection of the rights of trafficking victims and of smuggled migrants, and data collection.

Functions of the Groups and Results
It is difficult to compare the two mechanisms presented above. Trafficking is only a small share of the issues addressed through the GMG and it would be necessary to follow the meetings closely to see both what is being done in respect of trafficking and how that relates to migration as a whole.

ICAT is less complex, not least because the record of meetings is not extensive. The group cannot really be said to have started functioning yet. The reason for that has to do with the UN.GIFT Steering Committee, which consisted of much the same persons who would have met in ICAT, and as the distinction between the two organisations was not clear, the UN.GIFT meetings took precedence. UN.GIFT's Steering Committee met on 21 occasions between 2007 and 2011, while during that time ICAT met 4 times. This is rather odd as one would expect ICAT to coordinate agencies, while the Steering Committee would be expected to manage a project. The consequence is that the roles and responsibilities in inter-agency coordination are not yet clearly defined and this is a task that must be assigned high priority in the field of coordination at the global level.

There are several aspects of coordination to observe for the future development of ICAT, as for example;

- membership in the group, for example, should there be a core group as well as a wider group of members?
- should the group include member states and civil society organisations
- is there a need for a terms of reference for the group
- to what extent should the group undertake activities, and if so
- is there a need for a permanent secretariat, and if so
- what resources would be needed for that function.

Another question is whether the composition of ICAT is reflected in coordination mechanisms on the ground. Agencies must deliver on their programs (as do the actors outside the UN system) so if there is agreement on coordination at the top it must be replicated in the field, and if that happens there must also be a mechanism to include partners outside the IOM/UN system. These issues will recur when the national and regional levels of coordination are addressed.

Organisational Structures and Informal Coordination
The six agencies that have been reviewed above all have staff members who are in charge of anti-trafficking activities at headquarters and often also in the field offices. As for the other agencies it differs; UN Women, which has inherited projects and programmes from UNIFEM and takes part in ICAT and in the past contributed to UN.GIFT, has not assigned responsibilities to any particular person or unit. In UNDP, which is also present in both UN.GIFT (supporting rather than a member, though) and ICAT, and which gets engaged in coordinating and managing projects, anti-trafficking
activities are managed by the gender and equity team at headquarters. UNFPA does not appear to have assigned responsibilities in this field to any particular unit. UNESCO on the other hand, has clearly assigned responsibilities and processes for cross-cutting work across its disciplines.

UNODC appears to have the clearest organisational structures; the organisation is described in the strategy and visible in organisational charts. In respect of the other agencies, the organisational structures and the assignment of responsibilities are clear, but one has to know beforehand where the responsibilities are located. In UNICEF, for example, one has to know that anti-trafficking is part of the Child Protection Section in the Programme Division at headquarters in New York. Coordination would be facilitated by clear and visible responsibilities to a unit and to specific posts, and these should be easy to find on the organisational websites, for example the official webpage of the agency and at the UN.GIFT Knowledge Hub.

Coordination is facilitated if those who are meant to act are placed at approximately the same hierarchical levels. In some coordination groups it would be the Head of Agencies who meet, or the managers at the second level of command. When the subject of coordination is a cross-cutting, multidisciplinary issue, the seniority level of those taking part would reflect the overall place of the subject and how centrally it is related to the core mandate of the organisation. As we have seen, trafficking has a place and visibility in for example IOM, ILO, UNICEF and UNODC, and also in UNESCO. However, in other agencies the subject is found at lower hierarchical levels, if at all.

The programming processes of the organisations influence the practical coordination at field level. This study did not go into the details of analysing such differences, but it is clear they have an impact. Some agencies have the flexibility to respond to ad hoc needs, it was said that, for example, ILO, UNODC and UNESCO generally do not have flexible programming, but IOM and UNICEF have the mechanisms and capacity to respond to needs on the ground in a different way. This would certainly have an impact on how the agencies can coordinate on emerging issues.

It is striking that the human and financial resources allocated to trafficking are so limited within the UN system. UNODC, which is the most comprehensive staffed organisation, would have 17 staff members in the proposed Human Trafficking and Migrant Smuggling Section, but in mid 2012 the funding is uncertain and there are no more than 3 – 4 staff members, some on short-term consultancy contracts. Hence, in the six agencies, the total number of staff that is engaged in anti-trafficking work may not be more than a total of 15 – 20 persons.

The scarce resources do put a limit on the effectiveness of the response, but one positive side-effect is that coordination is facilitated. The people working against trafficking are not more than they can all know each other. Even though personnel turnover could be a problem, many employees do have long-term contracts and have served in the agencies and on this subject for some years. The informal coordination does appear to be extensive. There are a number of activities where the agencies work together, for example in organising conferences and meetings, inviting each other to speak and present on different occasions, to publish jointly, link to each others websites and databases, etc. In a study like this it is hard to assess the further potential of such
coordination and also to have an opinion on whether it ought to be much more. The point is that this is an aspect of coordination that is practically grounded, of relevance and significance, and it occurs all the time. There are a number of preconditions for such informal coordination to take place;

- regular meetings through formal coordination mechanisms build the networks and leads to information sharing
- joint purpose defined through strategies, work plans, mission statements, etc.
- commitment (plus curiosity and knowledge) among staff members,
- clear and visible responsibilities and organisational structures.

There is thus a link between the formal and informal coordination, and while the latter is usually the processes through which the results are achieved, the former are often a precondition for this to happen. Unless there are formal coordination mechanisms that function efficiently and effectively, it is very difficult to realize the benefits of informal coordination.

**The Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons**

As mentioned above there are three Special Rapporteurs, and though the few notes below focus on one of these offices, it would be worthwhile to take the analysis one step further and also look at how three Special Rapporteurs themselves coordinate their trafficking related work. There is no doubt that from the perspective of coordination the roles of the Special Rapporteurs are interesting. The background is that at its sixty-sixth session, the Commission on Human Rights adopted decision 2004/110, by which it decided to appoint, for a three-year period, a Special Rapporteur on trafficking in persons, especially women and children to focus on the human rights aspects of the victims of trafficking in persons. In the same decision, the Commission invited the Special Rapporteur to submit annual reports to the Commission together with recommendations on measures required to uphold and protect the human rights of the victims.

In theory, it would be possible for the rapporteur to also say something on coordination between agencies, to look out for duplication of efforts, overlapping mandates, and issues in respect of roles and responsibilities.

It seems that the Rapporteur has focused more on the substance of trafficking work rather than on governance and coordination, and perhaps that is inherent in the mandate. The Commission requested the Special Rapporteur to respond effectively to reliable information on possible human rights violations with a view to protecting the human rights of actual or potential victims of trafficking and to cooperate fully with other relevant special rapporteurs, in particular the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, and to take full account of their contributions to the issue. The Commission also requested the Special Rapporteur to cooperate with relevant United Nations bodies, regional organizations and victims and their representatives. The Economic and Social Council, in its decision 2004/228, endorsed the Commission on Human Rights’ decision 2004/110. In 2008, the mandate of the Special Rapporteur was extended for another three years. In the discharge of his/her mandate, the Special Rapporteur:
• Takes action on violations committed against trafficked persons and on situations in which there has been a failure to protect their human rights
• Undertakes visits to countries in order to study the situation in situ and formulate recommendations to prevent and/or combat trafficking and protect the human rights of its victims in specific countries and/or regions
• Submits annual reports on the activities of the mandate.

As the list shows, the Rapporteur does not have any specific mandate to coordinate agencies, but the acts of reporting and of visiting countries could certainly also be used to strengthen and promote coordination at all levels.

**Coordination through Joint Projects and Programmes**

As the name implies, the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Trafficking (UN.GIFT), can be seen as a joint project/programme at the global level. However, from the organisational point of view it is not quite clear what UN.GIFT is, or has been. The term ‘initiative’ does not define its organisational character, and practically speaking it has been a project, financed by donor agencies. A project is usually defined as a time-bound activity, with a limited set of objectives and activities, and that is also how UN.GIFT has been conceived, although at times it has come to be seen as an organisation in its own right.

The background is that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi approached the United Nations Secretary-General in 2006 proposing an international conference on anti-human trafficking. In subsequent discussions involving UNODC and a number of other stakeholders, the government of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi committed US$ 15 million to a global conference and broader global initiative to fight trafficking in persons. UN.GIFT was launched in March 2007 as a UNODC project. The overall aim was to foster awareness, global commitment and action to counter human trafficking, with an initial focus on ten regional conferences and one global conference. Additional output areas included increasing political commitment and capacity of Member States, resource mobilization, and creating and strengthening support structures for victims of human trafficking. In line with these objectives, UN.GIFT has been managed against five output areas since 2007:

- Increase awareness and knowledge on human trafficking;
- Increase political commitment and capacity of Member States to counter human trafficking and implement the Trafficking Protocol;
- Mobilize resources to implement the action required to combat trafficking at the international, regional and national level;
- Organize a Global Conference to assess the global trafficking situation and to promote global action against human trafficking.

UNODC has managed UN.GIFT in cooperation with a Steering Committee comprised of the ILO, IOM, UNICEF, OHCHR, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), and the donor government of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. By the end of 2010, total funds pledged by the initial donor and additional contributors amounted to US$ 15 million By March 2012, the remaining UN.GIFT Secretariat activities were completed.
according to plan, but with a number of ongoing activities to be implemented by Small Grants Facility grantees and Joint Programme fund recipients.

UN.GIFT from its core funds provided financial resources for the development of 6 Joint Programmes (Serbia, Bolivia, Rwanda, Pakistan, Egypt, Central Asia) as defined by UNDG. These were developed in the respective countries jointly among a minimum of 2 Steering Committee member organization. In addition, UN.GIFT, provided 3 of these Joint Programmes (Serbia, Bolivia and Rwanda) with resources to conclude a first set of activities and supported additional fundraising for the projects. The Joint Programme in Serbia has been operational for two years and will end in October this year as well as Rwanda. Bolivia is experiencing some difficulties but is implementing a number of joint activities at this point in time.

The Independent Evaluation Unit of UNODC has commissioned an evaluation of the project, which was completed in 2011. Based on evaluation findings, the overall recommendation is to continue certain aspects of UN.GIFT with renewed funding, a conclusion that is in line with the views of the majority of consulted stakeholders. The key rationale for UN.GIFT’s continuation is that the Project continues to be the sole inter-agency technical cooperation and coordination mechanism for anti-trafficking activities with institutional experience in piloting successful global interventions. It concludes that despite some relevant but addressable shortcomings, a large number of activities have been successfully implemented and, critically, healthy cooperation relationships have been built, particularly between UN.GIFT’s Steering Committee member agencies, which represent many of the key players in the global fight against human trafficking. In addition, the Project managed to establish a relatively strong brand with global decision makers and practitioners, though not necessarily on the regional or country levels.

The evaluation pointed to a number of problems and issues, and among the most significant was the confusion over the roles of ICAT and UN.GIFT. The evaluation found that the two had comparable objectives and priorities and there were similarities between UN.GIFT activities and ICAT planned activities. However, ICAT has been effectively unfunded through much of its existence, has held relatively infrequent meetings, and has no Secretariat. In addition to the absence of funding (i.e. no operational budget) and supporting staff, ICAT lacks an administrational basis and logical framework, with resulting detailed activity and output plans and monitoring requirements. Thus, its objectives have so far been limited to general coordination (in effect, informal information sharing) priorities agreed-to by ICAT members rather than a concrete set of coordination activities. Other notable differences between ICAT and UN.GIFT are their legal basis—a General Assembly resolution for ICAT and a technical assistance project document (GLOS83) for UN.GIFT, as well as membership, which is significantly larger for ICAT.

