

'VULNERABILITY' TO HUMAN TRAFFICKING: A STUDY OF VIET NAM, ALBANIA, NIGERIA AND THE UK

**Report of Shared Learning Event held in
Hanoi, Viet Nam: 6-7 December 2017**

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ACRONYMS

AEC	ASEAN Economic Community
APOV	Abuse of a Position of Vulnerability
ASEAN	Association of South-east Asian Nations
COMMIT	Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative Against Trafficking
CP	Child Protection
CPA	Comprehensive Plan of Action
CVWU	Central Vietnamese Women's Union
DSVP	Department of Social Vice Prevention and Combat
DV	Domestic Violence
EU	European Union
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	Greater Mekong Sub-Region
GNI	Gross National Income
HDI	Human Development Index
IASC	Independent Anti-Slavery Commissioner (UK)
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
MoD	Ministry of Defence
MoJ	Ministry of Justice
MoLISA	Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MPS	Ministry of Public Security
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NRM	National Referral Mechanism (UK)
ONAC	Office of the National Anti-trafficking Coordinator
PoCs	Points of Contact (IOM staff in Albania, Vietnam and Nigeria)
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEZ	Special Economic Zone
SGBV	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SLEs	Shared Learning Events
SOPs	Standard Operating Procedures
UN-ACT	United Nations Action for Cooperation Against Trafficking in Persons
VAC	Violence Against Children
VAW	Violence Against Women
VWU	Vietnamese Women's Union
WTO	World Trade Organization

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INTRODUCTION

This report describes the first stages of an ethically-led, two-year research study into understanding the causes, dynamics and ‘vulnerabilities’ to and resilience against human trafficking in three source countries – Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria – plus the support needs of people from these countries who have experienced trafficking when identified as potential ‘victims’ of trafficking in the UK. These three source countries have consistently been the top three countries of referrals of potentially trafficked persons into a National Referral Mechanism (NRM) within the UK.

This study has been conducted in partnership between the University of Bedfordshire and the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The research study uses an IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model in its examination and analysis of vulnerabilities to and resilience against human trafficking. This model identifies risk and protective factors for vulnerable migrants across five different levels – individual, household and family, community, structural and situational levels.

The focus of this report is on Viet Nam, detailing emerging themes following a two-day Shared Learning Event (SLE) held in Hanoi, Viet Nam, between 6-7 December 2017. These preliminary themes will help shape subsequent research. (See Appendix 1 for the SLE agenda).

AIMS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

1. Explore socio-economic and political conditions plus other contextual factors that create ‘vulnerability’ and resilience to human trafficking in Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria
2. Utilise and refine the IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model
3. Outline routes taken from Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria to the UK
4. Review existing academic and ‘grey’ literature on trafficking within and from Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria
5. Explore the support needs of people who have experienced trafficking from Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria and have arrived into the UK

STUDY APPROACH

This study is mainly qualitative in its approach with the intention of drawing out the complexities and nuances of human trafficking from Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria. In each of these countries, and the UK, a minimum of 40 semi-structured interviews will be conducted with key informants and adults who have experienced human trafficking. These will be supplemented by available quantitative data from IOM’s Migrant Management Operational System Application (MiMOSA) Counter Trafficking Module (CTM) on trafficking and data held by partners working alongside IOM. Ethical considerations remain paramount throughout this study, from the design stage through to dissemination. An Ethical Protocol has been drawn up from a compilation of ethical guidance documents (see below) and continues to evolve alongside the research.

SHARED LEARNING EVENTS

Prior to commencing the qualitative and quantitative aspects of this study, Shared Learning Events (SLEs) were held in each country as the first step in ascertaining what was already known about trafficking and to explore contextually-based considerations for conducting research on this topic.

At the Viet Nam SLE thirty-one stakeholders from civil society organisations and government agencies, such as law-enforcement, children services, and health services participated in the first day of the SLE (see Appendix 2). These stakeholders were invited to provide presentations addressing the key research aims and questions, helping to ensure that local knowledge was incorporated into the research study at an early stage. These presentations considered the picture of human trafficking within Viet Nam, patterns of human trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK and factors that shape ‘vulnerability’ to trafficking. During the second day, a smaller group were invited to discuss research design, methodologies, ethics when conducting the research and the design of interview schedules to be used for data collection within the UK and Viet Nam research team.

VIET NAM CONTEXT

Viet Nam has a population of approximately 93.4 million (Human Development Report, 2016) and is transitioning from a centralized state-led economy to a market economy following economic reform and liberalization in 1986 under 'Doi Moi'. The history of migration within and from Viet Nam is lengthy and complex and this report and attached timeline looks at this history in depth, noting key political events as well as legislation, policies and other key events relating to human trafficking and migration more broadly.

KEY THEMES ARISING OUT OF THE VIET NAM SHARED LEARNING EVENT

A range of relevant key themes and learning points emerged out of the Viet Nam SLE and these preliminary themes will now help shape the subsequent research. This intentionally descriptive report relates solely to Viet Nam, which will be followed up with a final report addressing research aims across all three source countries in early 2019.

Issues arose around: risks and vulnerabilities; forms of exploitation; support services; the extent, nature and impact of stigma and discrimination against victims of trafficking; and, issues related to data protection plus the collection and recording of data on human trafficking.

The first of these – risks and vulnerabilities – included discussion of:

The causes or drivers of human trafficking appeared to be broad, multiple and overlapping. A number of factors across the different levels of the IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model influenced an individual's decisions and motivations to migrate. Those highlighted during the SLE included poverty, economic hardship, low levels of education, norms that enabled forced marriage arrangements and limited options for safe and legal migration.

The 'transition' from a centralized state-led economy to a market economy is intrinsically linked to migration and human trafficking. Social changes as a result of this transition have impacted on the drivers and dynamics of migration.

Regional dynamics involving cases of cross-border human trafficking were better understood and prioritized over the routes from Viet Nam to the UK. A number of participants suggested that regional issues are considered more important than trafficking beyond the region. This is unsurprising given that 91% of trafficking 'victims' detected in East Asia and the Pacific involved either domestic (22%) or sub-regional (69%) cases (UNODC, 2017:106). Overall, it appeared that the experience of those arriving into the UK was less well known or understood within Viet Nam.

There was an impression amongst participants at the SLE that trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK is uncommon. There was also an impression that incidents of trafficking occurred due to inaccurate information provided to family members.

Places of origin for trafficking cases and the overall geography of human trafficking within Viet Nam affects all 63 provinces with an extensive range of places of origin discussed. Across the SLE, participants reiterated the geographical range of trafficking cases.

It was suggested that families collect financial resources, sell assets and take out loans to fund the migration of individual members, with payments sometimes made in installments for their journey to reduce risks of not reaching final destinations. It was also considered that those who reach the UK earn high wages, are given considerable support and freedom. This is an area that remains under-explored.

Journeys that begin based on rational decision making, hope and promises of employment, transport and housing opportunities can become fragmented journeys towards 'vulnerability', precarity and exploitation. There is reportedly a considerable amount of hope associated with migration from Viet Nam and risks taken are considered to be worthwhile. In cases reported during the SLE, there was an assumption that these journeys then become exploitative en-route.

Recruitment methods were varied and ever changing. It was considered that the use of social media was a key recruitment method for trafficking alongside previous recruitment methods within close family or close social ties.

In relation to forms of exploitation:

The forms of exploitation are multiple. For adults these included: sexual exploitation: forced labour (including for mineral extraction in Lao PDR, the fishing industry in Thailand and factory work elsewhere); forced marriages (also referred to as 'fake marriages'); seasonal employment; organ harvesting; work on cannabis production and multiple forms of exploitation (for example, sexual exploitation and begging). For children the purposes included: sexual exploitation; fake adoption; child abductions and infant trafficking (see also IOM, 2017:52); and multiple forms of exploitation (for example, work in nail bars and sexual exploitation). For both adults and children, multiple forms of exploitation were outlined as common but under-researched.

In relation to support services:

There is little understanding of the causes of trafficking for men and boys and their support needs. This in some part reflects how the trafficking of women and girls is more prominent in a regional sense. This is significant for this research as there are a high proportion of male Vietnamese nationals referred into the UK NRM. The lack of support services for men and boys in Vietnam increases the difficulties of accessing men and boys as a sample for this research. A focus of support for women and children was apparent from discussions.

In terms of the nature and impact of stigma and discrimination against victims of trafficking:

The issue of social stigma and discrimination as a result of trafficking were considered to be an issue and were gendered. For example, girls returning were said to receive no support from their communities whereas boys could sometimes be supported and cherished on their return.

Children were also stigmatized. Examples were provided of children being considered "bad" as a result of their trafficking experiences and being used as examples to others.

There appears to be a perception amongst a few agencies that victims of trafficking are 'lazy', interested only in 'material wealth' and wanting an 'easy life' so are in some way enticed by those promising riches and employment overseas. Such terms add to the existing social stigma associated with trafficking.

Issues related to data protection and collection included:

Data protection, confidentiality and anonymity were under-regarded in practice.

It appears that there is little emphasis given to data protection, confidentiality and anonymity for people who have experienced trafficking across a broad range of sectors within Viet Nam, including within media reports.

Statistics for trafficking could be improved. A number of Ministries release statistics and presentation of statistics over differing time frames. This meant that from the presentations at the SLE that it was difficult to quantify cases of human trafficking in Viet Nam. Further work to centralize and improve statistics would be beneficial.

There appears to be a gap between the number of Vietnamese nationals referred into the UK NRM and the numbers of people accessing support service for trafficked persons in Viet Nam.

The term 'good practice' requires further definition and debate. As with other countries included in this study, there was no consensus as to what 'good practice' might look like in human trafficking work. It was clear from the SLE that there were pockets of what might be described as 'good practice'. However, these pockets were not well known, were not discussed or amplified in any way and did not appear to have been evaluated. This is linked to discussions about methods of measuring effectiveness and is an area requiring further thought and reflection.

Finally, it was clear that further research is necessary to explore gaps and key themes not elaborated upon during the SLE. These include the issue of victims' agency and the relationship of this to vulnerability of capabilities; further research on forced labour and other non-sexual types of exploitation; and the relationship between human trafficking and statelessness, particularly within ethnic minority area.

KEY MESSAGES

This intentionally descriptive report details the first stages of an ethically-led, two-year research study into understanding the causes, dynamics and 'vulnerabilities' to human trafficking in three source countries – Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria – conducted in partnership between the University of Bedfordshire and the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The study also seeks to improve understanding of the support needs of people from these three countries who arrive into the UK having experienced trafficking.