At present (August 2012) the future of UN.GIFT appears to be uncertain. As an experience in global coordination, there are lessons to be learned. While the evaluation indicates that several of the expected outputs were delivered, it is uncertain how much coordination a project run by one organisation can expect from other agencies. As we have seen above, the overarching strategies of the organisations are not effectively coordinated, and at the operational level they tend to run their own projects and
programmes, according to overarching logic of the programmatic theme within which anti-trafficking work is shaped in each agency.

In spite of the above mentioned uncertain future, there is now a new UN.GIFT strategy for the years 2012-2014. This was jointly developed by a team of international experts and the six UN.GIFT Steering Committee member organizations (ILO, IOM, OHCHR, OSCE, UNICEF, UNODC), based on the recommendations of the evaluation report. The strategy foresees four principal components: 1) Knowledge Management for the anti-trafficking sector; 2) Strategic Support to stakeholders - Member States, regional organizations, civil society and the private sector; 3) establishment of a platform for Global Dialogue to engage with victims and survivors, inter- and non-governmental organizations, workers’ and employers’ organisations and the private sector; 4) Ensuring Inter-Agency Coordination and Cooperation, through the work of the UN.GIFT Secretariat and the Steering Committee.19

Nevertheless, information-sharing is important and seems to have led to less of a duplication of efforts, even though it still seems that agencies do produce similar or related outputs that might be more effectively produced jointly. The overall global advocacy efforts have become stronger, and one considerable achievement is that the six agencies do speak with one voice and often supplement each other on the global scene. This is a considerable achievement, and it would be essential that remaining coordinating structures can sustain such activities at similar and increasing levels of effort.

Coordination at the global level does have practical implications and the effects of lacking coordination can make otherwise well-intended efforts problematic, not to say dysfunctional. One example mentioned in the course of this study is that various anti-trafficking related UN projects around the world use an inconsistent or incorrect interpretations of the trafficking definition in accordance with the Trafficking in Persons Protocol. UN-affiliated organizations whose expertise may be in protection were said, for example, to have provided legislative advice to governments on drafting anti-trafficking laws that only cover one aspect of human trafficking rather than ensure that the law covers all forms of trafficking. This could be seen as a direct effect of lacking coordination. Perhaps if the agencies had consulted with UNODC to ensure a draft anti-trafficking law is comprehensive and consistent with the Palermo Protocol, the problems would have been detected and avoided? Coordination is not only a theoretical and abstract subject, but a very practical concern in anti-trafficking work.

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Chapter 4. Synthesis of Evaluation reports

This chapter looks at the conclusions from different evaluation reports that in some way cover coordination among UN agencies as well as from bilateral donors and civil society organisations. It is not a comprehensive study as it is difficult to trace such evaluations. The OECD/DAC database of evaluation reports does not contain any reports at all on anti-trafficking, nor do the databases of agencies such as USAID or DFID. Hence, the evaluations that are presented here were encountered at random during the conduct of the study. Nevertheless, they do point at some general lessons learned that can be of interest when the study turns to the UN experiences in the next chapter. The box below shows the evaluations that were used for this synthesis.20

Box 2. Evaluation used for the synthesis

- Norad rapport 9/2009 Discussion. Review of the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs Portfolio on Human Trafficking
- Sida Evaluation 03/37; Carolina Wennerholm, Eva Zillén; IOM Regional Counter-Trafficking Programme in the Western Balkans
- Sida Evaluation 06/30; Bonnie Bernström, Anne Jalakas, Chriter Jeffmar; Anti-Trafficking Activities in Central Asia financed by Sida
- Sida Evaluation 08/21; Caroline Hartoft-Nielsen, Birgitte Kofod Olsen; Combatting Trafficking in Women and Children in Byelarus 2004 – 2007.

Summary of Results

The evaluations of UN.GIFT and UNIAP raise questions regarding the results that can be obtained and in particular whether it is reasonable to plan for and expect an impact of activities. Several of the evaluations of civil society organisations do point to considerable achievements. The external evaluation of the Human Trafficking Programme of Norwegian based Church Aid is interesting as it concludes that the results were relevant in a range of different fields, such as;

20 It does not include two evaluations that have been extensively used in this study; the evaluation of UN.GIFT and the evaluation of UNIAP. These are reviewed in detail in chapters 3 and 5.
• impact on public policy in distinct areas (education, regularization of landholding, culture, HT, violence, etc.);
• youth participation and protagonism;
• generation of work and income;
• strengthening of civil society;
• human trafficking;
• institutional development.

The three Sida evaluations point to similar results. Important side-effects were also obtained in relation to the protection of young people from violence, the empowerment of young women and in the environmental area. What is also particularly emphasised is that the results could only have been obtained with *the multiplicity of partnerships signed with other organizations and with cooperation agencies*. That is an important lesson that needs to be taken to the international organisations as they tend to implement projects alone. The evaluation clearly attributes the overall success of the programme to successful coordination among many participating organisations.

The evaluation of the Coalition against the Trafficking in Women – Asia Pacific (CATW-AP) arrives at similar conclusions. CATW-AP’s programs were comprehensive and had addressed the various aspects of trafficking and prostitution – prevention, protection of victims, prosecution of perpetrators, and re-integration of survivors. The package of services provided by the various programs complemented each other and the synergy of these could create greater impact in the long-term. The survivors, CATW-AP members and partners and the young men camp graduates played key roles in the implementation of the programs.

The comprehensiveness of the programs helped to create an enabling mechanism to prevent and address the issue of trafficking and prostitution. Viewed from the rights-based framework, the programs contributed to strengthening the capabilities of both the national and local government officials and its agencies in order to perform their duties in preventing trafficking and prostitution, protecting victims/survivors and potential victims, enforcing the law, and prosecuting the perpetrators. Similarly, the programs contributed in empowering people – the survivors, the Coalition members and partners and the victims to demand from the government and its agencies to enact and enforce laws, and to protect women and girls from trafficking and sexual exploitation. The programs provided the opportunity for both the government and the people (CATW-AP members, partners and survivors) to work together in the campaigns, advocacy and implementation of projects.

In terms of results and capacities, the IOM evaluation concluded that *IOM’s major strengths identified in the evaluation included capacity-building, awareness-raising, and victim support*. IOM staff members were regarded as “highly skilled” and “very supportive.” Partners from multiple sectors in South Africa, Macedonia, Bangladesh, and the Kyrgyz Republic highlighted capacity-building as one of IOM’s core strengths, both in terms of providing training and providing training resources. In Bangladesh and South Africa, partners highlighted IOM’s work in awareness-raising, covering quality and a range of informational materials as well as information techniques. Partners in

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Macedonia and South Africa in particular praised the quality of IOM staff in terms of both technical skills and responsiveness. In almost all cases, partners identified IOM’s knowledge about and ability to provide direct assistance to victims as unique, and in some cases (e.g., the Kyrgyz Republic), partners regarded them as the only international actor with the ability to provide information, experience, and resources to efforts to support victims. IOM’s internal view is that a major strength of the organization is being able to address all aspects of trafficking. Other organizations suggest that IOM is exceeding its area of mandate.

Levels of results
In respect of the four Ps, it appears as if the most significant results in many of these evaluations were in protection, though this probably varies with the organisations (it does not always show in the evaluations).

Prevention
Relatively little has been done in terms of evaluating preventive measures against human trafficking; hence, there is uncertainty about their effectiveness. Poverty is often seen as the main reason why people become victims of trafficking, but the reason is more complex and individually based. Acute economic crisis increases the vulnerability; in addition, victims of trafficking often come from broken or dysfunctional families and are already exposed to violence. The most common strategy used for the prevention of human trafficking is information campaigns aimed at young people or parents. These often have as their point of departure the assumption that the target group is unaware of the dangers involved in human trafficking. They do not take into consideration the possibility that some choose to take that risk, or allow themselves to be exploited because the potential financial gain is still greater than that in their home country. Moreover, many information campaigns do not taken into account that victims are often recruited by close relatives and acquaintances, but focus instead, on the idea that recruitment is done by those unknown to the victim. Income generating measures, which are the other key strategy in prevention efforts, have rarely been shown to generate sufficient increased revenue to discourage people trying their luck in other countries.

Protection
There is a great need for more knowledge about the challenges that victims of trafficking face. Studies show that many do not avail themselves of the services that exist. The reasons are many and individual. The situation is often very chaotic when trafficking victims come into contact with help mechanisms. It is important to build trust and provide good, realistic information about what is being offered and about women’s rights. Refusal to seek assistance may be financially motivated or linked to fear of stigmatization. The return of the victims has often occurred without adequate risk assessment in advance. The situation that caused the individual to want to travel in the first instance is often unchanged and many end up becoming victims of trafficking again. Some are also involved in the recruitment of other girls. This may be a way to escape debt to traffickers or a way to get out of prostitution itself. Return and family reunion is not always a good thing when many are recruited to human trafficking by family
members, or have been subjected to abuse by relatives. The fear of stigmatization stops many victims and their families from using help mechanisms.

**Prosecution**

Rapid identification of victims, and safeguarding of victims human rights, is important as well as the criminal prosecution of traffickers. Identification of victims of trafficking, however, is difficult. It can be a challenge to distinguish trafficking victims from other illegal migrants. In some countries, border police and immigration authorities have developed criteria for identifying victims. These have often proved to be over simplistic and stereotypical and, in certain cases, have resulted in the discrimination of larger groups of people. Many do not even want to be identified as victims of trafficking. The reasons for this can be many: fear of traffickers, fear of deportation before they have earned enough money, or lack of trust in help mechanisms.

**Centrality of Anti-Trafficking Activities**

One of the evaluations conclude that though results related to human trafficking were obtained, it was at a level much below what could have been achieved. The explanation is interesting. The lack of centrality of trafficking among the priorities of most of the organizations was a significant factor in explaining the comparatively low level of results. This is also a lesson to consider as anti-trafficking sometimes is far from the core concerns of organisations.

One of the evaluations concluded that five years were not sufficient for trafficking to become a priority in that organisation and as a result potentials of programmes or regions of activity of the organizations were not exploited. The trafficking theme remained restricted to areas where direct support was provided by a particular programme. Neither the partners nor their networks of relations took advantage of political scenarios that were favourable to the question and did not enter into dialogue with National Plans for Combating Human Trafficking.

In the case of IOM, its core mandate is to help ensure the orderly and humane management of migration; to promote international cooperation on migration issues, to aid in the search for practical solutions to migration problems, and to provide humanitarian assistance to migrants in need - be they refugees, displaced persons, or other uprooted people. The evaluation points out that IOM’s mandate does not specifically include trafficking and its work on trafficking is not linked to a specific international instrument. IOM staff noted that their 132 member states have, however, endorsed the Organization’s 12-point strategy, which includes point 11: “To assist States in the development and delivery of programmes, studies and technical expertise on combating migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons, in particular women and children, in a manner consistent with international law.”

IOM interprets its broad migration mandate as allowing it to address all aspects of trafficking response, including prevention, prosecution (criminal justice), and protection (victim support). IOM staff commonly cited IOM’s ability to address all aspects of

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22 Brunovskis et. al. (2007) Leaving the Past Behind? When victims of trafficking decline assistance, FAFO
23 See IOM Council Resolution 1150 (XCIII) and Annex
trafficking as the organization’s comparative advantage in the counter-trafficking field. IOM’s internal evaluation in 2005 also highlighted this. Staff of organizations outside of IOM did not, however, agree and commonly expressed the concern that (a) IOM’s attempt to address all areas of counter-trafficking exceeds IOM’s mandate, and (b) IOM’s perception that it does not need partners because it can cover all aspects of counter-trafficking both constitute major weaknesses of IOM.

Timing and Project Duration
The evaluation of the ILO project concluded that while progress towards the Project’s objectives is within anticipated timeframes and work plans, the short-term nature of the project was of concern. The program was implemented in Indonesia, and as the evaluation noted, the reform of Indonesia’s migrant labour programme is a substantial task and the need for ongoing and sustained technical and programming support beyond the life of the project phase was evident.