The focus of this report is on Viet Nam, describing the context of Viet Nam, presentations given during a Shared Learning Event (SLE) held in Hanoi between 6-7 December 2017 and emerging themes from these presentations and workshops held during this event. These preliminary themes will help shape subsequent qualitative research with people who have experienced trafficking and key informants who work closely with them. This qualitative research will ultimately be supplemented by quantitative data extraction from IOM's centrally and locally held databases on trafficking and/or data held by partners working alongside IOM.

The key themes emerging from the Viet Nam SLE related to risks and vulnerabilities; forms of exploitation; support services; the extent, nature and impact of stigma and discrimination against victims of trafficking; and, issues related to data protection plus the collection and recording of data on human trafficking.

The focus of this research study is on trafficking from Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria and the SLE was designed to enable discussion about trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK. However, it became clear early on at the SLE that there is limited knowledge about trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK and/or of support for victims of trafficking in Viet Nam who had previously experienced trafficking to the UK. This report begins to fill these gaps and the subsequent research will continue this endeavour.

People are 'trafficked'¹ for a range of reasons, including for the purposes of sexual and labour exploitation, domestic servitude and a range of other exploitative practices. Since 2010, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has been mandated to produce reports on trafficking of people. Their 2016 global report outlined how sexual exploitation and forced labour had been found to be the most common forms of exploitation among identified victims with other forms such as begging, forced marriages, organ removal and the production of pornography becoming increasingly apparent².

Global concerns about human trafficking during the 1990s led to the UN General Assembly adopting the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime in November 2000,

¹ The use of inverted commas around terms in this report have been minimised to enable ease of reading. However, it should be noted that many terms used herein are contested and continue to be debated, including the term 'trafficking' itself, the recent use of the term 'modern slavery', 'vulnerability', 'capacity' and the use of the terms 'victim' and 'survivor' to describe a person who has experienced 'trafficking'.

supplemented by an additional protocol – the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children – widely referred to as the Palermo Protocol 2000. This protocol provided the first internationally agreed and most used definition of trafficking which states that:

‘... “Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, 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 of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, 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.’

This definition contains three interrelated yet distinct elements, the ‘act’ (recruitment, transportation and transfer), the ‘means’ (use of violence, threats or other use of force or coercion) and the ‘purposes’ (a range of forms of exploitation).

Since the late 1990s, the estimated global prevalence of trafficking based on this definition has been fervently debated, particularly in relation to the lack of empirical evidence for statistics cited (Laczko and Gramegna, 2003; Salt, 2000; Tyldum, 2010). Global estimates of ‘modern slavery’ for forced labour and forced marriage have been produced by the International Labour Organization and Walk Free Foundation in partnership with IOM, providing an estimate of 40.3 million victims of modern slavery worldwide in 2016 (Alliance 8.7, 2017). These estimates help inform steps towards the achievement of Target 8.7 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of eradicating modern slavery, forced labour and trafficking around the world. The lack of reliable global statistics or the uncritical use of estimates are key limitations to understanding human trafficking (Mugge, 2017). Furthermore, most knowledge about trafficking is based on people who receive assistance rather than those who decline or avoid support (Brunovskis and Surtees, 2007; Tyldum, 2010).

The Palermo Protocol was signed by the UK in December 2000, coming into force in February 2006. The UK also ratified the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking which became operational from April 2009. The UK government created a National Referral Mechanism (NRM) to comply with Article 10 of the Council of Europe Convention. The NRM is the framework by which people are formally identified as victims of human trafficking and referred to specialist support.

In 2015 the Modern Slavery Act gained Royal Assent in the United Kingdom. This Act made provisions to address slavery, servitude and forced or compulsory labour as well as human trafficking. It further put in place mechanisms for the protection of those identified as victims of trafficking and established the role of an Independent Anti-Slavery Commissioner. Under this Act, human trafficking is considered an offence if somebody arranges or facilitates the travel of another person for the purposes of exploitation; travel meaning arriving into, travelling within and departing from any country. There are distinctions between the Palermo Protocol and the UKs Modern Slavery Act. For example, Section 2 of the Modern Slavery Act adds detail around the exchange or control of individuals who have experienced trafficking. It is more explicit about trafficking within a country, something which is commonly referred to as ‘internal trafficking’. The Modern Slavery Act also provides for the prosecution of those who have enslaved or exploited individuals in the UK even if it is difficult to prove any form of travel.

In March 2017 Amber Rudd, the Home Secretary of the UK government, announced the first Modern Slavery Innovation Fund investment in 10 projects to tackle modern slavery around the world. This was in line with the UK government commitment to achieving the SDGs Target 8.7 outlined above. The 10 awards involved work in source countries to

² The 2016 UNODC report provides a figure of 63,251 victims detected in 106 countries between 2012 and 2014. Of these, figures for 2014 – 17,752 victims detected in 85 countries – have been utilised to consider the profile of victims and trends in the forms of exploitation, profile of traffickers and trafficking flows.

reduce vulnerability to exploitation, support victims and improve the evidence-base³. On 19 September 2017 the UK Prime Minister made a Call to Action to End Forced Labour, Modern Slavery and Human Trafficking at the 72nd Meeting of the UN General Assembly, reflecting the political commitments of 37 Member and Observer States to achieve this same Target 8.7.

This research explicitly seeks to understand what causes and creates vulnerability to trafficking. Spaces for vulnerability to trafficking and the vulnerabilities of people who have been trafficked have been the subject of previous studies but much less is known of the capacities⁴ of people who have experienced trafficking or examples of good practice in human trafficking work. This study seeks to address this gap, looking at contextually-based vulnerabilities/risk factors and capacities/protective factors across Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria. The study also seeks to improve understanding of the support needs of people from these three countries who arrive into the UK having experienced trafficking, focusing on 'good practice' where found.

The term trafficking is used throughout as 'modern slavery' was not a recognized term within Viet Nam at this point in time.

This research study focuses on Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria as during both 2015 and 2016, these three countries were the top three referral countries of origin (excluding the UK) into the NRM. Total numbers of people referred into the NRM from these three countries and the UK as potential trafficked persons during 2015 and 2016 are presented below:

Table 1: Top Country of Origin NRM Referrals for 2015 and 2016

Country	Number of adults referred to the NRM in 2015	Number of children referred to the NRM in 2015	Total 2015	Number of adults referred to the NRM in 2016	Number of children referred to the NRM in 2016	Total 2016	Change 2015 to 2016 (Total)
Albania	394	206	600	472	227	699	+99
Viet Nam	230	248	478	292	227	519	+41
Nigeria	214	43	257	200	43	243	-14
UK	64	127	191	71	255	326	+135

This study seeks to provide rich and nuanced accounts of human trafficking from these countries to help understand the complexities of root causes of human trafficking and the support needs of 'victims' from these top three countries in the UK. It seeks to provide contextually-based understandings of 'vulnerabilities' in each of the three source countries.

Human trafficking is a sensitive topic to research, not only because of the moral implications of the topic, but also because of the often polarized and highly charged debates around who constitutes a 'victim' or 'survivor' of trafficking.

³ This research study is one of the ten projects awarded funding through the Modern Slavery Innovation Fund

⁴ The IOM's Determinants of Vulnerability model looks at 'vulnerabilities' and 'capacities'. Within the literature on migration there has been some work on micro-level migrant 'capabilities' as well as 'aspirations' of migrants

'Vulnerability' is a broad and often contested term and has to be understood within the context used, particularly in contexts of exploitation, human trafficking or migration more broadly (IOM, 2017). As outlined in a UNODC Issue Paper (2013), specifically on the topic of Abuse of a Position of Vulnerability (APOV), vulnerability is accepted as an integral part of the definition of trafficking. The same Issue Paper outlines how international law does not define APOV, with official guidance on the concept being ambiguous and unofficial guidance of limited usefulness. The Issue Paper notes the lack of an agreed definition of the term vulnerability but goes on to suggest its use to refer to inherent, environment or contextual factors that increase susceptibility of an individual or group to being trafficked such as human rights violations, inequality or poverty that are contextually defined:

'A multitude of factors operate to shape the context within which trafficking takes place and the capacity of the individual to respond. A genuine understanding of vulnerability will thereby almost always require situation-specific analysis.' (UNODC, 2013:14)

It is of note that the Global Compact on Migration signed on 11 July 2018 has a specific objective – Objective 7 – to address and reduce vulnerabilities in migration. Notably, previous language on 'vulnerable migrants' has shifted within the Final Draft to 'migrants who face situations of vulnerability' within this objective. The specific objective also details how these situations of vulnerability may arise from circumstances during travel or conditions in countries of origin, transit and destination.

Within studies of human rights, Bryan Turner has suggested that the concept of human vulnerability is universal to all. He suggested that this vulnerability 'defines our humanity and is the common basis of human rights' (Turner, 2006:1), that rights are enjoyed by individuals 'by virtue of being human – and as a consequence of their shared vulnerability' and human frailty (Ibid., 2006:3). Turner's ideas of universal and embodied vulnerability have been challenged by some who consider that vulnerability is more about power relations and is specific to cultural and historical contexts rather than having universal application (Ibid., 2006).

In the context of migration, IOM defines vulnerability as:

'The diminished capacity of an individual or group to have their rights respected, or to cope with, resist or recover from exploitation, or abuse... [and] ... the presence or absence of factors or circumstances that increase the risk or exposure to, or protect against, exploitation, or abuse.' (IOM, 2016)

Within trafficking debates and discourses, vulnerability is linked to socio-economic constraints more than civil and political rights. There is considerable critique of the way in which those who have experienced trafficking are viewed through lenses of 'victimhood' and vulnerability. Critiques are also often centred around focus on the organized crime aspects of trafficking resulting in part from the Palermo Protocol on trafficking supplementing the Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime. The Protocol's focus on women and children has been criticized for leaving the trafficking of men poorly understood and overlooked resulting in a lack of support and assistance for trafficked men.

AIMS OF RESEARCH

The aims of this research study are to:

1. Explore socio-economic and political conditions plus their contextual factors that create 'vulnerability' to adult and child trafficking in Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria
2. Utilise and refine the IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model
3. Outline routes taken from Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria to the UK
4. Review existing academic and 'grey' literature on trafficking within and from Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria
5. Explore the support needs of people who have experienced trafficking from Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria who have arrived into the UK

RESEARCH APPROACH

This research is mainly qualitative in its approach to understanding vulnerabilities and capacities of people pre, during and after trafficking. This qualitative approach places

emphasis on the complexities and 'thick descriptions' (Geertz, 1973) of this global phenomenon. It is not the intention to generalize from interviews with those who have experienced trafficking and those who work with them. Rather, it is the intention that qualitative accounts will illuminate and help explain contextual factors that create vulnerability to trafficking and capture a range and diversity of experiences.