As such future interventions need to consider the likely duration of technical support not only in policy and legislative reform but also in the establishment and delivery of effective service delivery across the country. Likewise, ongoing support for improved service delivery by non-government actors will continue to be a future priority and funding mechanisms and programming interventions towards the improved protection of Indonesian domestic migrant workers will need to take these mid to long term needs into account in any future programme planning.

A number of emerging key priorities for future programming were identified throughout the evaluation and these include a shifting focus upon strengthening service delivery to migrant workers at the local level in line with changes to the national regulatory environment, as well as the inclusion of recruitment agencies and local service providers within capacity building activities.

In summary, it is clear that the ILO Combating Forced Labour and Trafficking of Indonesian Migrant Workers Project has made a sound contribution to supporting efforts at labour migration reform currently being undertaken by the Government of Indonesia. It has further encouraged joint planning and action between government and non-government agencies and strengthened the capacities of both to deliver more effective and protective services to Indonesian migrant workers. While these represent a considerable contribution to the sector, the process of reform is ongoing and there is a clearly identified need.

The IOM evaluation comes to similar conclusions, but while the ILO evaluation covers one project only, the IOM evaluation synthesises experiences from many projects. The conclusions were that project-by-project funding structure and short timeframes of IOM’s

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24 IOM staff noted that this was also a key conclusion in the external review of SACTAP: "All major activity areas of the programme (research and strategy, support for legislation, awareness-raising, capacity-building, and victim support) have shown results. There are mutually supporting links between these. All were needed, and dropping any one would have weakened the overall programme." At the same time, three of the five non-IOM staff interviewed on SACTAP as part of the current evaluation expressed concerns about IOM capacity in the criminal justice area, despite very favourable comments on the overall work of IOM. This highlights the importance of IOM collaboration with other organizations that possess area-specific expertise.
counter-trafficking projects have multiple implications. IOM’s work is funded on a project-by-project basis, with only three percent of overall funds coming from core operational resources. Country and regional offices depend on projects to cover the costs of office staff. Further, approximately half of IOM’s counter-trafficking projects are one year in length. Staff identified a number of implications of this combination of small projects and short timeframes including: a reluctance to turn down any funding opportunity within the counter-trafficking area; an inability to offer job security to staff; a lack of resources for needs assessments; and difficulties in long-term planning and promoting sustainability. Another consequence of this dependence on project-by-project funding is that IOM tends to create projects in response to donor requests, rather than having a more systematic frame or criteria for determining when and how to allocate resources to countries or programmes seeking support in their efforts to combat human trafficking.

Lessons Learned and Development of Interventions

Lessons learned stressed the importance of documenting the plans, experiences, and insights in developing the knowledge base of the organization. This is important for CATW-AP which focuses on using awareness of issues and acquiring frameworks for analysis in effecting changes in attitudes, behaviour, national policies and programs. The documentation of the efforts and lessons learned also needs to be shared for local and regional exchange. It clearly shows that a holistic approach, covering the four Ps within a comprehensive and long-term programme is necessary to produce and document impact. One of the most important challenges in the fight against human trafficking is the complexity and need for a holistic approach. A particular challenge is that key actors have differing understandings of concepts and definitions. This leads to, among other things, varying and non-comparable statistics. Increased cooperation and the uniform approach to definitions are called for. There is still a need for more knowledge, research and evaluation of human trafficking.

The ILO evaluation remarked that a strategic priority for any ensuing stage of the project would be to consider how the project could maximise its impact by sharing lessons and lessons-to-be-learned from the piloting of existing project initiatives and extend its influence. Likewise, the project, or any future project could also actively seek to capture relevant knowledge from other sources and make these more available locally, nationally and internationally, that is, more regional and global coordination.

The Need for a Strategic Approach

The IOM evaluation also concluded that the organisation has not developed and does not use a formal, written global counter-trafficking strategy. The UNODC evaluation also remarked that there was no strategy behind the global programme (that was in 2005). As one survey respondent noted, IOM is “sometimes too involved in day-to-day implementation to do strategic planning,” while another commented that s/he finds programming to be “reactive” rather than strategic. IOM has, however, developed individual projects and activities informed by specific counter-trafficking lessons, especially lessons that have emerged through field-based projects. These lessons include creating the Global Assistance Fund to respond to trafficking cases where no other institutions are able to provide assistance to victims; a new prevention initiative to address demand for the labour of trafficked persons (“Buy Responsibly”); and
initiatives to expand victim assistance activities to other migrants in need.

The evaluation noted that IOM sought to expand services to vulnerable migrants who may or may not meet the definition of trafficking. Rather than emphasizing the provision of assistance once a migrant has been identified as falling into a specific legal or administrative category, such as “victim of trafficking,” The Counter Trafficking Unit of IOM (CTU) has encouraged a more flexible approach that prioritizes “needs-first” assistance. IOM reported that some donors had agreed that funds initially earmarked for victims of trafficking could be used for other migrants in need, such as migrants who have been exploited and abused or who are considered highly vulnerable to such treatment (e.g., unaccompanied migrant children). In parallel, IOM has worked with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to encourage the development of standard operating procedures between their respective country offices so as to improve protection options for trafficked persons and reduce the possibility of a migrant in need not being able to access appropriate services. Should this be implemented more widely across the organization, it would address an issue raised by multiple respondents in this evaluation that IOM’s application of the current trafficking definition is too narrow. IOM headquarters staff also expressed the view that this broader approach was aligned with IOM’s core mandate on migration.

**Conclusion**

Even though there are not many evaluations of anti-trafficking projects, there are common patterns in the few that exist. On an encouraging note, those who have tried to assess impact and long-term results do show that this is possible and that several of the projects actually did have an impact in line with goals and objectives. When positive results were reported, this came from a combination of:

- a strategic approach to the interventions, and close cooperation and dialogue with the agencies implementing National Plans against Trafficking;
- a holistic view of anti-trafficking and interventions in respect of the prevention as well as protection, prosecution and policy;
- wide spread partnerships with other national and international agencies;
- documentation of lessons learned and results achieved, as well taking part of documented experiences in other countries and regions, and from other organisations.

The evaluations also show that there are organisations that do not have a clearly defined strategic approach, that start small projects of short duration but with unrealistic and very ambitious objectives, and who fail to work in partnership and through coordination with others. Even though they might successfully deliver some outputs, it is not likely that they will have an impact in respect of reducing and ultimately eliminate trafficking. Hence, even a brief review such as this does show some important lessons on what to do – as well as what not to do and how not to manage interventions – and these lessons can be used when looking at the portfolio of activities on different organisations.
Chapter 5. Coordination at Country and Regional Levels

This chapter presents the analysis of UN coordination in Vietnam and in South-East Asia and it builds on a visit to Hanoi and Bangkok, and interviews with representatives of the UN agencies, civil society organisations, bilateral donor agencies, and government departments (see annex 2 for a list of interviews). It is brief glimpse of a complex subject and the focus has been to point to experiences that could be of relevance outside the region. Some of the issues resonate with other evaluation studies, and some may else echo in the experiences from other countries recounted in the next chapter.

Trafficking in South-East Asia and in Vietnam

Let us first look at what the agencies deal with in the region and in Vietnam. South-East Asia is often referred to as a hotspot of trafficking; processes of globalization, income disparities, differences in political systems, etc. all contribute to make the region special. South-East Asia’s socio-economic and developmental disparities, the region’s long contiguous borders, historical intraregional migration patterns, and relatively few legal migration alternatives are all key factors that facilitate trafficking networks and criminal exploiters. However, whereas the attention on trafficking in the region in the 90’s focused on South-East Asian nationals abroad in forced prostitution, the economic and developmental progress in the region have re-shaped trafficking and intraregional and cross-border trafficking has become the primary focus of attention. Further, a growing understanding of the range and breadth of the crime has contributed to more concerted efforts to address human trafficking, including crimes of domestic or internal trafficking, trafficking for labour and trafficking for other forms of exploitation, as well as the trafficking of men for labour, particularly in the fishing industries. Despite the enormous challenges facing East and South-East Asia, considerable progress has been made over the past decade, aimed at enhancing national and inter-governmental efforts to address trafficking – both in terms of combating the crime and assisting its victims.

The majority of countries in the region have enacted specific trafficking policies and legislation, which have led to the drafting of National Plans of Actions to Combat Human Trafficking. Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Japan, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam all have established National Plans of Action, which provide a framework for multi-ministerial coordination in addressing key aspects of the human trafficking response – policy development, prevention, prosecution and protection. Additionally, Lao People’s Democratic Republic is in the process of finalizing its National Plan of Action and, on 10 May 2007, the Malaysian government passed a long awaited anti-trafficking bill that brings the country closer to fulfilling its international obligations and could lay the ground work for the eventual development of a comprehensive national plan of action.

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25 The information in this section is obtained from the Situation Report on International Migration in East and South-East Asia, published by the Regional Thematic Working Group on International Migration including Human Trafficking.
Looking at Vietnam in particular, this country is a source and, to a lesser extent, a destination country for men, women and children subjected to sex trafficking and conditions of forced labour. Vietnamese persons are trafficked to neighbouring countries in Asia, to the Middle-East and to Europe. China is often mentioned as a major destination. In both sex trafficking and labour trafficking, debt bondage, confiscations of identity and travel documents, and threats of deportation are commonly used to intimidate victims. Labour exploitation occurs primarily in construction, fishing, mining, logging, manufacturing and agricultural industries.

Statistics are uncertain, but in 2010 it was reported that more than 85,000 persons travelled abroad to work, and the total number of Vietnamese abroad is estimated to some 500,000. Many of these migrants are processed through private labour export companies that are known to coerce migrants to sign contracts in languages they cannot read and charge excessive fees. Vietnamese women and children found to be subjected to prostitution were often misled by fraudulent labour opportunities, and also recruited through fraudulent marriages in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Macau and increasingly South Korea. Vietnam is also a destination for, for example women and children from Cambodia and Laos exploited by sex tourism in the beach areas and bigger cities. Finally there are reports of labour and sex trafficking of particularly girls and women from poor rural areas to the urban centres.

The Vietnamese Government is well aware of the problems and the Ministry of Public Security is in charge of the national response. There have been structural reforms among government agencies, and in 2012 the new comprehensive anti-trafficking legislation was passed, and there is a five-year national plan on action against trafficking. The National Supreme Court reports that 153 cases of sex trafficking were prosecuted in 2010, and 274 individuals were convicted for trafficking offenses. The implementation of the National Plan of Action is led by a National Steering Committee with inter-ministerial participation. Vietnam participates in the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative Against Trafficking (COMMIT), for which UNIAP acts as Secretariat. In 2011 Vietnam ratified the UN Conventions against Transnational and Organized Crime, and is considering ratification of its relevant protocols.

The United Nations in Vietnam and its support against Trafficking

The United Nations has a very solid presence in Vietnam. Apart from being a major partner in development generally, the UN agencies in Vietnam are also piloting the reform of the UN system itself. The UN agencies in Vietnam volunteered to be part of the reform initiative ‘Delivering as One’ (DaO), which was launched in 2007. That initiative has now been evaluated, and Vietnam is pointed to as one of the most successful countries. But the evaluation point to several difficulties, not the least of which is that the funds, programmes and agencies have hierarchical systems and internal steering processes that do not facilitate coordination at field level. The Government of Vietnam has encouraged the DaO very actively, and indeed the strong Government leadership is one of the reasons for results of the reform process. The present Plan 2012 – 2016 focuses on poverty alleviation and sustainable development.