These qualitative accounts will then be supplemented by analysis of available quantitative data within IOM's centrally and locally held databases on trafficking and/or data held by partners working alongside IOM. Whilst there are methodological limitations involved in the use of these databases (Surtees and Craggs, 2010), examination of country-specific quantitative data may help to show trends around the known causes and consequences of trafficking from the countries included in this study.

Aims 1 and 3 of the study relate to understanding why people in Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria may be vulnerable to human trafficking and how they are trafficked to the UK. Aim 2 focuses on the IOMs Determinants of Vulnerability model and how its risk and protective factors across the five different levels work in the context of cases of human trafficking. Aim 4 is a review of existing literature, both academic and 'grey' literature. A team of researchers from the University of Bedfordshire are carrying out this literature review, with Expert Researchers employed in Tirana, Hanoi and Lagos contributing. It is anticipated that the Literature Review will therefore be supplemented by an Annotated Bibliography of country-specific literature on human trafficking and good practice for Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria. Aim 5 explores the support needs of people from these countries who have arrived into the UK.

The sampling of areas and then participants is a common strategy in qualitative research (Bryman, 2012; Mason, 2002; May, 2001; Silverman, 2000). This research has been designed to ensure that sampling of participants within the four countries is purposive – in other words, participants will be interviewed strategically based on the particular context within each country to include a range and diversity of experiences. Additionally, given the clandestine nature of human trafficking, reaching people who have experienced trafficking is both sensitive and difficult, requiring a focus on building trust (Hynes, 2003, 2017; van Liempert and Bilger, 2012).

In each of the four countries a minimum of 40 face-to-face, semi-structured interviews will be carried out across a geographical, gender and sectoral range discussed during SLEs in each country:

- Minimum of 20 semi-structured interviews with people who have experienced trafficking in each country
- Minimum of 20 semi-structured interviews with key informants in each country

This will mean that a minimum of 160 semi-structured interviews will take place in total across all four countries. The interviews will be audio recorded where appropriate and fully-informed consent has been given by participants. The interviews will be fully transcribed, coded using specialist social science NVivo11 software and analysed thematically.

ETHICS

Ethical principles remain paramount within this research and ethical issues will be addressed throughout the life of this study. This includes the development of a 'living' Ethical Protocol which has and will continue to evolve and be developed in close consultation with IOM country offices in Viet Nam, Albania and Nigeria. This 'living' Ethical Protocol will document key ethical issues at each stage of the research process, including minimizing harm or potential distress to participants and maximizing benefits of participation; ensuring the informed consent of participants; plus ensuring data protection, confidentiality and anonymity. It is anticipated that contextually-based ethical issues and dilemmas raised throughout the life of the study will be discussed and documented within this 'living' Ethical Protocol which will then be published as an output of this research. This has been developed in conjunction with ethical guidelines available in this field (Refugee Studies Centre, 2007; Zimmerman and Watts, 2003).

Formal applications were made to the University of Bedfordshire two-stage ethics approval

process for research, firstly to the Institute of Applied Social Research Ethics Committee and then the University of Bedfordshire Research Ethics Committee. Ethical approval was granted at both stages, enabling this research to be undertaken. Endorsement and oversight by national bodies was also sought, with the National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) in Nigeria and the Data Protection Commissioner in Albania approving and endorsing the study. A number of suggestions following these submissions have been embedded into the study and shared with participants at each SLE.

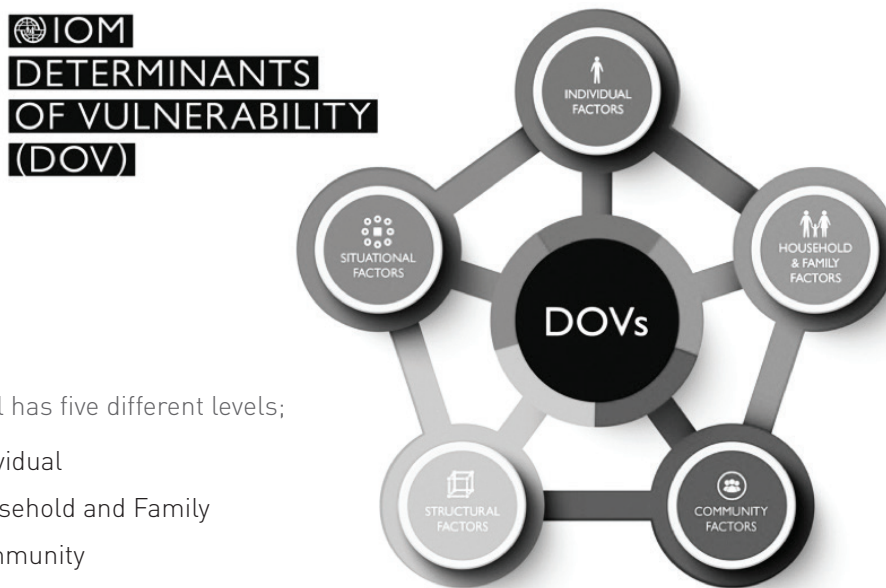
IOM'S DETERMINANTS OF VULNERABILITY MODEL

An innovative aspect of this study is the application of IOM's recently introduced Determinants of Vulnerability model. This is a model to address the protection and assistance needs of people who have experienced or are vulnerable to violence, abuse, exploitation or rights violations before, during and after migration. It is important to recognize that this model has not been specifically designed for the purpose of understanding the vulnerabilities of trafficked persons. It does however give equal consideration to understanding both what can create vulnerabilities and capabilities.

This model provides a key conceptual tool for this project to enable exploration of contextual factors at these different levels plus incorporating both the vulnerabilities and capacities of those who have experienced or are vulnerable to violence, abuse, exploitation or rights violations.

The IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model is shown below:

Figure 1: IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model⁵



This model has five different levels;

- Individual
- Household and Family
- Community
- Structural
- Situational

Within each of these five levels there are different risk and protective factors. There is no hierarchy between the levels and different risk and protective factors. The risks factors are those that increase vulnerability – or create space for vulnerabilities to emerge. The protective factors are those which build resilience against vulnerability. IOM recognizes resilience as the capacity to avoid, resist, cope with, or recover from violence, exploitation, abuse, and/or rights violations.

⁵The IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model is still being developed and refined by IOM. The model presented at the SLE and in this report remains subject to change.

Others have described 'resilience' at an individual level as meaning individuals' abilities in being able to deal with past traumatic or stressful circumstances, being able to withstand present difficult circumstances and having the capacity to recover and develop coping skills for their future (Luthar, 2003; Rutter, 2007). Newman (2004) argues that it is never too late to build resilience. How people cope in adversity (Colson, 1991) and the non-linear process of building resilience will be explored throughout the research. Resilience at community or more structural levels relates to systems or mechanisms put in place to reduce risk.

The first level of the Determinants of Vulnerability model relates to individual and demographic characteristics, including ascribed characteristics such as gender, age or ethnicity over which the individual concerned has no control. There may also be disability, physical, sexual or mental health factors at this level.

Some individual factors can be risk factors or protective factors depending on the context. For example, being in a particular ethnic group may be a protective factor when that ethnic group is the majority but may be a risk factor when that group is a minority. However other individual factors may largely be recognized as either always being a risk or a protective factor. For example, literacy is almost always a protective factor, while illiteracy could be considered almost always as a risk factor.

The second level is the household and family level. Household and family factors can include family size, household structure, socio-economic status, migration histories, employment, livelihoods, education levels, gender norms, and family dynamics. Households and families can cause both risk and protective factors. Risk factors can include inter-personal violence between family members, households headed by a child or a single parent, and a history of unsafe migration. Protective factors may include having a supportive home environment, equitable distribution of resources and opportunities between male and female children.

The third level is the community level. In this study the relationships between people will be included, particularly those of friends, peers, acquaintances, community leaders, close and extended family members to view how these influence vulnerabilities to trafficking. The community level includes settings in which individuals interact, the local climate or acceptance levels of violence or abuse. Community factors include educational opportunities, quality of available health care and social services, livelihood and income generation opportunities, the natural environment, and social norms and behaviours. Community risk factors include practices such as early marriage or gender-based violence. Examples of protective factors include a good education system that is accessible to all, and access to good health and social welfare systems.

The fourth level is the structural level. Structural factors might enable an economic or political climate that renders – or creates space – for vulnerability to trafficking. For example, there may be social norms that support patriarchy or condone high levels of sexual, gender-based or other forms of violence and discrimination. Structural factors include those at a transnational level that will inform choices made by individuals migrating via safe or unsafe routes and mechanisms. Risk factors include conflict, marginalization and discrimination, poor governance, and weak rule of law. Protective factors include good governance and respect for human rights.

The final level is the situational. The model includes situational factors to ensure that change and deviation from 'normal circumstances' is factored into the model (IOM, 2017). This includes situations or statuses at the individual, household, community, and/or structural levels, that can change quickly, and/or in an unforeseen way, and that increase or decrease the exposure of individuals, families, and communities to violence, exploitation, abuse, and/or rights violations. This could include armed conflict, humanitarian crisis or other contexts that enable human trafficking as a result of organisational structures. These situational factors are different from factors at the individual, household, community, or structural levels because they are shorter-term, sudden, and/or unforeseen.

Within this study, concepts of vulnerability, capacity and resilience will be examined around these five levels and the complex interplay between them. However, this conceptual model may prove to be not exhaustive and therefore the study is not limited to use of the model in identifying and analyzing risk and protective factors that can create vulnerability to trafficking or build resilience against it.

The IOM model is similar to the ecological systems theory originally developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979) to explain the way in which the immediate and surrounding environment affects child development. Bronfenbrenner identified five different environmental systems where the microsystem (the immediate environment), the mesosystem (connections), the exosystem (the indirect environment), the macrosystem (social and cultural values) and the chronosystem (changes over time). These five systems each affect a child's development and if there is a change in any one of these areas, it is accepted within this theory that this affects and influences the other systems. The chronosystem adds a useful dimension to this theory – time – which captures change and continuities in the environment. In this report key political events within Viet Nam are incorporated to illustrate this aspect of the model. Bronfenbrenner's theory was further developed by Belsky (1993) who applied this to child maltreatment, particularly physical abuse and neglect. Belsky also outlined a variety of contexts within which maltreatment could occur including the immediate environment and broader context of the community.