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Purpose, projects and programmes
In the field of anti-trafficking, the UN supports the Government of Vietnam to:

- Develop and implement policies and plans on human trafficking, such as national plans of action and guidelines on victim protection;
- Draft the new law on trafficking, including through advice and advocacy with the National Assembly and the Ministry of Justice;
- Strengthen the reception and reintegration system by supporting networking and referrals among service providers and piloting service models with provincial authorities;
- Ensure that potential migrant workers and recruitment agencies are able to ensure safe migration, through pre-departure training and the development of an industry code of conduct;
- Enhance the capacity of its border control agencies in the detection, investigation and prevention of human trafficking across its national borders;
- Improve regional cooperation and exchange of strategic and operational information about human trafficking;
- Participate in the COMMIT process and implement bilateral MOUs and standard operating procedures with COMMIT countries; and
- Monitor, research and respond to changing trends in trafficking, for example through research on the trafficking of boys.

Table 1 presents a list of the projects that are implemented in Vietnam during 2012. This is meant to present the current portfolio, but as the dates show several projects are being completed this year or were actually completed late 2011 or early 2012. Several projects were also regional, meaning for example that Vietnam could send staff to regional training programmes. The accumulated budget of the 12 projects add up to around USD 3 million, but as the budgets sometime refer to activities over 3 to 4 years, the annual expenditure in any given year is a share of that amount. At present, it may be reasonable to estimate the annual expenditure on anti-trafficking projects in Vietnam to around USD 1 million.

The objective of the largest programme is to improve the well-being of cross-border vulnerable migrants including unaccompanied minors, exploited, abused and trafficked migrants displaced persons, etc., in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) and Malaysia through increased protection and targeted assistance. The programme’s specific objectives are to address risks during the different phases of the migratory cycle (component one of this programme) and to strengthen partnerships at the regional level and between international organization actors.

While the objectives of the different projects are commonly stated so that they reflect the activities of the UN shown above, it is also clear that the resources are very limited and the actual support provided to the government of Vietnam is a small part of the overall efforts of the government to counter trafficking. It is also apparent that if no new projects are added to the list shortly, the UN anti-trafficking projects come to a halt by the end of 2012. The real nature of the activities is thus not as comprehensive or as

The question is to what extent these 11 activities can be said to be coordinated and if so, how that coordination took place?

### Table 1. List of project activities in Vietnam.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Management Location</th>
<th>Project Name</th>
<th>Source of Funding</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia, Regional</td>
<td>Training Facility for the Delivery of IOM Counter Trafficking Modules in Bangkok, Thailand</td>
<td>PRM</td>
<td>October 2006 to September 2012</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia, Phnom Penh</td>
<td>Responding to Trafficking of Men in the Fishing Industry and other High risk Employment Sectors in the GMS</td>
<td>GTIP Facility</td>
<td>July 2008 to February 2011</td>
<td>284,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand, Bangkok</td>
<td>Addressing the Risks and Needs of Vulnerable Migrants in Burma, Thailand and Vietnam</td>
<td>PRM</td>
<td>October 2011 to September 2012</td>
<td>450,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand, Bangkok Regional</td>
<td>GMS and Malaysia - Addressing the Risks and Needs of Vulnerable Migrants</td>
<td>PRM</td>
<td>October 2010 – September 2012</td>
<td>1,065,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand, Bangkok</td>
<td>Immigration Officers Training, Child Care and Women Detainees Services at the Bangkok Immigration Detention Centre</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>April 2010 to December 2011</td>
<td>84,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Addressing Internal and Labour Trafficking in Vietnam</td>
<td>GTIP</td>
<td>September 2010 to September 2012</td>
<td>320,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Addressing Migration and Human Trafficking in Vietnam through Capacity Building and Technical Assistance</td>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>January 2009 to December 2011</td>
<td>262,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Counter Trafficking Through Prevention and Reintegration in An Giang and Mekong Delta Provinces</td>
<td>Kuwait Consulate</td>
<td>January 2011 to December 2011</td>
<td>47,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Programme Assessment and Support for Policy Development in return and Reintegration of Victims if Trafficking in Vietnam</td>
<td>1035 facility</td>
<td>November 2010 to June 2012</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Reception and Reintegration of Trafficked and Other Vulnerable Vietnamese Women and Children</td>
<td>Government of Japan</td>
<td>September 2010 to September 2012</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Standing Up Against Violence – Migrant Women and Men Working Together to Stop Violence against Women.</td>
<td>Delegation of European Union to Vietnam</td>
<td>September 2010 to September 2012</td>
<td>290,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam, Hanoi</td>
<td>Viet Nam Joint Programme of Gender</td>
<td>Spanish MDGF</td>
<td>January 2009 to March 2012</td>
<td>78,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Excel file; List of Projects – Vietnam and Thailand, provided by UNIAP office.
Coordination through Joint Programmes
The list of projects in Table 1 show that there are no joint projects by the UN agencies. The 11 projects are implemented by one or the other of them. One consequence is that there is a risk of piecemeal approaches and that activities are too small to make any difference. It is difficult to see how projects under USD 100,000 can have any measurable impact, and it seems likely that more ambitious targets could be realized if the resources were pooled and implemented through joint programmes. However, the UN agencies have come to the conclusion that joint programming is a better approach than joint programmes. During the interviews, respondents unanimously said that it was too cumbersome to design and implement joint projects. To that extent, the 11 projects above reflect a joint programming (that is, division of labour within a common framework of objectives), where it seems that duplication of efforts have been avoided.

Coordination through Joint Planning
The Joint Plan of 2012 – 2016 is in itself an instrument of coordination. Anti-trafficking is not a programme area of its own in Vietnam – it is part of the Social Protection Programme, and this is coordinated by a Programme Coordination Group (PCG) which has members from the government as well as from the UN agencies. The PCG decides on the overall programme goals and the activities to be undertaken. At present, the PCG is chaired by UNICEF. The Plan lists two outputs that has a direct bearing and reference to trafficking. They are;

- Output 2.1.4: Institutional and human resource capacity strengthened to design and deliver social assistance, social insurance, and social welfare and protection services.
- Output 3.2.4: Awareness-raising programmes and legal support services developed and effectively implemented to enable all people, particularly vulnerable groups, to be aware of and claim their rights.

The Plan lists 2 indicators in respect of each output. The budget information shows that the UN plans to spend close to USD 8 million to produce the first output, and USD 13 million for the second output. However, around 80% of the funds remain to be raised and the Plan only shows funding of slightly more than USD 2 million for the 5 year period. It should also be noted that the target groups mentioned through these outputs include many more than victims of trafficking – in fact, trafficking could risk being a minor share of activities.

To what extent are projects by the different agencies coordinated by the joint Plan? In theory, to a high degree as they would all be directed towards producing the same output and their success would be measured by the same indicators. But in practice, very little, as almost any conceivable activity could be presented as being oriented towards one or the other of the outputs quoted above. Practically speaking, a review or an evaluation at the end of the 5 year period could find evidence of strengthened capacities to design social insurance (to take an example) without any real change having taken place for victims of trafficking. Nevertheless, the fact that there is two joint outputs and that this is used to assess project ideas should mean that the risk of overlapping projects is minimal. The One Plan eliminates the risk of duplication but it
does not lead to synergy effects, as the agencies still work independently – each with their small projects.

**Coordination through Working Groups/Technical Groups.**

The UN organisations in Vietnam coordinate their counter-trafficking work through the Technical Working Group on Human Trafficking (TWG), a subgroup of the Programme Coordination Group on Social Protection (PCG). The TWG is chaired by the IOM and it meets regularly, although not to any specific schedule. Interviews indicate that the TWG meets perhaps twice a year. It has no ToR and it is being discussed whether it should have any. Most seem to think this would be a good idea. The primary function of the TWG is to share information, and to delineate the anti-trafficking activities as they appear in the One Plan. The TWG does not have any website but it has public information material that presents purpose, activities and organisations (which was quoted above). Through these, it appears that the agencies speak with one voice; their outline of the problem and their presentation of the role of the UN in supporting the Government is a joint statement. The fact that the agencies then implement projects each on its own does not show in the public information.

Apart from the TWG there are two other networks. One is a network consisting of the UN agencies and the bilateral donor agencies. This is mainly an information meeting where the participants inform each other of plans, funding needs and priorities. Meetings are irregular, the network has no ToR, and participation is varying. However, it seems to fulfil its purpose and does keep the participants informed. The other network has recently been merged from two preceding networks, with the same participants. The ‘old’ networks consisted of one anti-trafficking generally, and one specifically on reintegration of victims. As the participants were the same and as the issues overlap, the partners decided to merge the networks. The net network consists of civil society organisations and the UN agencies. This too, is primarily for information sharing, but can also extend to joint planning and decisions, for example on whether to advocate for a national day of observation of trafficking.

**Summary of Coordination at National Level**

As the study will discuss under the section on regional coordination, UNIAP also had the task of coordinating activities at the national level. UNIAP has recently been evaluated and the evaluation\(^{28}\) concludes that UNIAP has not been effective in coordination at either the national or regional level, in fact, the evaluation claims that UNIAP may even exacerbate the situation\(^{29}\). UNIAP will be treated more in detail below. However, the situation in Vietnam can be summed up as follows:

- UNIAP has its regional and national projects much like the other agencies do.
- Hence, it is perceived as yet another UN agency with a mission and a mandate in trafficking.

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\(^{29}\) This study is not an evaluation either of UNIAP or of the evaluation of UNIAP, which is a dilemma. The evaluation does leave many questions around coordination without an answer, and the actual reasons for the apparent lack of progress on coordination remain unclear.
Thereby UNIAP risks being seen as, and indeed being, a competitor for ideas, contacts, and scarce funding.

Delivering as One is a major reform process in Vietnam and it tries hard to build a strong coordination mechanism at the national level, and one which all the UN agencies are committed to.

In that context, another actor that strives to coordinate based on a regional programming logic risks going against the priorities of other actors.

Are the UN activities against trafficking in Vietnam well coordinated? The portfolio of projects as well as the coordination processes do have some weaknesses, such as;

- a scattered set of projects with individual targets and objectives;
- the targets and objectives at the outcome level are very general and cannot be linked to results of the projects, nor specifically to anti-trafficking;
- coordination through meetings that are relatively informal and lack regularity, mandate and purpose, and whose membership is open and sometimes discussed (whether and when government representatives should take part, for example);
- the mandate and logic of participation of different agencies varies and does not seem coherent with global mandates (so are for example UNESCO, UN Women and UNFPA not involved in coordination, although the agencies have made important contributions in other contexts);
- conflicting logics of coordination – regional (through UNIAP) or national, according to the Delivering as One reform process.

On the other hand, there are also positive aspects. It is indeed an achievement to have a joint plan, with joint funding. The agencies do speak with one voice, in particular in their interactions with the Government (it is not so evident when it comes to contacts with bilateral agencies and CSOs). It is also important to remember that the activities being coordinated are small, but on the other hand, not everything can be measured in monetary terms and the UN could have a higher impact if there was evidence of stronger synergy effects in its projects so one could see a programme of action against trafficking emerging.

**The United Nations in the Region and International Coordination**

Going from the national to the regional level, what are then the differences in the approaches to coordination? The two levels are inter-linked, and the UN coordination is also affected by other coordination mechanisms between the countries in the region. This is more complex as there are several organisations and processes of coordination. Countries in East and South-East Asia participate in several regional consultative processes on international migration, which are informal meetings of government officials and representatives of international organizations. Their scope is usually sub-regional with the focus on specific aspects of migration, such as trafficking or irregular migration, and their outcomes are non-binding. The member countries of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) have signed a Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, and a Declaration against Trafficking in Persons, particularly Women and Children. Representatives of the six governments in the SMG have established the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking (COMMIT). In addition, many countries in East and South-East Asia
have signed bilateral Memorandum of Understandings (MoUs) or working-level agreements with other countries in the region to manage labour migration, to combat trafficking in persons and to cooperate in the safe repatriation of victims of trafficking.