This ecological model which outlines different nested spheres of influence is most often represented as concentric circles showing the different levels - the individual, family and relationship, community and societal levels. Each of these levels are interrelated, with the interaction between them and influence of each level analysed. The model has also been applied to youth violence (Krug et al., 2002), violence against women (Moreno et al., 2015), violence against children (UNICEF, n.d.) and sexual violence (Heise, 1998). This body of work has shifted thinking around differing forms of abuse and violence from single-cause models to more multifaceted models that emphasize interacting factors and such nested-ecological models. These models also recognize that risk and protective factors may change over the life course. Applying this to human trafficking, Zimmerman et al. (2016) suggest this ecological framework allows for larger contextual forces to be considered alongside attributes and behaviours of people who have experienced migration and labour exploitation. They suggest that this framework:

'... is often the starting point from which a researcher or program planner will delve deeper to identify more specific multi-level risk and protective factors.'
(Zimmerman et al., 2016:17)

They also point out that at the individual, family and community levels there is a potential role for 'community migration norms' to be considered, wherein common practices around migration that influence and 'lend confidence' to individuals considering their migration options (Zimmerman et al., 2016:17). Beyond these levels, the authors suggest that structural and contextual factors such as government policies, global inequalities, conflict and crisis situations underlie issues faced by migrants and, as such, remain central and essential areas for action for change over time (Zimmerman et al., 2016:7). The requirement for an integrated approach which incorporates these structural and community strategies is advocated.

A key part of this study has been the design and delivery of SLEs across the three countries of origin. The structure of these events emerged out of an iterative process between the UK research team, IOM UK and Points of Contact (PoC) in IOM Viet Nam, IOM Albania and IOM Nigeria, plus Expert Researchers employed for the purposes of this study. The aims of these SLEs were multiple. Day 1 of these events (see Appendix 1) focused on bringing together relevant stakeholders from civil society organisations, government agencies, law-enforcement, children's services, health services and academia involved in working with people identified as trafficked to:

- Share what is already known about trafficking from the source countries (observed trends, patterns, origin communities, destination locations, numbers, profiles) with an additional focus on the UK as a destination country
- Explore contextually-based vulnerabilities and resilience relating to human trafficking

- Share what is already known about trafficking from the source countries (observed trends, patterns, origin communities, destination locations, numbers, profiles) with an additional focus on the UK as a destination country
- Explore contextually-based vulnerabilities and resilience relating to human trafficking
- Explore what good practice exists to address these vulnerabilities and strengthen resilience against trafficking
- Ensure this knowledge from each country is incorporated into the research from the outset
- Hear presentations from a range of stakeholders on topics relating to the aims of this study
- Develop a timeline of key political events and key events relating to human trafficking and/or migration
- Hold workshops on vulnerability, resilience and good practice in relation to the IOM Determinants of Vulnerability factors

Day 1 of the Viet Nam SLE was structured to provide space to discuss these points within three sessions of presentations and then workshops on vulnerability, resilience and good practice. The three presentation sessions were entitled:

1. The picture of human trafficking in Viet Nam
2. Patterns of human trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK
3. What factors shape vulnerability to and capacities against human trafficking in Viet Nam?

The aim of the SLE was to focus on knowledge around human trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK. However, at the SLE it became clear that there are distinct narratives around regional trafficking within Southeast Asia to such as China and Cambodia and a considerably smaller, less well-informed narrative around human trafficking to the UK. Overall, it appeared that the experience of those being trafficked from Viet Nam to the UK was less well known or understood within Viet Nam as a result of this phenomenon being significantly smaller in scale compared to trafficking from Viet Nam to neighbouring countries. Therefore, while Viet Nam has been one of the most significant source countries for potential victims of trafficking in the UK for a number of years it appears that within the country there is limited knowledge and understanding about the UK as a destination country.

Day 2 of the SLE in Hanoi focused on the research project and how the country-specific presentations from Day 1 related to the study. The co-design and refinement of research tools for the study took place on Day 2 and contextually-, age- and language-appropriate tools were designed and refined as a result.

There was also a strong focus on ensuring the study was led at all times by ethical considerations. Existing ethical guidelines were explored (Refugee Studies Centre, 2007; Zimmerman, 2003). Key aspects of an Ethical Protocol such as informed consent, the issue of harm, confidentiality, anonymity and data protection were discussed and agreements made about ongoing feedback into this 'living' protocol for the duration of the study. This Ethical Protocol will ultimately form one output of this research study, providing country-specific ethical considerations for conducting research on human trafficking within each source country.

Considerations of the quantitative aspects of this study were also considered during Day 2 with discussions centring on the availability of quantitative data and case management processes. Day 2 also enabled discussions around translation and interpretation questions. The establishment of systems to securely record, translate, password-protect and store data enabled broader discussions around Data Protection in each context to be explored. As will be discussed in the Ethical Protocol, data protection is either not legislated for or implemented within Albania, Viet Nam and Nigeria. It was, however, a topic considered by many participants of the SLEs to be key to accessing victims of trafficking within each country. Safeguarding concerns, and the limits of confidentiality, were subject to wide-reaching discussions during these events and, again, will be detailed within the Ethical

Protocol at country-specific levels. Given all of the above considerations and following discussions during Day 1, purposive sampling strategies were devised for key informants and adults who have experienced trafficking for each country.

Overall, the SLEs were an investment in building trust about the research project across a broad range of stakeholders within each country. From this foundation, relationships will be developed further throughout the life of this research project.

Viet Nam has a population of approximately 93.4 million (Human Development Report, 2016) and according to the Human Development Index (HDI) is ranked 115th out of 188 countries⁶. According to the 2016 Human Development Report, a Vietnamese national has a life expectancy rate of 75.9 years, can expect 12.6 years of schooling and has a \$5,335 per capita Gross National Income (GNI). Inflows of remittances as a share of GDP were 5.8% in 2016 (World Bank, 2016)⁷.

Gender (in)equality for Viet Nam, measured by the Gender Development Index (GDI) was 1.010 in 2016 which puts Viet Nam in group 1⁸, suggesting high levels of equality within the country. According to the 2014 Global Status Report on Violence Prevention, Viet Nam has National Action Plans across a range of forms of potential violence – interpersonal violence, youth violence, sexual violence, child maltreatment, intimate partner violence and elder abuse. The 2014 report details how Viet Nam has fully enforced child maltreatment laws against child marriage, statutory rape, female genital mutilation (FGM) and a ban on corporal punishment in all settings. Youth violence laws against the use of weapons on school premises and against gang or criminal group membership are recorded as fully enforced. Intimate partner violence (IPV) laws against rape in marriage are recorded to be fully enforced, although IPV laws do not allow for the removal of a violent spouse from the home. All sexual violence laws against rape, contact and non-contact sexual violence also have full enforcement recorded. Structurally these records of full enforcement are important in understanding the context within which trafficking in Viet Nam occurs.

EXISTING LITERATURE ON HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND VIET NAM

Within the literature on human trafficking within and from Viet Nam, gender and age are both identified as significant in relation to vulnerability. Although there is a strong focus on the trafficking of women and girls for sexual exploitation, the literature on human trafficking from Viet Nam tends to acknowledge the experiences of men and boys to a greater extent than in other contexts (Kiss et al, 2015). There is a growing body of literature relating to men and boys working in the commercial fishing industry, but also in agriculture, factory work and agriculture (Kiss et al, 2015; Pocock et al, 2016). Women are also trafficked for forced labour, for example in domestic work (Shelley, 2010).

The literature emphasizes the role of economic factors as fundamental to the vulnerability of victims of human trafficking. Poverty continues to be a significant issue, especially in rural areas (Hoang Le, 2017). While there has been economic growth leading to improvements in literacy rates and communications, these developments are also associated with new uncertainties and a shifting in social statuses and gender relationships (World Bank, 2011). There is extensive evidence relating to the large numbers of migrant Vietnamese workers, who are vulnerable to trafficking by virtue of their insecure status, work conditions and lack of up to date documentation (Zimmerman, McAlpine and Kiss, 2016).

⁶ The index runs between 1 and 188 with Norway ranking first (ranked 1) and the Central African Republic last (ranked 188). The HDI is informed by Amartya Sen's pioneering work on poverty as 'the deprivation of basic capabilities' (Sen, 1999:87) or 'capability approach' to examining human development (Burchardt and Hick, 2016:25). Sen's central argument being that the expansion of freedom is the primary end and principal means of development rather than a focus on economic growth or GDP. This approach compares levels of education, health and standard of living across countries, emphasizing that people and their capabilities should be the ultimate criteria for assessing the development of a country.

⁷ Viewed on 6 February 2018 at: data.worldbank.org/indicator/BX.TRF.PWKR.DT.GD.ZS?locations=AL

⁸ The GDI runs from 1 to 5, with 1 denoting high and 5 denoting low levels of gender equality.

As with Albania and Nigeria, there is a history of regional and international migration in Viet Nam that plays an important structural role. Indeed, migration as an economic strategy has been encouraged by government (Phuong and Venkatesh, 2015) with guest worker programmes that recruit Vietnamese workers potentially carrying specific risks through their methods of recruitment and absence of worker protection (Belanger, 2014). The literature also attests to the strong tradition of marriage migration within the region, which also has parallels with the experience of trafficking (Belanger, 2014). Belanger (op cit) argues that the Vietnamese state has played a key role in setting the economic conditions for trafficking to occur; similarly, Vijayarasa (2010) suggests that a history of highly centralised state intervention means that a political discourse where sex work is defined as a 'social evil' has a disproportionate impact on the stigmatisation of trafficking victims, affecting reintegration attempts.

Structurally, but also at the level of the community and household, there is evidence that gender inequality is a significant vulnerability factor in human trafficking. Vijayarasa (2010) reports that other examples of gender inequality include high rates of domestic violence, son-preference and women's limited decision-making power at household level. Although the GDI as outlined above suggests a high level of equality, Vietnamese culture is identified in the literature as patriarchal, with roots in Confucian belief systems. These belief systems place a high premium on sons providing economically, but also as having higher status and providing more social capital (Long, 2015). For women, there may be a tension between the stigma and shame associated with sex work, but also increased status associated with providing economic support for families.

An absence of research that includes the views of individuals who have been trafficked limits insight into the situational factors that change individual circumstances that might propel them into trafficking.

TIMELINE FOR VIET NAM

Research on migration is often ahistoric (Malkki, 1995) and to ensure this research captures the historical, structural and situational factors that may impact and influence the occurrence of human trafficking, a timeline of key political events, key events relating to human trafficking and migration more broadly was created before and during the SLE. Learning about historical and potential structural and situational risk and protective factors in this research is considered important, particularly as it is expected that the interviews with key informants and people who have experienced human trafficking would be focused on case work, individual experiences plus household, family and community factors. The timeline was partially drawn up by the research team prior to the SLE taking place and participants were then invited to add additional key dates onto this timeline during Day 1 of the SLE. Suggestions were made relating to what should be added as key political events, migration more broadly and dates/events relating directly to human trafficking. These suggestions included the dates of prevention campaigns, dates shelters were opened in the country, dates of key associated legislation, key prosecutions, publication of reports, examples of good practice, details of remittances and any other associated migration, labour migration or internal migration processes, events or patterns known to participants.

As can be seen on this timeline, this now includes key events relating to both migration more broadly since the mid-1940s and the introduction of actions against human trafficking since 1985 when Articles 115 and 149 of the Penal Code defined trafficking/trading in women and children with punishments of 5-20 years imprisonment (blue line). Key political events occurring in Viet Nam since the Nguyen dynasty (1802-1945) are provided for background purposes, more comprehensively detailed post-1945 when Ho Chi Minh proclaimed an independent Democratic Republic of Viet Nam (grey line). Contributions from participants are shown in the centre (pink line) and illustrates participants' suggestions of important considerations when understanding human trafficking within and from Viet Nam.

Post-1945 Viet Nam saw a period of resistance against French occupation (1946-1954), the partitioning of the country at the 17th parallel into North and South Viet Nam in 1954 and a well-known Resistance War Against America that began in 1955, culminating in an evacuation from South Viet Nam in 1975. Following a series of Five Year Plans and

economic reform and liberalization in 1986 – known as Doi Moi – Viet Nam now has membership of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the World Trade Organization (WTO). The transition from a centralized state-led economy to a market economy has resulted in signs of economic recovery notable from 2015 onwards.

HISTORY OF MIGRATION

The history of migration within and from Viet Nam is lengthy and complex, illustrated on the timeline by wide ranging but non-exhaustive details of population and refugee movements over time of millions of people. The thick blue line on the timeline reflects these displacement occurrences. Distinctions between forced and voluntary migration are not straight forward. A shift of focus from refugee movements post-1975 to a focus on human trafficking, and its prevention, occurs in the late 1980s and early 1990s. IOM's role in this shift can be seen on the timeline including a number of initiatives such as the Migrant Health Assistance programme and projects upholding the rights of migrants in Special Economic Zones (SEZ) plus, more recently, initiatives to combat exploitation in supply chains.

Of particular interest are the SLE additional entries which elaborate on Constitutional arrangements, historical labour export and cooperation agreements in countries aligned with the Soviet Union pre-1991 as well as the opening of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), For example, under the Vietnam-Soviet Labour Cooperation Agreement, an estimated 500,000 people were sent to study abroad in USSR-aligned countries between the 1980s and 1995. Post 1995, many have remained in these countries.

Both historical migration as a result of conflict and these labour export arrangements mean that Vietnamese social networks are extensive. As Silverman and Brickell (2017, citing Silverstone and Savage, 2010) noted in a report on combating the modern slavery of Vietnamese nationals en route to and within the UK:

'Vietnamese migration to the UK is by no means homogenous and is best viewed in terms of four distinct waves, each with its own particularly genealogy.' (Silverstone and Brickell, 2017:19)

These four distinct 'vintages'⁹ (Kunz, 1973, 1981) of migration are noted as being:

1. Migration of Vietnamese 'quota refugees' to the UK post-1975 through resettlement programme from South Vietnam who were then dispersed across the UK in groups of four to ten 'nuclear families', resulting in subsequent secondary migration (DalGLISH 1989; Kushner and Knox, 1999; Robinson and Hale, 1989).
2. A second migration between 1983 and 1988, then 1989 to 1995, the latter arriving under the '2000 Programme' following the Comprehensive Plan of Action (CPA) of 14 June 1989 where over 70 countries met to create new methods for dealing with Vietnamese, Lao and Khmer refugees (Courtland Robinson, 1998:127)
3. A third phase of those who were legally residing in the former Soviet Union and other parts of Eastern Europe during the late 1980s, 1990s and into the early years of the millennium. This includes Vietnamese guest workers in Germany who were isolated and impoverished after the fall of the Berlin Wall (Silverstone and Savage, 2010).
4. A fourth phase of individuals smuggled and/or trafficked from the Northern provinces and North Central Coast provinces (during the SLE the Mekong-Delta and Red River Delta provinces were also mentioned in this respect.

As will be outlined later in this report, this fourth phase involves a broader range of places of origin within Viet Nam.

As Barber (2018) notes, these different vintages of migration have had a lasting impact on the dynamics of contemporary Vietnamese communities within the UK, including amongst the second generation.

⁹ With the exception of quotations, the term 'vintages' is used within this report here rather than 'waves', 'flows' or other metaphors and terms that do not provide an accurate representation of statistics or are value laden.

Numbers of Vietnamese nationals arriving into the UK as 'quota refugees' post-1975 are dwarfed by the 1.2 million so-called Indochinese refugees – resettled in the US plus 500,000 people resettled in Canada, Australia or France (around 78% of all Indochinese refugees were accepted by four Western countries), plus around a quarter of a million Vietnamese nationals (representing 12%) who settled in southern China (Courtland Robinson, 1998:127). By 1982, some 16,000 Indochinese refugees (mainly Vietnamese) had arrived in the UK and the '2000 Programme' supplemented this number (Ibid, 1998:148).

The provision of prima facie¹⁰ refugee status ended with the CPA, with individuals 'screened-in' individually and those 'screened-out' repatriated to Vietnam. France (a former colonial power between 1958 and 1940) and Russia (historical links as above) are cited by Silverman and Brickell (2017) as the top two countries Vietnamese people pass through before arriving into the UK as 'victims' of human trafficking. Silverman and Brickell analysed the NRM case files of 63 Vietnamese nationals referred into the UK NRM as potential victims of trafficking. Of 63 case files examined in their study, 49% had travelled through Russia. Of the 63 cases, 71% had suggested that France was a 'penultimate destination before reaching the UK' (Ibid, 2017:36). Historically and structurally speaking, the long history of migration from Vietnam appears to have considerable influence over routes and destinations used up to the present day.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ANTI-TRAFFICKING LEGISLATION AND STRATEGY IN VIET NAM

The Government of Vietnam has, since 1985, defined the trafficking and trading of women and children under Articles 115 and 149 of the Penal Code. In the 1999 Penal Code, the trafficking of women and children was elaborated (in articles 119 and 120) but the full definition of human trafficking proposed within the Palermo Protocol was not included (Van Trinh, 2015). Amendments to the Penal Code in 2009 expanded trafficking offences in relation to the removal of organs but not the purposes of forced labour and labour exploitation (Van Trinh, 2015) The first specific anti-trafficking law in Viet Nam was approved in March 2011 (coming into effect at the beginning of 2012), referring to sexual exploitation, forced labour, and the removal of organs or other inhuman purposes. Also, in 2011 the Government of Viet Nam recognized the existence of 'internal' trafficking. As can be seen on the timeline, there have been National Plans of Action on the prevention of trafficking in women and children between 2004-2010 and 2011-2015, the latter shifting the focus from women and children to 'trafficking in persons'. There is now a 2016-2020 National Program Against Trafficking.

Viet Nam's accession to the Palermo Protocol occurred on 8 June 2012, with a reservation relating to paragraph 2 of Article 15 relating to the settlement of disputes between two or more State Parties.

The timeline includes a large number of entries related to anti-trafficking legislation and strategies. However, for the adoption of anti-trafficking laws and new action plans on human trafficking to be impactful they must be properly implemented in practice. Trinh suggests there may be a gap between legislation and policy and this subsequent implementation:

'Generally speaking, Vietnam currently has an anti-trafficking law that looks good on paper, with its protection regime for trafficked persons quite close to the requirements of international standards. ... [with] ... the practice of applying these 'good-looking' provisions to trafficking victims is a different story.' (Van Trinh, 2015:58)

At the SLE there was discussion around the implementation of legislation and policy in practice.

In terms of implementation, different Ministries in Viet Nam assume responsibility for different aspects of trafficking. The Ministry of Public Security (MPS) is responsible for the identification of people as trafficked as well as a duty of investigation and prosecution of traffickers. The Ministry of Defense (MoD) is responsible for receiving 'victims' at borders.

¹⁰ Prima facie refugee status refers to recognition by a state or UNHCR of refugee status on the basis of circumstances in the country of origin.

The Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MoLISA) has a role in social care and, for those who have experienced trafficking, reintegration and recovery activities. The Ministry of Justice (MoJ) reviews related laws and legislation. The Department of Social Vice Prevention and Combat (DSVP) is a unit of MoLISA, which describes its remit as including work to combat prostitution, drug control, assist victims of human trafficking and prevent and control HIV/AIDS. In respect of human trafficking their role, amongst others, is to support policies and guidance on assistance measures and standards, vocational education, job creation and 'social vices' prevention at commune, ward and district levels. The Central Vietnamese Women's Union (CVWU) is a government funded organization that works from commune to national levels and, in respect of human trafficking, is in charge of raising awareness (Van Trinh, 2015). The CVWU also run shelter/shelters for females who have experienced trafficking. There are no shelters for men or specifically for children. Other government actions include a national hotline number

According to the 2018 US Trafficking in Persons report Viet Nam is a Tier 2 country, making efforts to meet the minimum standards for eliminating trafficking. It is seen primarily as a source country of origin for trafficking, but is also considered a destination country, particularly for sexual exploitation and forced labour.

MIGRATION PROFILE

There is an intersection between human trafficking and other forms of migration and a range of other policy fields (Carling 2017, Mai 2010). Within the literature on forced migration this is sometimes termed the migration-trafficking nexus (Carling 2017, Kaye 2013). There is also a suggested link between asylum and migration, referred to as the asylum-migration nexus (Carling 2017). In both cases, the term nexus refers to sets of complex interdependencies between processes that run in parallel such as human trafficking and asylum or two phenomena such as migration and development. Anti-trafficking efforts run parallel to broader global immigration and asylum agendas which can themselves generate structural 'harms' that exacerbate vulnerability and enable exploitation (Anderson, 2012; O'Connell Davidson, 2013).