 Trafficking in human beings in one way or another affects most countries in East and South-East Asia. As the background section shows, many of the streams of trafficked persons concern all the nations in the region. Though there are no definitive statistics on the scale and number of trafficking in persons, owing in part to the clandestine nature of the crime and inconsistent data collection methodologies, estimates of the numbers trafficked within and across borders in the region range into the hundreds of thousands. As a whole, the region can be cited as a source, transit and destination region with officials in some countries acknowledging their countries as being simultaneously source, transit and destination countries. The Transnational Organized Crime Convention and its supplemental trafficking Protocol has heightened public awareness and elevated the profile of the crime on the political agenda.

 Consequently some ‘cutting-edge’ initiatives that enhance bilateral and multi-lateral cooperation on trafficking have emerged. In May 2003, the governments of Thailand and Cambodia signed a MoU on “Bilateral Cooperation for Eliminating Trafficking in Children and Women and Assisting Victims of Trafficking”. The MoU, which was considered at the time to be the first of its kind in the world, is reinforced by an action plan that calls for cooperation on a range of law enforcement, prosecution and protection issues. Similar MoUs have been signed between Thailand and Lao PDR, Cambodia and Vietnam, and Thailand and Vietnam. Discussions are also underway between Thailand and Myanmar, Myanmar and China, Vietnam and China, and Indonesia and Malaysia to advance bilateral cooperation on the issue. Bilateral cooperation initiatives also exist between Japan, as a primary destination country, and Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand as origin countries.

 These national efforts have been supported and strengthened by the multilateral efforts and in particular through COMMIT. At the sub-regional level, the 6 GMS countries signed a MoU in October 2004 that sets out a comprehensive framework of cooperation to address trafficking. The MoU contains 34 operative paragraphs in key areas: (1) policy and cooperation; (2) legal frameworks, law enforcement and justice; (3) protection, recovery and reintegration; (4) preventive measures and (5) mechanisms for implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the MoU. An associated sub-region action plan has also been developed that outlines national, bilateral and sub-regional level areas of action, including the holding of annual senior officials meetings, to advance and guide implementation of the MoU.

 These initiatives are reinforced by broader ASEAN instruments, most notably the ASEAN Declaration against Trafficking in Persons, Particularly Women and Children (29 November 2004) and ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers (13 January 2007). The Declarations call for member states to cooperate on preventing trafficking in persons, identify and protect victims of trafficking and to promote and protect the rights of migrant workers and prevent abuses. All countries of East and South-East Asia are also active participants in the Regional Ministerial Process on People Smuggling, Trafficking in Persons and Related Transnational Crime (Bali Process) initiated by the governments of Australia and
Indonesia in 2002, which serve as co-chairs to the process. The Bali Process draws together 40 countries across the Asia-Pacific region to address the transnational crimes of people smuggling and trafficking through convening targeted participatory workshops that contribute to strengthening regional capacities to combat the crimes and fostering improved intra-regional and interdepartmental cooperation.

The United Nations’ support against Trafficking in South-East Asia

Several of the UN agencies have a presence in Bangkok, amongst those who are commonly seen to work against trafficking the IOM, UNODC, ILO and UNICEF all have regional offices, apart from but related to their Thailand country offices. United Nations ESCAP also forms a strong coordinating body for the UN presence in the region. As the region is a ‘hotspot’ of trafficking, there is a need for coordination among the UN agencies, as they cannot work effectively at country level only when the governments of the region work more and more closely together.

Table 2 lists the projects and programmes that the UN agencies implement in the region. The list is taken from UNIAP documentation showing all trafficking related development cooperation in the region. The list shows a total of 37 projects/programmes at total budgets of USD 27 million. The estimated amount to be spent in 2012 is USD 9 million. However, many of the projects are implemented outside the UN system, for example by Save the Children and other NGOs, by INTERPOL, by MTV Exit Foundation.

The table presents 6 regional projects implemented by UN organisations. UNIAP is presented as a project, but sometimes it is perceived to be a UN agency (see table 1) this is discussed below. The regional projects are larger than the national projects in Vietnam. Still, the main characteristic is replicated at the regional level. Each agency designs, seeks funding for, and implements its projects. There is certainly an exchange of information, but the level of coordination has not gone forwards to any joint implementation of activities. At the regional level there seems to be more of an overlap between organisations than at the national level. To point to an example, the UNODC project ‘Childhood’ enters an area where UNICEF would have extensive experiences and much capacity.

Table 2. List of project activities in the South-East Asian region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency and Budget in USD</th>
<th>Project Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IOM 178,000</td>
<td>Advising and Assisting Frontline Officers in Immigration, Border and Identity Management through the Document Examination</td>
<td>Recognizing the need for post-training support to frontline officers in travel document examination, this project will provide additional on-the-job training for Southeast Asian immigration officers in Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao People’s Democratic Republic (PDR), Malaysia, Thailand, and Vietnam. To facilitate this training, the International Office on Migration will create a Document Examination Support Center (DESC) that will be based in Bangkok, Thailand. The DESC will provide ongoing support to Thai and other regional immigration officers in the identification of fraudulent travel documents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support Center (DESC)</td>
<td>travel documents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNODC 1.936.000</td>
<td>Project Childhood</td>
<td>AusAID supports two pillars of work to prevent and combat the commercial sexual exploitation of children in tourism in the Mekong: ♦ Protection Pillar - UNODC works with Interpol to protect at-risk children by training local law enforcement agencies on how to respond to the crime, with the aim of increasing arrests and prosecutions. ♦ Prevention Pillar: World Vision Australia works with partner countries to develop effective national preventive measures and build community resilience to child sexual exploitation in tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO 2.066.000</td>
<td>Triangle Project</td>
<td>Working to reduce the exploitation of vulnerable migrant workers and their families. Supports safe and regularised migration channels and access to services for migrant workers in the Mekong region and Malaysia. ILO partners with NGOs, trade union bodies and government agencies to provide direct assistance to vulnerable migrant workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIAP 2.950.000</td>
<td>Support to UNIAP on Commit Process</td>
<td>The COMMIT represents one of the most successful regional counter trafficking efforts, a six-Government collaboration set up to sustain cross-border cooperation and collaboration in addressing human trafficking in the Mekong Region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNODC 1.200.000</td>
<td>Establishment of Multi-Agency Port Intelligence Units in Thailand, Cambodia and Indonesia</td>
<td>The project, managed by the UNODC, will create inter-agency Port Intelligence Units (PIUs) with a tactical intelligence gathering and analytical capacity to prevent human smuggling operations in Indonesia, Cambodia and Thailand. The units will be situated in order to allow them to respond effectively to maritime migrant smuggling activities in Southeast Asia. The PIUs will be multi-disciplinary and will include immigration officials, criminal police, maritime police, and where appropriate, liaison from national navies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO 2.600.000</td>
<td>Economic and Social Empowerment of Migrants Including Victims of Trafficking Returned from the EU countries</td>
<td>This project has come to an end in 2012.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Excel file; List of Projects – Vietnam and Thailand, provided by UNIAP office.

**Coordination through the Joint Project UNIAP**

There are many ways to look at UNIAP. One approach is to analyse it as a project – a joint project indeed, and to evaluate whether the objectives have been achieved. That is the approach taken in the UNIAP evaluation, and it leads to an analysis of strengths and weaknesses, and recommendations for the future. Another approach is to look specifically at the function of coordination, and to analyse the design, the implementation, and the achievements from that perspective. UNIAP was established in 2000 to facilitate a stronger and more coordinated response to human trafficking in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS). It is managed by a regional management office in Bangkok, with country project offices in the capitals of Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The seven UNIAP offices have a combined staff of approximately 35 and an annual budget of approximately US $2.5 million. UNIAP is funded primarily by six key donors.
and independent of any United Nations core funding. The primary donors include the
governments of Australia, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, and the United States, as well
as Spanish foundation ANESVAD. As an inter-agency project, UNIAP works with
governments, UN, and civil society partners at all levels – regional, national and
community. UNIAP has over 250 local and international partners across seven
countries, including well-known international partners ILO, IOM, OHCHR, UNDP,
UNESCAP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNIFEM, and UNODC within the UN;
ARTIP, ECPAT, Oxfam International, Save the Children, and World Vision from the
international NGO sector; and dozens of local civil society organizations. According to
the Project Document, UNIAP has four objectives:

1. Services to Governments. To support Governments in the institutionalization of
effective multi-sectoral approaches to combat trafficking.
2. Services to UN Partners. To maximize the UN’s contribution to the overall anti-
trafficking response including the COMMIT process.
3. Services to the anti-trafficking sector in general including donors. To facilitate
optimal allocation and targeting of anti-trafficking resources.
4. Special projects. To continue to play a catalytic role in the anti-trafficking
response by identifying and supporting special projects to address new and
emerging issues and opportunities.

The evaluation concludes that the majority of resources has been spent on the first
objective and that’s also where the most successful results have been achieved. The
evaluation found that no more than 2 – 3% of the overall project resources were
allocated for the second objective, and hence the results in this field were almost none.
However, the analysis of coordination is quite difficult and there is a significant overlap
between areas, in fact, it may be almost impossible to distinguish the real nature of the
activities that go into producing these objectives. Many of the activities that contribute
to the third and fourth objectives would involve coordination between UN agencies as
well.

The most significant achievement is that UNIAP serves as Secretariat to the COMMIT
Process, and as such provides technical, financial, monitoring, reporting, and logistical
support to activities under COMMIT. Based on its mandate as an inter-agency
coordinating body, UNIAP is able to draw on its extensive network of partners
throughout the region to provide technical and financial assistance to all aspects of that
process, and to work with partners to ensure that programs and activities are aligned
with government priorities in the COMMIT Sub-regional Plans of Action (SPA) – as well
as National Plans of Action.

The inter-agency collaboration fostered around the first COMMIT SPA (2005-2007) has
continued through the SPA II (2008-2010) and into the SPA III (2011-2013), with
implementing agencies contributing their unique technical expertise to helping the
governments advance along the measurable targets and progress indicators built into
COMMIT’s monitoring and evaluation framework. So to that extent, UNIAP’s support to
the COMMIT process seems by definition to consist of inter-agency coordination.

UNIAP is governed by a project management board as well as by a project steering
committee. It is through these mechanisms that UNIAP was to become a coordinated
response to trafficking in the region. However, it is probably not easy to combine the
function of managing a project, which is by definition a time-bound activity to
accomplish certain goals, and at the same to coordinate the activities of the
organisations that are represented in these governance structures. It is an achievement
itself that to a large extent UNIAP has led to a coordinated response, as evidenced by the
UN support to the COMMIT process. However, it must be said that the achievement lies
in managing the support to COMMIT rather than in coordinating other aspects of the
agencies’ operations in South-East Asia. Coordination does not only come about by
design but some times also through default. The fact that the representatives of the
agencies often met on the UNIAP Project management Board and on the Project Steering
Committee itself leads to an exchange of information and to the development of personal
networks that facilitate informal communication.

Coordination through Technical/Working Groups
One of the activities that UNIAP initiated to pursue its second objective was to call for an
Inter-Agency Working Group on Trafficking in the region. The initiative did not really
take off, and the reasons for that were several. It is of course questionable whether the
approach to such a group should be more formalised. In any case, there were never any
elaborated ToRs, nor any clear membership or governance structure. On the other hand,
it would probably have been premature to design such a governance structure
beforehand, that should be created in the process rather than in advance. According to
the interviews, the working group was meant to have a rotating chair and to meet
quarterly. The information is not complete, but if the group actually met, it still never
became institutionalised and the effort has been discontinued. Apparently the UN
regional representations in Bangkok did not see any need for yet another coordination
mechanism, but were satisfied with the opportunities to meet that were offered through
UNIAP’s governance structure, through the various working groups that support the
COMMIT process, as well as through the already established Working Group on
Migration.

This group is the regional part of the Global Migration Group that was mentioned above.
UNIAP takes part in the meetings, as do all the agencies concerned with migration and
thus the group serves the coordination purpose in general. However, it has a large
agenda, and as with the global group, trafficking is one of the many items on its agenda.
It may serve well as a first step in information-sharing, but for a closer coordination of
anti-trafficking activities, it probably has too large an agenda and is not sufficiently
focused to be effective.

In conclusion, it thus seems that there is no interagency working group or technical
group that meets regularly to coordinate (share information, plan, design and
implement, monitor and evaluate joint activities) in counter-trafficking specifically. But
there are several occasions, more or less formalised, where the persons who work
against trafficking in the different organisations do meet, and that includes the
governance structure of UNIAP, the different groups that are convened to support the
COMMIT process, as well as the technical groups on other subjects, of which concerns
over trafficking are part – paramount among these, the working group on migration.
Coordination through Joint Activities

Table 2 lists the regional projects of the UN agencies. The list shows that the interventions have many things in common. Several aim to raise awareness of trafficking and the interventions operate through meetings and conferences. When such meetings of 2 – 3 days’, or even a week’s duration take place there is an agenda. These agendas commonly centre on the mission and mandate of the agency concerned, for example ILO’s agenda under its Triangle project or IOM’s on border control posts. But the agencies do call upon each other, and there seems to be a regular consultation before such meetings and it is also common that, for example, the IOM experts make presentations on UNODC or ILO capacity building activities. It does not mean that the agencies plan to do things together, but they know of the expertise amongst the UN partners and draw on that expertise in the delivery of services to governments in the region.

Similarly the UNIAP initiative Strategic Information Response Network (SIREN) is used by the other agencies in seminars, meetings and conferences, and to support the development of new activities. Again, SIREN is not exactly a joint activity, it is better seen as a project activity, and it does meet an information need which is shared by the other UN organisations as well as it partners in governments and amongst civil society organisations in the region. SIREN conveys information to the counter-trafficking sector in a variety of forms; briefing reports, maps, data sheets and discussion forums and debates.

Yet another practical example is the first regional anti-human trafficking Training of Trainers (TOT) seminar, held in Bangkok from 14 – 18 May 2012. The training was run by UNIAP and had invited 36 trainers from the government and non-government sectors – including policy makers, social workers, police officers, and community-based trainers – who provide training on anti-human trafficking to national and local-level government officials, NGOs, service providers, and at-risk communities. The TOT course was part of a longer-term effort to strengthen anti-human trafficking capacity in a sustainable manner. Since 2005, UNIAP has also conducted 12 Regional Anti-Trafficking Training Programmes for approximately 400 government and non-government anti-trafficking responders, and supported the localization of training curricula and strengthening of national training cadres in each COMMIT country.

Now UNIAP has moved from training to training of trainers, and this was the first such seminar, aiming to give national-level trainers updated information, materials, and training techniques to significantly strengthen local capacity to implement generalist and specialist anti-human trafficking trainings throughout the region. The week-long course covered all aspects of planning and running comprehensive anti-trafficking trainings, with an emphasis on frequent practice of and testing on effective training techniques. The point is that at events such as this, and there are similar events organised by ILO, IOM, UNODC and UNICEF in their regional programmes, the agencies do rely on each other for information and invite each other to speak. It is by no means possible to specify how often it happens, if it happens whenever it should happen, or whether they could utilize each other even more. But it is an aspect of coordination which is in itself important, concrete and realistic, involving little extra effort and achieving results.
Yet another example of a joint activity can be taken from the national level in Thailand. The Thailand Migration Report 2011 – the third in a series which started in 2005 – is the product of a collaborative effort between member agencies of the UN Thematic Working Group on Migration in Thailand. The aim is to provide policymakers, practitioners and academia with current information on migration trends and patterns in Thailand. The preface lists 15 participating agencies, among them UNIA, UNDP, World Bank, WHO, UN Women, as well as the organisations mentioned in chapter 2 and 3.

Informal Coordination
Much like at the global level, the coordination among agencies in the South-east Asian region does not involve that many persons. While there are some 35 persons in the UNIAP project, it would only be a handful of them that would be more immediately concerned with inter-agency coordination, and each of the other agencies it appears to be one or two persons who has anti-trafficking activities as part of their portfolio. It is probably not more than 40 – 50 persons in total who are managing the UN support to end trafficking in the region.

In theory it would be possible to draw up a network chart to illustrate who speaks to whom and how often. Needless to say, practical and informal coordination depends on personal interaction, and even I such a small group there are those who work better together. On the one hand, such patterns of communication, information-sharing and cooperation on events may appear to exclude some agencies and include others. On the other hand, they vary with personnel turnover, funding opportunities, and with the demand for various forms of support from the governments in the region and other partners.

The impression gained during the visit to Bangkok and through the meetings there, is that the informal coordination works well – in spite of the structural deficiencies and sometimes conflicting organisational interests at the formal level. Nevertheless, informal coordination could probably be much stronger if it was facilitated by smooth and well defined formal structures of coordination at the regional level.

Summary of Coordination at the Regional Level
The UN agencies have actively tried to respond to the challenge of trafficking for more than a decade and there are several lessons to be learned, certainly much more than this study can identify. Some of the main lessons to point at would be:

- It is possible to achieve results, the support to the COMMIT process proves the point. The combination of advocacy and capacity building that the UN agencies jointly engaged in has had an impact and has led to change in the region – though it took a long time and was a process which had to go through several formal mechanisms of regional coordination.
- The UN agencies show a strong preference for designing and implementing interventions on their own. Apart from UNIAP, there are no joint projects, but each agency runs its own sizeable regional project with anti-trafficking interventions. Much like at the national level, it is considered too cumbersome to manage joint projects. The structures and processes for project planning,
decision-making, implementation and reporting within each agency make a formidable obstacle towards joint implementation.

- The experience of UNIAP illustrate the difficulty – UNIAP has had its own funding and has been set up as a semi-independent unit and consequently it is many times seen as an autonomous UN agency.
- Even though the agencies run their own projects, they do produce joint activities under the umbrellas of these projects. Publications such as guidelines, manuals, awareness-raising material, etc. are shared and borrow from each other. Research is effectively disseminated, there are links on the web, and many times the agencies collaborate on advocacy and capacity-building. Within the support activities to the COMMIT process, there is much practical collaboration.
- The joint activities of different forms build on informal coordination mechanisms. These are ad hoc and depend on personal networks. That make them cost-effective but also less permanent and subject personnel turnover and changes in funding.
- One of the objectives of UNIAP was to encourage interagency coordination. UNIAP has launched a number of initiatives and through the various conferences, meetings, virtual and real networks, research, publications, etc. the UN agencies have indeed coordinated activities. It is through the delivery of services that coordination has occurred. The planned, formal coordination of efforts, for example a potential coordination of projects (table 2) does not appear to have been successful. The efforts to create specific interagency technical working groups to coordinate anti-trafficking efforts, independently of the COMMIT support and the governance on UNIAP, did not take-off. The question is if it is possible to take coordination to a higher level 'from the outside'. After all, UNIAP is a project with a limited mandate and with no decision-making powers in respect of the agencies. Besides, the agencies may have another decision-making logic and would take into concern all aspects of their mandates, not only trafficking, when setting priorities and managing their programmes. Experiences from coordination in other fields suggest that it is very difficult to coordinate large, hierarchical and tradition-bound agencies from an external project/committee, or whatever structure is built for the purpose. The experience from UNIAP verifies other research and organisational evaluation studies.
Chapter 6. Impressions of UN Coordination in a sample of countries

Background
The visit to Vietnam and South-East Asia gave an introduction to the UN coordination at country and regional levels, but it is one region only and a region that is unique in many ways. In the course of the study we have also turned to the Swedish Embassies in fourteen countries\(^\text{30}\) and asked for their description of the work of the UN against trafficking. The embassies have responded with comments on four questions;

- the extent and nature of anti-trafficking projects and programmes;
- the visibility of the UN agencies in counter-trafficking work and their advocacy efforts;
- the coordination mechanisms of the UN agencies;
- special challenges and lessons learned in anti-trafficking work.

The views presented by the Embassies are often based on interviews with staff of the UN agencies. Most of the time they reflect the impressions gained by the Embassy personnel. Even if the viewpoints expressed here are not rigorously gathered evidence, it is of great interest. It reflects a 'peer review' and in many ways the findings presented here confirm the picture obtained through the country visits as well as the evaluation findings presented in chapter 4.

One of the many problems when addressing human trafficking is to specify what it actually consists of. Many organisations move in the 'grey zones' surrounding trafficking, such as work with HIV/AIDS and women's rights projects. There are also programs that partially address trafficking while targeting areas such as drugs or prostitution. It is then difficult to assess how much resources and time are actually being spent on questions directly related to trafficking.

Extent of Anti-Trafficking interventions
Table 3 presents an overview of information on whether the different agencies are engaged in interventions against trafficking. As the table shows, UNODC is the organization working most actively with trafficking. It is present in all the countries and has projects in most of them. In nine of the thirteen countries there is at least one, but often more, interventions against trafficking. However, anti-trafficking work does not appear to have a high priority in any of the countries – with the exception of Guatemala. The case in that country is special. The fight against organized crime in Guatemala, which includes human trafficking, is a priority for the government, the UN system, the donor community, the civil society etc. But the issue is in general not treated as a special theme in isolation from others. A number of reasons are put forward through the reports on why trafficking is otherwise not a priority. In one case it is mentioned that this does not appear to be a government priority, partly because it generates tax income

\(^{\text{30}}\) Responses were received from the Swedish Embassies in Addis Abeba, Kigali, Kairo, Pretoria, Kabul, Jakarta, Islamabad, New Delhi, Dhaka, Bogota, Brasilia, Guatemala City and Mexico City.
from agencies dealing with migration. Another problem that is addressed in many reports is the logistical problem that the loose definition of trafficking entails as well as the UN organization’s focus on other, more specific, areas of humanitarian aid. It is also often said that as anti trafficking work cannot be part of the UN Millennium goals, this will be and is a contributing factor to the lack of interest and funding in the global community.

Table 3. Interventions by the UN agencies in the survey countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UNODC</th>
<th>UNICEF</th>
<th>UNWomen</th>
<th>UNFPA</th>
<th>UNHCR</th>
<th>IOM</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<td>Ethiopia</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x (ILO)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>(UNDP)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x (WHO)</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x (UNDP, UNAMA)</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey to Swedish Embassies

UNODC’s projects mainly focus on capacity building programs for the Ministries of Justice and their agencies, for example on developing legislation and training of police officers. Other UN agencies have specific target groups through their mandates. UN Women, UNICEF and UNHCR all have projects working directly with women, children and migrant workers, and they also work with policy development, advocacy and capacity building. Much like UNODC, IOM is also active in most of these areas.

The Table indicates that there are around 38 interventions against trafficking in these 14 countries. While we do not have the total budget figures, the indications we have point to the overall volumes being rather small, usually less than USD 1 million per project. Several of the Swedish Embassies responding to the survey have also noted that the UN organisations are short of staff and short of financial resources to address trafficking.

Guatemala appears to be an unusual and outstanding country. The Embassy reports two projects: The first is a UNICEF programme: “Developing a Child Protection System for Guatemalan Children and Adolescents”. The objectives are to contribute to the institutionalization of a national protection system for children through increasing the technical capacity of public institutions to defend the rights of children. The Swedish support amounts to 58,6 MSEK 2009-2012. The main human trafficking problem addressed in the programme is illegal adoption in which small children are kidnapped.
and sold with support of illicit structures within the Guatemalan justice and protection systems.

The second project is the CICIG: the International Commission against impunity in Guatemala, which has the objective to support the Guatemalan justice and security sector to fight organized crime, illicit structures and clandestine security groups within the public institutions. The Swedish support to this amounts to 76,5 MSEK 2008-2012. CICIG was established in 2007 by an agreement between UN general secretary and the Guatemalan government), UNFPA and UNODC. UNICEF and CICIG have signed an agreement meaning that 50 000 USD of the Swedish funding to UNICEF is channelled specifically to the fight against trafficking of children. The funds have been used to investigate and dismantle illegal adoption networks.