According to UNHCR statistics there were 11,000 Vietnamese Persons of Concern to UNHCR at the end of 2016, all of whom were classed as Stateless as defined under international law as persons not considered nationals by any State (UNHCR, 2017)¹¹. Globally, as at the end of 2015, some there were 313,155 refugees, 1 person in a refugee-like situation, 4,372 asylum seekers and 265 others of concern to UNHCR of Vietnamese origin (UNHCR, 2016). 300,000 Vietnamese refugees were in receipt of protection from the Government of China (UNHCR, 2016).

IOM's Viet Nam Migration Profile for 2016 highlights how approximately 6 million people exited and nearly 6 million people officially entered Viet Nam during 2016. Unofficial estimates might raise these numbers to some 9 million people – around 10% of the national population – exiting and entering the country on an annual basis (IOM, 2017). It is considered that most international departures were for livelihood purposes under fixed term contracts and self-funded migration to neighbouring countries through land borders. This latter population included a considerable percentage who 'unofficially crossed borders via overland trails' and the recognition that:

'These irregular migrants are more vulnerable and are shown to experience threats, lack of legal protection and exploitation.' (IOM, 2017:xii).

Other forms of migration include migration for study with, as outlined above, the Russian Federation receiving the highest number of Viet Nam-supported students in 2016 (722 students), followed by Australia (107), France (93) and a range of other countries including the UK (44) (IOM, 2017:xii). Self-funded students tended to study in the US (17,875 students in 2015) or Japan (38,880), New Zealand (17,222), Australia (10,282) or Canada (5,618) (IOM, 2017:xii).

International migration for marriages between Vietnamese and foreign nationals were recorded during the period between 2012 and 2016 across all 63 provinces of the country. During 2016, 16,223 Vietnamese nationals (85% female) married foreign nationals mainly in

¹¹ UNHCR Population Statistics, viewed on 14 December 2017 at: popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview

the US, Republic of Korea, Taiwan, China and Australia. Adoption by foreign nationals of 551 Vietnamese children across 46 provinces/cities were recorded in 2016. Between 2012 and 2016 this figures amounted to 2,312 cases, mainly between the ages of 1 and 5 years and slightly higher rates for girls than boys (IOM, 2017:xiii). Destinations for these adopted children ranged from France receiving the highest number, to Italy, Taiwan, Spain, Canada, Republic of Korea, Ireland, Sweden, Germany and Denmark.

Between 2008 and 2016, there were 3,897 detected cases of human trafficking in Viet Nam (IOM, 2017:xiii). Also between this period 6,188 traffickers and 8,366 'survivors' of trafficking were detected, of which 85% were women and children (IOM, 2017:xiii). The majority of transnational cases – nearly 90% - involved movement across the bordering countries of Cambodia, China (70%) and Lao PDR. These cases presented a more complex and diverse picture than in previous years, with sexual exploitation and forced marriage making up most cases but trafficking in infants, fetuses and the removal of organs becoming known. Between 2012 and 2016, around 1,000 people per year are considered to be known 'survivors' of trafficking, with unofficial numbers of those who choose not to disclose or report their experiences considered to be much higher. All 63 provinces/cities of Viet Nam have identified cases of trafficking between 2012 and 2016 (IOM, 2017:xiii).

The Government of Viet Nam support a number of different forms of migration:

'The Government of Viet Nam has instituted numerous policies and programmes to support and promote international labour migration and overseas study, as well as create supportive conditions for marriages to foreign nationals and child adoption in compliance with international legislation.' (IOM, 2017:xiv)

These policies provide a framework within which migration more broadly is supported.

In terms of trafficking, there is a suggestion that varied data sources fail to capture an accurate picture of trafficking cases and 'survivors' in Viet Nam (IOM, 2017:48; see also statistics presented during the SLE in December 2018 later in this report). However, figures cited above – 3,897 cases of human trafficking, 6,188 cases of traffickers detection and 8,366 'survivors' of trafficking detected between 2008 and 2016 – are supplemented with other data from 2008 up to mid-2013 (IOM Migration Profile, 2017:49) which outlines 2,390 detected cases of which 2,293 were cross border and 97 internal cases. Again, cross-border trafficking to China made up the majority of cases detected (72%). Most cases related to 'sex work' (58.2%), 'forced marriage' (16.7%), 'other purposes' (16.7%) and a low percentage 'forced labour' (0.5%).

Ethnic minorities feature heavily in available statistics. For example, between 2008 and mid-2013, 56.3% of trafficking 'survivors' were from the majority Kinh group and 43.7% were from ethnic minorities.

Between 2013 and 2017, 2,133 Vietnamese nationals were referred into the UK NRM as potential victims of trafficking. Viet Nam has long been recognized as a significant source country of trafficking in the UK. It is therefore striking that the UK does not feature as a destination country in the national statistics on victims of trafficking from Viet Nam.

A larger narrative around human trafficking in Viet Nam is focused on cross-border trafficking to China, Cambodia and Lao PDR for a range of exploitative purposes as well as to Thailand, Malaysia, Korea and Taiwan.

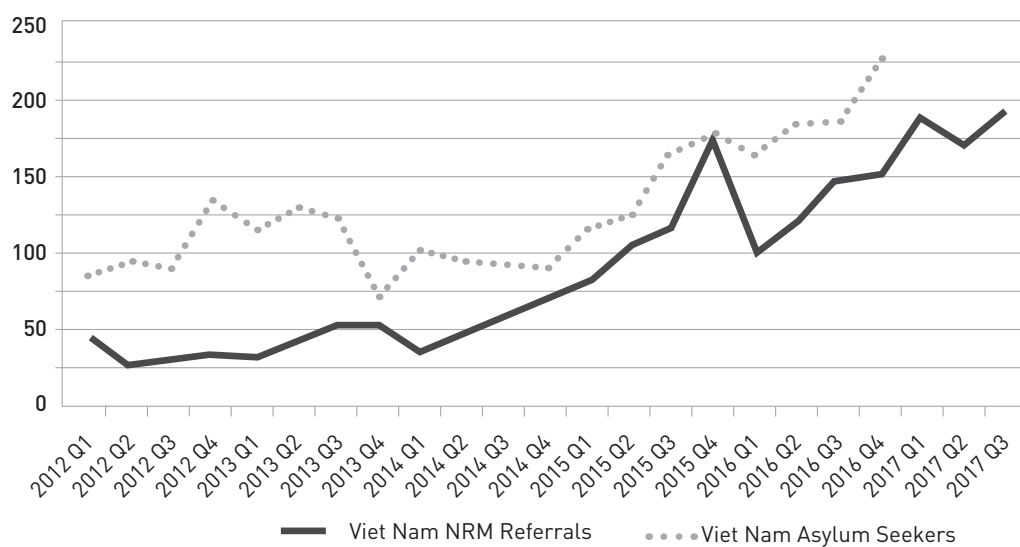
VIETNAMESE IN THE UK

Within the UK, the Vietnamese community is a fairly invisible community that due to its small size has not previously made it 'into the public consciousness' (Sims, 2007; see also Barber, 2015). Given recent, and sometimes sensational, media coverage of Vietnamese nationals working to cultivate cannabis and/or work in nail-bars, this may now be changing. These media snapshots capture specific moments in time around the issue of trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK, ignoring the broader history of past movement to the UK for humanitarian reasons. As Barber (2015) suggests, members of the Vietnamese community have experienced dealing with very contradictory images – of both invisibility and hypervisibility – around these negative images in contrast to 'success' stories. Barber also outlines how these media images affect new arrivals, particularly due to the restrictive immigration environment within the UK which forces people into destitution

and subsequent need to make difficult choices. Most recent arrivals therefore employ different strategies to earlier arrivals.

As outlined above, there have been distinct ‘vintages’ of migration from Viet Nam to the UK, plus applications for asylum from Vietnamese nationals. Applications for asylum in the UK from Vietnamese nationals continue to this day. These are shown below in Graph 1 and, as can be seen, numbers of referrals through the NRM are lower than the number of asylum applications, with a very small difference during a peak in referrals to the NRM during the fourth quarter of 2015. In this fourth quarter of 2015 there were 174 referrals of adult and child Vietnamese nationals to the NRM and 177 applications for asylum. There was another peak in NRM referrals during the first quarter of 2017. However, it should be noted that of these NRM referrals and asylum applications, most do not lead to positive identification outcomes. Between 2009 and 2016 only 27% of Vietnamese nationals referred into the NRM received a positive conclusive grounds decision. (National Audit Office, 2017: p32)

Graph 1: Viet Nam NRM Referrals and Asylum Applications (by Quarter)



Source: Gov.UK National Statistics, National Crime Agency adult and minor NRM referral statistics.

Within the UK, Vietnamese victims of trafficking do not form a ‘particular social group within the meaning of the 1951 UN Convention relating to the Status of Refugees:

This is because although they share an immutable (or innate) characteristic – having been a victim of trafficking – that cannot be changed, in view of their equality under the law and the general availability of state protection against trafficking, they are not perceived as different and do not have a distinct identity in Vietnamese society.’ (Home Office, 2016:5)

Further exploration of this is due to take place in subsequent qualitative interviews.

'Today's event provides an invaluable opportunity for leading counter human trafficking partners to explore and expand our understanding on vulnerability to human trafficking in Viet Nam. ... This event is attended by familiar faces who regularly engage in the Viet Nam Counter Trafficking Network which provides a platform for openly and proactively sharing information on counter trafficking issues and activities...' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

'We know this region has historically created solutions to migration situations such as Orderly Departure programmes many years ago. ... It is likely there are many examples of good practice happening now and we can think about what really works in this field.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

Thirty-two participants attended Day 1 of the SLE in Hanoi. This included stakeholders from government officials, civil society organisations, law-enforcement, children and health services. Attendees included high level officials in government departments as well as those working closely with people who had experienced trafficking through the provision of direct assistance. Presentations were delivered by people from those sectors following opening remarks by IOM and the University of Bedfordshire.

Day 1 of the SLEs was structured to provide an overview of the picture of human trafficking, patterns of trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK and consideration of what factors shape vulnerability to trafficking. These are now addressed in turn.

VIET NAM: THE PICTURE OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING

'Human trafficking is not only about women and children, but men, new-born babies and organs' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

'Human trafficking is profitable business. There is a clear division of rich and poor in our society. It is easy to cheat and deceive them into human trafficking.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

The first presentation by the Ministry of Public Security (MPS) began with the presentation of statistics. Within Vietnam, since 2011 there have been 2,000 cases of 'trafficking' in persons and 6,100 cases of 'smuggling' which represent a 10% increase in cases compared to previous periods. It was suggested that criminals capitalise on the economic hardship of people and go on to deceive them.