In a situation of resource constraints it would appear even more important to use the scarce resources effectively through coordination of efforts. It is not uncommon that the agencies implement joint projects/programs. There are 12 joint projects between the UN agencies in these 14 countries, which means that 30% of the interventions are jointly implemented. Whether that should be considered more or less than one could expect is an open question. Apart from UNIAP there were no joint projects in the South East Asian region, and hence these data indicate a much higher level of coordination and cooperation.

Advocacy and Visibility in Combating Trafficking

According to the survey responses, the priority assigned to anti-trafficking by national governments sets the scene for what the UN agencies do. Some are reluctant but many others have taken initiatives and encourage the UN organizations to engage more with the issue. Some countries have National Action Plans on trafficking, which often have often been developed through the advocacy of one or several UN agencies, and supported through their projects. According to the survey, many of the countries are keen to develop better formal system for dealing with trafficking. Even though trafficking appears to have a relatively low priority, there are many who realize that there is a need to work more actively against trafficking. It is particularly promising that there are several initiatives among governments to collaborate across borders. The support to that process was the most significant contribution of the UN system against trafficking in the South-East Asian region. However, these projects also suffer from a lack of funding and thus organizational difficulties. Civil society initiatives to fight trafficking appear to be surprisingly low. Still, many of the UN organizations work with projects that aim to raise awareness around trafficking and its implications. UNICEF has a number of such projects in schools, and there are also community-based projects on information and awareness-raising as a part of child protection.

The survey asked the Swedish embassies to comment on the level of advocacy activities from the heads of agencies in the UN system, and naturally that level varies. In four countries, the UN agencies were found to speak with one voice to demonstrate a joint concern for the problems of trafficking, and to be very active. In six of the countries, it was the local representatives of the agencies that implemented projects and programmes who demonstrated concern for the subject and who acted together on advocacy. In theory, other agencies could of course be involved in advocacy and give
increasing weight to the voice of the UN family, as was the case in the first mentioned three countries.

The actual constellation of agencies that acted together varied considerably; the Swedish embassy in Brazil reported that UNODC, UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNIFEM, UNFPA, UNHCR and ILO worked together in that country, the embassy in Ecuador reported that UNODC, UN Women, UNHCR, UNFPA and IOM worked together there. In Ecuador, for example, IOM hosted a national symposium (the first in Equador) of trafficking and smuggling in May 2012, and the other agencies participated in the event. In Guatemala, it was UNODC, UNICEF, UNFPA and UNDP that worked together.

It seems to be uncommon that the whole UN family comes together, in most countries it is one or a few UN agencies who advocate together – often then together with NGOs. The participating agencies vary; the most frequently mentioned are UNODC, UNICEF and IOM. But sometimes ILO, UN Women, UNDP, UNFPA och UNESCO are mentioned as well. In three of the countries covered by the survey the UN agencies were not really visible and did not play any significant role in advocacy against trafficking. In one of those countries, Pakistan, the situation was changing and the new ‘One Programme’ of the UN (2013 – 2017) includes an Action Plan against trafficking.

Pakistan is the only country participating the in the ‘Delivering as One’ reform, and thus the only example where anti-trafficking is part of that cooperation framework. In the other 13 countries, there is a Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) and nine out of these include projects and programmes against trafficking, even though trafficking is not a programme area in itself. In India, the Swedish Embassy reports that though UNDAF does not explicitly refer to anti-trafficking, IOM quotes the document to describe its role: “Result 1: Good governance enhanced and sustained, and more specifically under outcome 1: Rule of Law, which is ‘Capacity of Government and partners, to sustain a peaceful state where freedom and human rights are fully protected respected and enhanced’”. This is seen to include projects against trafficking. UNDAF Bangladesh 2012-2016 makes no references to anti-trafficking either, except as baseline indicators to follow up the different outputs agreed in the framework. However, IOM’S country cooperation strategy for Bangladesh lays emphasis on labour trafficking and the issue of coordination. The UNDAF in Guatemala refers to the law against human trafficking as part of the national normative framework to be taken into account in the support to the justice and security sector. CICIG has in cooperation with UNICEF made a comprehensive study on the actors in illegal adoption and recommendations to the state based on this.

Patterns of Coordination

Three of the embassies describe the formal and institutional coordination mechanism between agencies as well developed, but in most of the other cases coordination is informal and focused on information sharing rather than any joint planning and/or programmes. Again, the agencies taking part in coordination mechanisms vary. In Egypt, it is UNFPA and UNODC that are mentioned, in Pakistan coordination occurs between UNODC and UN Women, and it is said that UNICEF has so far not been part of this, but has the potential to get involved. In Pakistan there is an anti-trafficking task force in the Home Ministry where UNICEF, IOM and UNDP participates. This group is discussing
lessons learned in India, which it is cooperating with, but also from countries in the Middle East where a big part of trafficked Pakistani labourers end up. The UN agencies in Guatemala support the state secretariat for violence and human trafficking (SVET) as a coordinating mechanism for the theme. There is no special interagency group for human trafficking, but the theme is included in the Interagency Group for Justice and Security. The work of CICIG generally (including anti-trafficking) is coordinated with support to the justice and security institutions through the UNDP/International Peace Fund.

In four countries, UN agencies have formal coordination mechanisms in place at the moment whilst nine countries report that informal initiatives to organize anti-trafficking work exist. Of the thirteen countries only Afghanistan lacks any form of formal or informal coordination. The fact that there are informal ties of collaboration and mutual sharing of information thus indicates that a new focus on joint projects would be relatively easy to coordinate, as the initial contacts already exists in many countries.

Overall, the coordination between UN-agencies seems to be more extensive in countries where the governments take a strong standpoint on anti-trafficking work. In Brazil, concerned actors from different government departments meet every week to discuss anti-trafficking questions and summaries from the meetings are distributed to UN-agencies. The coordination between the agencies is viewed as an important issue to strengthen the relationship between Brazilian UN-agencies in general. Guatemala is also an example where the coordination appears to be quite strong, both formally and informally.

In the absence of a strong government leadership, informal coordination between agencies becomes the most prevalent pattern. What that really means seems to vary. Overall, informal coordination means that the agencies have occasional meetings to discuss individual work and or joint efforts on anti-trafficking projects. Such joint efforts could be to organise events, participate in seminars, develop publication materials, etc. The informal coordination could also result in a division of labour, which is an important aspect of coordination. In other countries, such as Rwanda, the informal coordination has lead to information-sharing and reports on individual progress among the agencies.

In respect of regional cooperation, it was mentioned that Brazil is developing anti-trafficking legislation, and UNODC has conducted a series of workshops where experiences from Panama, Mexico and Costa Rica have been used to identify ‘best practices’ and ‘model legislation’. UNIFEM has in the past supported such an exchange of experiences. In Rwanda it was reported that IOM and UNODC have conducted programmes in the region (Uganda, Tanzania, Burundi, and the DRC) and are using these experiences when implementing the Rwanda programme. So in six of the countries, the UN agencies were seen to work together to disseminate regional experiences and synthesize this in support of national plans. According to UNODC, they have recommended a regional cooperation between Egypt and other source countries of trafficking in persons i.e. West Africa and South Eastern Europe, in order to take proactive measures in dealing with trafficking. The embassy in Pretoria did point out that the UNDAF naturally takes a national perspective on issues, but trafficking is a regional, continental and even global problem and needs to be addressed as such. However, there
are no structures to hold together different national UNDAFs and hence the overall response risks being ineffective.

Towards Joint Programmes?
The extent of the coordination between UN agencies and between UN agencies and government offices and civil society varies extensively between the different countries. Eleven countries report that there are joint programmes and or projects between UN-agencies. Of these, however, half of the countries report that coordination is not primarily focused on trafficking but adjacent areas such as human rights watch.

The most successful coordination appears to be in Brazil, where UNODC, ILO, UNFPA, UNWomen, UNICEF and IOM works together with the Brazilian government and an active civil society under the guidelines of the UN.GIFT initiative from 2007. Their coordination focuses on successfully implementing a National Action Plan to combat human trafficking. There is also an extensive collaboration between UN agencies through the programme Security and citizenship: To prevent violence and empower citizenship with a focus on children, teenagers and teenagers in endangered circumstances in Brazilian communities.

In both Ethiopia and Brazil the UNDAF serves as an integrating framework. In South Africa a UNDAF document is being developed at the moment but in the discussion with the Embassy personnel it was questioned whether collaboration outside UNDAF would be more successful. While the UNDAF focus is on a national level, the problem of trafficking needs to be addressed on a regional, continental and global level. Since UNDAF does not have the structure for this, and hence UNODC believes that it would be less effective to coordinate within this framework. In most countries joint programmes are only structured between two UN-agencies, larger programmes appear but then rarely with anti-trafficking as the main focus.

The importance of Context
The respondents often articulate the importance of clear government ownership and initiatives to engage the UN agencies in anti-trafficking work. One of our questions to the Embassies dealt with this and other “push factors” that mobilize action. Only the UN agencies in Bangladesh, Guatemala and India mention that they have been actively encouraged to develop interventions on trafficking. The government of Bangladesh recently initiated a more extensive response to trafficking by implementing stricter legislation, which is in place from this year. There is also an active civil society in Bangladesh. One of the main actors, Bangladesh National Women’s Lawyers Association, is core funded by the Swedish Embassy in Dhaka.

In Guatemala the issue is included in UNODCs work against organized crime. UNFPA has supported the definition as well as the implementation of the Law against Sexual Violence and Human Trafficking. UNICEF has signed an agreement with several state institutions concerning coordination in activities against sexual exploitation and human trafficking. UNDP and CICIG work with the national justice and security institutions to combat organized crime, including human trafficking. The advocacy and support from these organizations have among other things contributed to the establishment of an anti-trafficking unity at the Attorney General’s Office and a moratorium on international
adoption until a stronger legal and administrative framework is in place (because the international commercialization of adoption promotes trafficking of children in Guatemala). It is thus a long and successful partnership between the UN agencies and the Government agencies that work against trafficking in Guatemala.

Apart from that, in none of the countries responding to the survey has there been a vocal demand for specific work on trafficking from governments. The primary reason for the lack of attention to trafficking is said to be a lack of resources. Another problem lies in that there is sometimes a denial of the problem of trafficking and forced labour. The reasons are difficult to pinpoint, but it may be related to a conception that it is shameful and a disgrace, and hence confessing to the problem means a “loss of face”.

Only three countries, India, South Africa and Pakistan, report that there is an active civil society responding to the problems of trafficking. In South Africa, however, the embassy report that only questions of trafficking relating to prostitution and sexual exploitation receive attention in the civil society and the media, even though forced labour in farm work and housework is an extensive problem. The reason could be that these forms of trafficking are harder to define hence harder to find. There is also in South Africa a far stricter legislation regulating trafficking for sexual exploitation then any other form of trafficking. Overall, a problem with civil society organizations in all countries is that they are unorganized and lack a tradition of collaborative networking.

Towards Future Interventions

The embassies responding to the survey where asked to give an overall assessment of the impact of UN-agencies work with anti-trafficking in respective countries – and the outlook for the future. These responses adhere to the picture painted by the report as a whole but it is interesting to acknowledge what reasons are given for the failure and/or success of the UN’s work. In four of the countries (Brazil, Guatemala, Mexico and India) can the embassies point to positive results and largely relevant and effective interventions, including joint advocacy from the agencies. It is a more nuanced picture provided in six of the countries (Bangladesh, Pakistan, Indonesia, South Africa, Egypt and Ethiopia) with a mixture of lessons to be learned from successes as well as from failures and shortcomings. The situation is mainly problematic and with a strong need for reinforced, more relevant and effective interventions in four countries (Afghanistan, Rwanda, Ecuador and Colombia).