Human trafficking was outlined as being complex, sophisticated and transnational, affecting all 63 provinces of Viet Nam. There was a further suggestion that victims of trafficking were considered to be from larger cities in northern Viet Nam, plus from the South and Central Highland regions.

A range of purposes were outlined, which included sexual exploitation, forced labour, 'fake marriages', organ harvesting as well as seasonal employment.

Some 75% of cases of known trafficking cases relate to cross-border movement from Viet Nam to China, 10% of smuggling cases to Cambodia and an unspecified percentage to Lao PDR where criminals were said to capitalise on a special relationship existing between Viet Nam and Lao PDR, particularly for exploitation related to mineral extraction and forced marriage. From Lao PDR, subsequent movements to third countries such as Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore were outlined.

It was also outlined how Viet Nam was a transit country for Chinese women en-route to South Korea, Malaysia and Singapore within the region plus France, Germany, Russia, Australia, some African countries and the UK beyond Southeast Asia. Cambodian nationals were stated as being trafficked to Nghe An.

In respect of trafficking to the UK, it was suggested that most Vietnamese cases were males from the north of Viet Nam working in forced labour, cannabis cultivation and nail bars. Routes described for this population were by flight to Eastern Europe and then subsequent travel through Europe to France and then the UK. A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) between Viet Nam and the UK is under discussion.

It was suggested that there were lots of Vietnamese workers travelling to multiple countries for employment and that those with criminal records utilised these networks for their own purposes:

'They may have criminal records and there is an expanding network of cheating and deceiving. Some of the criminals are Chinese, South Korean, Taiwanese and Malaysian and they smuggle Vietnamese abroad.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

Victims of trafficking in this instance were considered to be both mostly poor, from urban areas, without stable employment combined with 'poor living skills', considered 'lazy' and thus easily cheated to work in the sex industry.

A recurrent theme throughout the day related to the issue of people who had experienced trafficking in the past now taking on the roles of traffickers:

'Some criminals were victims who have now become criminals.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

Although a specific percentage of people this related to was unclear, debates about trafficked individuals shifting to become involved in trafficking was revisited several times.

Government actions to date were noted. Queries around the rise of human trafficking despite these actions – such as the revised laws, stronger punishments and the establishment of National Anti-Human Trafficking Day, were considered. One suggestion was that trafficking was very dependent upon policies within destination countries and that both source and destination legislation, policy and practice needed to be considered when viewing any changes and/or impact of anti-trafficking policies.

A presentation by the United Nations Action for Cooperation against Trafficking in Persons (UN-ACT) on human trafficking and counter-trafficking in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region (GMS) further broadened the discussion across Viet Nam, Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Myanmar and Thailand, focusing on the most extensive and diverse human trafficking patterns across the GMS. Key trafficking sectors across the GMS were said to include:

- Entertainment and sex work
- Labour-intensive industries (e.g. fishing or seafood processing)
- Domestic work
- Construction
- Agriculture
- Marriage
- Begging
- Child Abduction (noted at the SLE as relating mainly to China)

Although sexual exploitation had been a focus of counter-trafficking efforts in the region, there was no specific data across the GMS and it was considered that the entertainment and sex work sector was less prevalent than portrayed throughout the media. The complexities of the moral arguments for and against sex work were outlined with some consideration given to past efforts against sexual exploitation in Thailand and Cambodia.

Labour-intensive industries were considered to be the most prevalent type of exploitation with an example of the Thai fishing industry provided. Trafficking for marriage into China was suggested as being a result of decades of the One Child policy that had resulted in 30-40 million more Chinese men of marriageable age and a shortage of women and subsequent demand from neighbouring countries:

'Some women agree, even though they know the risk, to help their families. Then there are incidents of abuse and exploitation within marriage migration patterns. There is coercion through confiscating passports, isolation, visa regulations and threats of financial penalties.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

A map of human trafficking across GMS illustrates how diverse human trafficking is across the sub-region:

Map 1: Patterns of Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region

Myanmar

- To China for forced marriage and sexual exploitation
- To Thailand into fishing, seafood processing, agriculture, factories, domestic work, and for sexual exploitation.

Thailand

- To countries outside GMS for both forced labour and sexual exploitation.

Cambodia

- To Thailand into agriculture, factories, construction, domestic servitude, fishing and begging.
- To Vietnam into begging and agriculture
- To China for forced marriage and sexual exploitation
- To countries outside GMS for forced labour

China

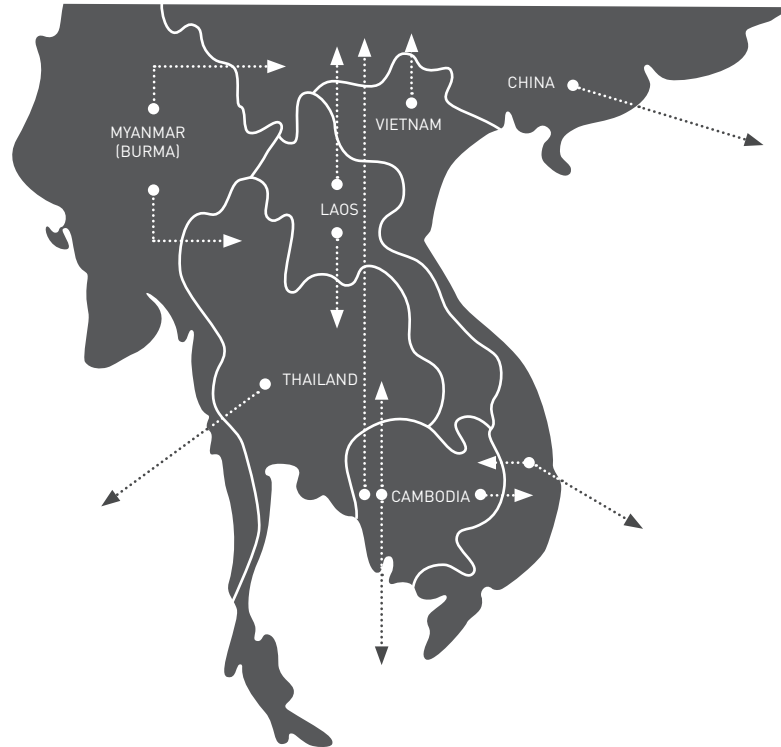
- To countries outside GMS for both forced labour and sexual exploitation

Vietnam

- To China for child abduction, into factories, for forced marriage and sexual exploitation
- To Cambodia for sexual exploitation
- To countries outside GMS or both forced labour and sexual exploitation

Lao PDR

- To Thailand for sexual exploitation, into domestic servitude, construction and agriculture
- To China for forced marriage and sexual exploitation



Source: Presentation by UN-ACT at Shared Learning Event, 5 December 2017

As can be seen in Map 1, highlighted human trafficking occurrences in and from Viet Nam included child abduction, factory work, forced marriage, sexual exploitation and other forced labour. However, it was stressed that there was a shortage of baseline data across GMS in relation to human trafficking.

A regional project to support governments in their anti-trafficking work has been established through the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking (COMMIT), with UN-ACT serving as the Secretariat. This initiative has been established in the GMS as an alliance to jointly combat trafficking in the region and beyond with a focus on '4 Ps' of anti-trafficking efforts; Prevention, Protection, Prosecution and Policy.

Networks in each country provide grants and technical support to civil society and help develop referral mechanisms at local levels. Engagement with the private sector is included, particularly in relation to supply chains in the palm oil and fisheries industries. Key initiatives include building capacity, trainings, workshops and events for government officers, raising awareness and changing people's attitudes towards human trafficking, policy advocacy and strengthening cooperation with other actors such as the UK government.

Gender was raised in relation to return to families, with an overall impression that boys are cherished by the local community on their return whereas girls do not get support in the same way. There were said to be no awareness campaigns around gender as most campaigns focussed on prevention, benefits or anti-discrimination. Gender was a focus of subsequent presentations, with participants pointing out that cross-border trafficking within the region related largely to girls and women, whereas trafficking beyond the region was often boys and men. It was suggested that it was not only the levels of risk associated with travel beyond the region that resulted in boys and men arriving into the UK, but also the demand for men and boys for particular purposes, such as cannabis cultivation.

A presentation by the Pacific Links Foundation drew attention to statistics not always representing the whole picture of human trafficking within and from Viet Nam. Considerable under-reporting was suggested. There was also a focus on the lack of

support for returnees, for reintegration generally and, more specifically, employment opportunities, psychosocial needs and issues around debt management. It was suggested that those returning could easily be re-victimised or, as outlined above, themselves become traffickers.

Statistics were provided showing that within Asia 79% of 'victims' of trafficking within Asia are women and girls, with the average age being between 12 and 14 years. For cross-border trafficking to China for marriage purposes, this age was higher given the need to be of child-bearing age. This was contrasted to trafficking to Europe where 65% of 'victims' were said to be men and boys. Of the 1,599 Vietnamese national referred into the NRM between 2009 and October 2016, 1,040 were male (Silverstone and Brickell, 2017: p7).

Details of trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK were provided, with Viet Nam being the top country for children referred to the NRM and the second highest for adults (see earlier statistics). The broader narratives outlined above in relation to cross-border trafficking from Viet Nam to China, Cambodia, Malaysia, Taiwan, South Korea and Central/Eastern European transit countries were reiterated.

A key message was the use of social media as a major recruitment method with the example of ethnic minority populations being trafficked into China (see Barber 2015 for a discussion of social media usage in the UK in relation to recruitment). Another key message was the need to speak about remittances when discussing human trafficking. As outlined above, inflows of remittances as a share of GDP were 5.8% in 2016 (World Bank, 2016)¹². It was outlined how this key motivation for travelling abroad to work started in the 1980s when workers arriving in Europe and should not be underestimated. The strong belief in certain provinces in Viet Nam that one of the only ways to become wealthy is to be a 'Viet Kieu' (overseas Vietnamese) was said to be pervasive (Barber and Nguyen, 2015; see also Chan, 2013; Chan and Tran, 2011).

The associated lack of belief in a future and/or the development trajectory of Viet Nam meant that all efforts were poured into migration through whatever route possible with the idea that:

'The suffering is worth the return on investment.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

And:

'The deep-seated belief they can make it.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

'The Vietnamese are risk takers. They do not believe bad things will happen to them. If you tell them that 99% face exploitation, they will believe they are the 1% that will not experience exploitation.' (participant comment, SLE Day 1)

During a question and answer session issues around the interface between technology use, recruitment via social media and the way in which these are utilised in courtship rituals amongst ethnic minority groups within Viet Nam. The establishment of trust over social media is an unexplored area. The regulation of the internet and social media is another area as yet unexplored in relation to human trafficking within and from Viet Nam.