It is a very striking conclusion that recurs at all levels, namely that a lack of funding and resources are the most common problem for UN programmes and projects on trafficking. (This is also concluded in the evaluations mentioned in Chapter 3 and in the country study in Chapter 5). There are a number of reasons for this; (1) lack of interest and or denial from governments to address the issue of trafficking; (2) the problem of defining and attaining a clear picture of the extent and nature of trafficking; (3) the prioritising of different issues concerning human rights.

In some countries security reasons seems to be an important factor. In Cambodia and Ecuador a large part of human trafficking is controlled by criminal gangs. In Cambodia these networks use trafficking to take control over land and resources. These groups also control brothels where trafficking victims are used for sexual exploitation. The state
is weak in its responses, which exacerbates the UN agencies ability to intervene. In Ecuador, some brothels are reported to be run by the police. In Afghanistan security and extensive corruption are mentioned as factors working against the UN’s ability to successfully address trafficking. Another important factor mentioned in Afghanistan is the lack of equal rights and thus low priority to women’s situation (as trafficking is still mainly exploiting women in that country).

In Brazil, Guatemala, Mexico and India where the UN agencies are reported to be relatively successful the main explanatory factor is a strong political commitment and response to trafficking. In India, the government bureaucracy slows down the funding processes, but the well developed coordination of the UN agencies in New Delhi is seen to facilitate the work in general.

The majority of survey responses emphasize that UN programmes on trafficking are important and necessary for the countries’ ability to tackle the problem of human trafficking. Consequently, funding and with that, political priority, to anti-trafficking work is crucial. The response from the embassies point out a strengthened donor dialogue between multilateral and bilateral agencies combined with joint action to support governments to work with trafficking is needed.
Chapter 7. Conclusions and Recommendations

It is a complex picture of the multilateral response that emerges. Trafficking has significant national and regional variations, and the response from the multilateral system to stop the practice also varies. Anything else would be surprising.

On the one hand, the multilateral response to trafficking appears to be, on the whole, weak and fragmented. The financial and human resources are scarce and none of the agencies devote any significant share of core resources to anti-trafficking. The overwhelming share of activities is financed through extra-budgetary resources and the activities do not form part of the organizational core priorities. While a number of “coordination mechanisms” can be found at the national, regional and global levels, coordination is not strategically undertaken and the existing strategies of individual agencies are partly overlapping and do not articulate any expectation of synergetic effects of working together. Coordination at the global level takes place through ICAT for human trafficking work and GMG for work related to migration (but anti-trafficking is a subset of activities and the level of attention to this subset seems to be minimal). Nevertheless, roles and division of labour need to be developed and clarified.

On the other hand, there is evidence of impact and many good results at project level. Even if many projects are small and of short duration, they do make useful contributions. It is particularly encouraging that important policy processes have been strengthened and the research and dissemination activities have helped develop an understanding of trafficking and to identify how trafficking changes as a result of new developments, including new migration patterns and other aspects of socio-economic changes. In many cases, the agencies work well together on specific activities such as conferences, capacity building seminars, publications, and development of web resources. The potential to achieve important results is there, but needs to be more strategically thought through, acted upon and further reinforced.

The General Assembly resolution 64/293, the Global Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons, remains an important reference point for the multilateral work against trafficking. As mentioned initially, there will be a report and discussion on progress against the aims and objectives of the Action Plan at the General Assembly meeting in 2013. That will be an important moment to launch initiatives to further strengthen the multilateral response to trafficking.

The study suggests five areas of action to strengthen the multilateral efforts to eliminate trafficking.

Addressing the resource issue
The two large inter-agency projects UN.GIFT, at the global level, and UNIAP, at a regional level, are coming to an end. This study is not in position to provide any recommendations on their futures, but is quite clear that, more generally, there must be
financial resources to effectively manage a multilateral response to trafficking. This must be a high priority, but which form it should take, whether at a singular project level or a more consolidated programme form, at regional or global levels, within an agency, or partly from the outside (through inter-agency collaboration), are design questions that need to be further explored and elaborated. One option might be that a core group of donors/funding agencies decide to provide core support for (i) a revitalized ICAT, which works at the global level, with the financial means to properly function as a representative inter-agency expert policy mechanism and (ii) using the resulting ICAT outputs to inform the allocation of funds to the agencies in the system for joint action on the ground.

Providing directives to the multilateral system

The multilateral agencies allocate resources and take the initiatives that member states demand. Hence the member states of the multilateral system need to provide clear directives that anti-trafficking is part of the mission and mandate of the organisations, that anti-trafficking actions are clearly stated, and that the organisations are expected to prioritise, coordinate and deliver results from such activities. Some characteristics of an ‘ideal and well coordinated system’ would be;

- Alignment to clear direction from member states on anti-human trafficking action
- Core agencies in the struggle against trafficking have clearly visible and substantive strategies for their work in this field
- Such strategies should be mutually reinforcing and should visibly create synergies between the competencies, capacities and mandates of the organisations
- Strategies should be bolstered with action plans and budget resources
- Organizational structures should contain visible managerial and professional responsibilities for the activities against trafficking
- The communication from headquarters to other parts of the organization should reinforce the need for inter-agency coordination and create incentives for that.

There needs to be a bottom line – the UN agencies have a duty to collaborate to protect and improve the wellbeing of those at risk and those who have suffered at the hands of traffickers. In line with the principle of “do no harm”, the agencies must also take guidance from their core mandate to support the most vulnerable – that should allow for flexibility regarding target groups (e.g. potential migrants or other vulnerable persons such as children with disability amongst others who are at risk of being trafficked) rather than wait for the crime of trafficking or other human rights violations to occur in the first place.

Making better use of the whole system.

There is a core group of agencies that are mandated with the responsibility to combat trafficking and are also active against the issue almost everywhere. Other agencies still have important contributions to make, but appear to take on the issue at random. This leads to a waste of effort, failure to capitalize on experiences, and a less than optimal response to the problem from the multilateral system as a whole. On the one hand, it is clear that resources are constrained and there’s a limit to how much a small country office might know about what the organization as a whole has achieved elsewhere. This
is a problem of internal knowledge management. It has become manifest in this study when we see how UNESCO, UNFPA, and UN Women have been important partners to fight trafficking in some contexts, but are quite absent in other contexts, even though the voice, the knowledge and insight that the agencies have, would lend further strength to the voice of the multilateral agencies.

Results and accountability
Unlike many other fields of global coordination, anti-trafficking work does lend itself to effective monitoring and impact evaluation through the use of indicators. Acknowledging the common disconnection at present between the likely impact of specific anti-trafficking activities and the performance indicators used, as well as the impediments to identifying victims and human trafficking crimes, allocation of resources in terms of, for example, assisting victims, prosecuting and convicting criminals are results that could be at least partially measured. It is an area where the international community will be able to assess efficiency, effectiveness and results, if one gives priority to do so.

The data collected should be harmonized globally, based on key data sets that can be used to develop indicators of progress. Such indicators should be based on consistent application of the trafficking definition as defined by the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially women and children. Funding to do this should be an integral part of any counter trafficking project to ensure that data is comparable while maintaining the personal integrity of trafficked persons. Donor nations must also agree on this as the UN system, like others is dependent on the priorities set by the donors.

Reinforce global coordination
The roles and responsibilities of ICAT and GMG need to be developed and articulated, and the difference between the two groups made clear. ICAT appears to be gaining some momentum from a more passive role in the past to new initiatives and a more active role as a global forum, and it would be important to keep the momentum of those changes. Following the evaluation of UN.GIFT, there are suggestions on how to reform and bolster ICAT, which is also articulated in UNODC's strategy for anti-trafficking activities. There is a strong interest and commitment to this from several of the agencies concerned especially those that are current members of the ICAT working group, but there are other agencies that are not sufficiently involved in the process. The global coordination needs to be an inclusive process and all the agencies that have mandates that somehow relate to trafficking, need to be engaged and, in turn, commit to that engagement.

The roles and responsibilities of the Office of the Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons has so far not been extended to organizational issues, but in theory it should be possible to view this office as an additional attentive eye on the response of the multilateral system – not least in support of coordination. This would probably require a review of the directives of that office as well as of its technical and financial resources.

Organisational change and the logic of coordination
Organisational change through the UN reform processes generates forceful internal instruments of steering and control. While these serve to increase efficiency and effectiveness, they may at times make coordination with other partners more difficult. In the course of this study it was particularly evident how the reforms relating to ‘Delivering as One’ made regional coordination on anti-trafficking activities more difficult, and the overarching logic of UNDAF is usually to strengthen programming at country level. It was frequently said that it was much too difficult to consider joint projects, and hence the portfolio of anti-trafficking projects in Vietnam and South-East Asia consists of single-agency projects. Obviously organizational structures and processes should facilitate and create incentives for joint implementation rather than be obstacles to overcome. There is a need to increase the understanding of such processes and to make sure that the necessary amount of inter-agency coordination is facilitated and that it can and will take place at all levels.
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Annex 2. List of Persons Interviewed

Vienna
Claudia Gioffre, Project Coordinator, UNODC
Sandra Kozeschnik, consultant, previously with UN.GIFT
Alexia Taveau, Project Coordinator, UNODC
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Jean D'Cunha, Adviser Employment, Social Protection and Migration, UN Women
Susu Thatun, Child Protection Specialist - Migration and Trafficking Child Protection Section, Programme Division, UNICEF

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Julie Theroux-Seguin, Associate Country Director, Oxfam Quebec
Kelly Tsanova, Programme Development Manager, HAGAR International
Agnes Lam, Country Representative, HAGAR International
Mirko Giebels, EU Attaché
Nguyen Truc, UNICEF
Danh Thi Hanh, UNIAP
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Phuong Nguyen, UNODC
Kim Lan Nguyen, ILO
Do Thi Thanh Mai, IOM
Catherine Huk, IOM
Florian Forster, Chief of Mission, IOM
Tran Thi Hanh, consultant on DaO Independent Evaluation
Mark Norton, Head of the Crime & Immigration Team, DFID
Van Le, Vulnerable Population Specialist, General Development Office, USAID
Kyung Choe, General Development Office Director, USAID
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Prapenpim Prachonpachanuk, Counselor, Social Division, Department of International Organizations, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

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Luc Stevens, UN Resident Coordinator,
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Prapenpim Prachonpachanuk, Counselor, Social Division, Department of International Organizations, Ministry of Foreign Affairs
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Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Rarinthip Sirorat, Deputy Permanent Secretary, ministry of Social Development and Human Security.
Saowanee Khomepatr, Director of the Bureau of Anti-Trafficking in Women and Children (BATWC), Department of Social Development and Welfare (DSDW)
Puricha Inthawong, Director of Division of Assistance and Protection of Foreign Victims and Vulnerable Group, Bureau of Anti-Trafficking in Women and Children (BATWC) Department of Social Development and Welfare (DSDW)
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Max Tunon, Senior Programme Officer, Triangle Project, ILO
Claudia Natali, Labour Migration Programme Manager, IOM
Matt Friedman, UNIAP Regional Project Manager
Paul Buckley, Field Operations Manager, UNIAP
Suparnee Pongruengphant, Information Analyst, UNIAP
Khun Pinyavi (Fon), Project Assistant, UNIAP
Pidchaya Pariyanithiroj, national Project Coordinator, UNIAP
Chavalite Sawangpuech, Pol. Maj. Genl. Commander, Anti Human Trafficking Division Anti-Human Trafficking Division (AHTD), Royal Thai Police (RTP)
Jedsada Chomcherngpatt, Pol. Maj. Inspector & International Coordinator of ICC, Anti-Human Trafficking Division (AHTD), Royal Thai Police (RTP)
Pravit Roykaew, Expert Prosecutor, International Affairs Department, Office of Attorney General (OAG), Department of International Affairs, Office of Attorney General (OAG)
Paisitt Sungkagahapong, Senior Special Case Inquiry Official Supervising Anti-Human Trafficking Center & DSI officials, Department of Special Investigation (DSI), Ministry of Justice (MOJ)