Different speakers highlighted different forms of trafficking experienced by adults across the day – these included:

- Sexual exploitation
- Forced labour (including for mineral extraction in Lao PDR, the fishing industry in Thailand and factory work elsewhere)
- Forced marriages (also referred to as 'fake marriages')
- Seasonal employment
- Organ harvesting
- Work on cannabis production
- Multiple forms of exploitation (for example, sexual exploitation and begging)

¹² Viewed on 6 February 2018 at: data.worldbank.org/indicator/BX.TRF.PWKR.DT.GD.ZS?locations=AL

For children the purposes included:

- Sexual exploitation
- Fake adoption
- Child abductions and infant trafficking (see also IOM 2017 report, p.52)
- Multiple forms of exploitation (for example, work in nail bars and sexual exploitation)

VIET NAM: PATTERNS OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING TO THE UK

'Many child victims do not speak English and foster carers do not understand their culture. There is work ongoing to support them to feel more comfortable.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

'The priority is given to trafficked persons from China and Cambodia. There is limited political will regarding the trafficking of people from Viet Nam to the UK.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

'... particularly significant in the 'Typhoon Belt' where toxic waste dumping has destroyed fish supplies leaving fishermen and fishing communities more vulnerable.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

It was suggested by participants that trafficking routes from Viet Nam to the UK are numerous and historically informed, with the following examples of common routes outlined:

- Viet Nam → France → UK
- Viet Nam → Czechoslovakia → UK
- Viet Nam → Eastern Europe → France → UK
- Viet Nam → China → Eastern Europe → France → UK
- Viet Nam (seaborne route) → Hong Kong/Macao → Taiwan → UK
- Viet Nam → Russia (land route) → Latvia → Lithuania → Poland → France → UK

Each of these routes were considered to be precarious, making people vulnerable en-route as a result of their irregular status. There is no active identification of trafficking indicators or trafficking status during these fragmented and often fraught journeys. Debt incurred prior to travel adds to this vulnerability and this, added to false information provided about work opportunities, generates spaces for exploitation.

Reportedly, what commences as a journey of hope, based on rational decision making and promises of employment, transport and housing opportunities often becomes a journey towards vulnerability, precarity and exploitation.

Participants at the SLR felt that a long standing situation where it was relatively easy for Vietnamese nationals to receive Russian visas was indirectly contributing to facilitating human trafficking into Europe. Vietnamese-led organised crime groups recognised this loophole and used it to transport people into Russia and then onwards into Europe.

Much of the information shared on human trafficking to the UK session was presented by IOM UK. Other presentations discussing human trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK relied upon the same data sources as IOM UK or used evidence from secondary sources. The presentations illustrated the lack of knowledge about human trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK with a focus from stakeholders on regional trafficking patterns and dynamics.

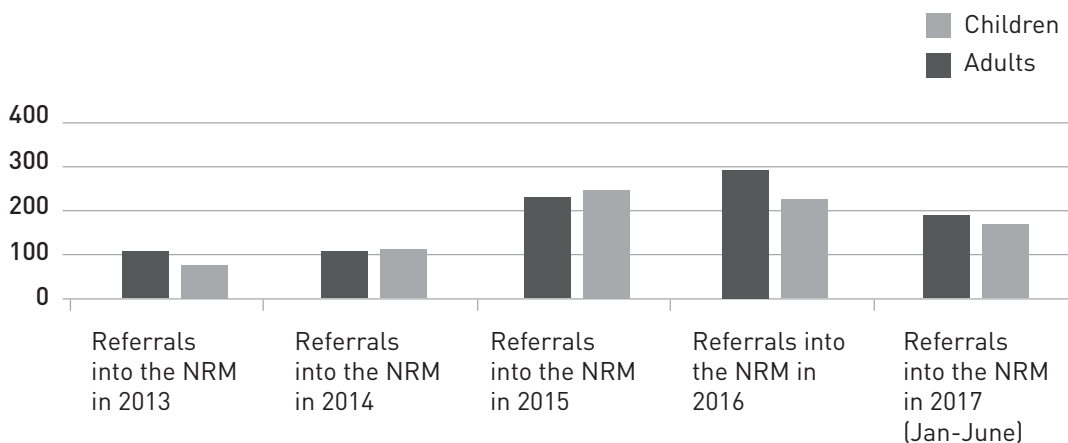
This session began with a presentation by IOM UK about what is known about trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK based on official statistics from the UK government and details of the Modern Slavery Act 2015. IOM UK presented statistics collected from the National Crime Agency reports on Vietnamese nationals referred into the UK NRM. IOM UK illustrated how during 2016, the second highest number of people referred to the NRM came from Viet Nam and emphasised how Viet Nam has been one of the largest source countries in recent years. It was noted that these statistics do not help to understand the

individual circumstances of people who have experienced trafficking and do not provide any information to help understand what makes people vulnerable to trafficking or the capacities that can provide resilience against it.

The presentation also highlighted the process for a referral into the UK NRM and the different stages of decision making, those responsible for decision making and the support and assistance that is provided to people who are referred into the NRM. It was outlined how people are not quickly or easily identified as victims of trafficking or slavery in the UK. The presentation discussed significant waiting times for decisions, the way in which people are unable to self-refer into the NRM and that ultimately many of the Vietnamese referred into the NRM will receive a negative Conclusive Grounds decision. The presentation highlighted that of the total 478 Vietnamese nationals referred into the NRM in 2015, only 52 had received a positive Conclusive Grounds decision by May 2016. 52 had received a negative Conclusive Grounds decision. There were 183 decisions remaining pending.

More children than adults were referred to the NRM in the UK during 2014 and 2015 and the proportion of children referred is shown in Graph 2 below:

Graph 2: Vietnamese Nationals Referred into the NRM 2013-2017

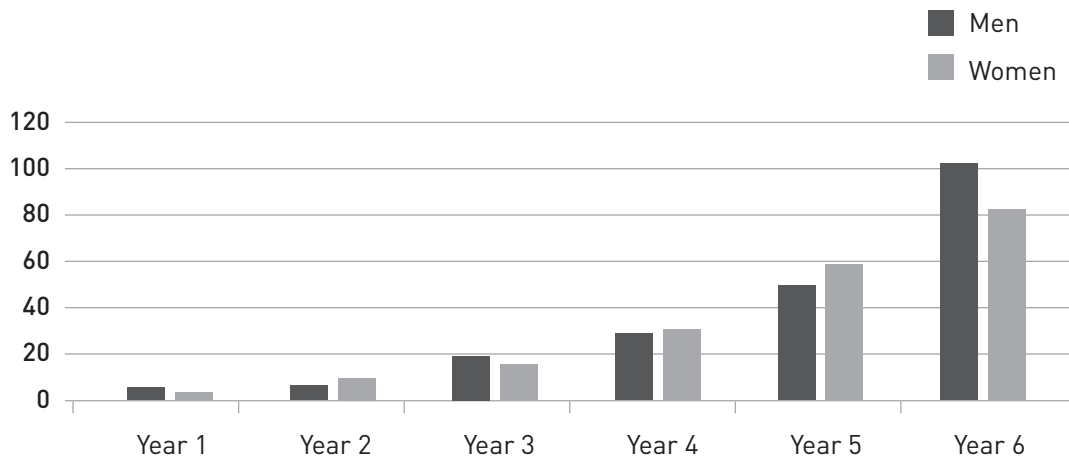


Source: NCA statistics, various dates

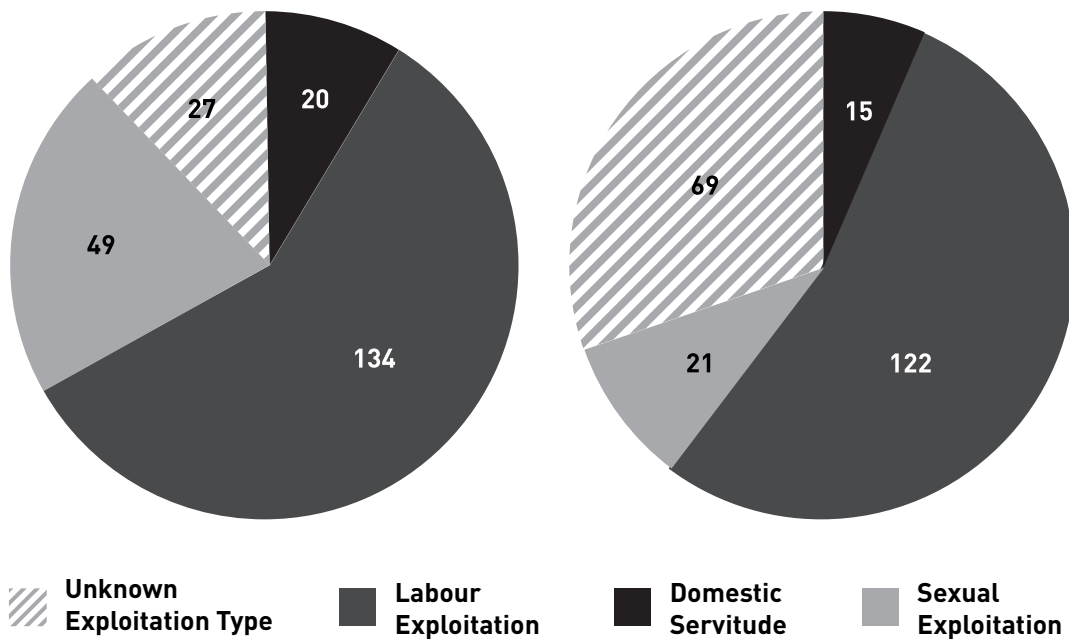
The NRM was designed for adult referrals and is not particularly child-friendly. Unaccompanied children entering the UK receive support from within the multi-agency child protection system for all children, although responses across England and Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland can differ. In England and Wales for 16-18 year olds, foster care or supported accommodation is usually the form of accommodation provided. Overall, there is a lack of specialist support or assistance for children who are trafficked and, particularly for Vietnamese children, there is particular concern about the number of children who go missing (ECPAT, 2017; Kohli et al., 2015).

It was noted that the number of adult males accessing support in the UK between 2011 and 2017 were greater than the number of females receiving funding, as shown in Graph 3 below:

Graph 3: Vietnamese Adults Accessing Government Support as Potential Victims of Trafficking 2011-2017

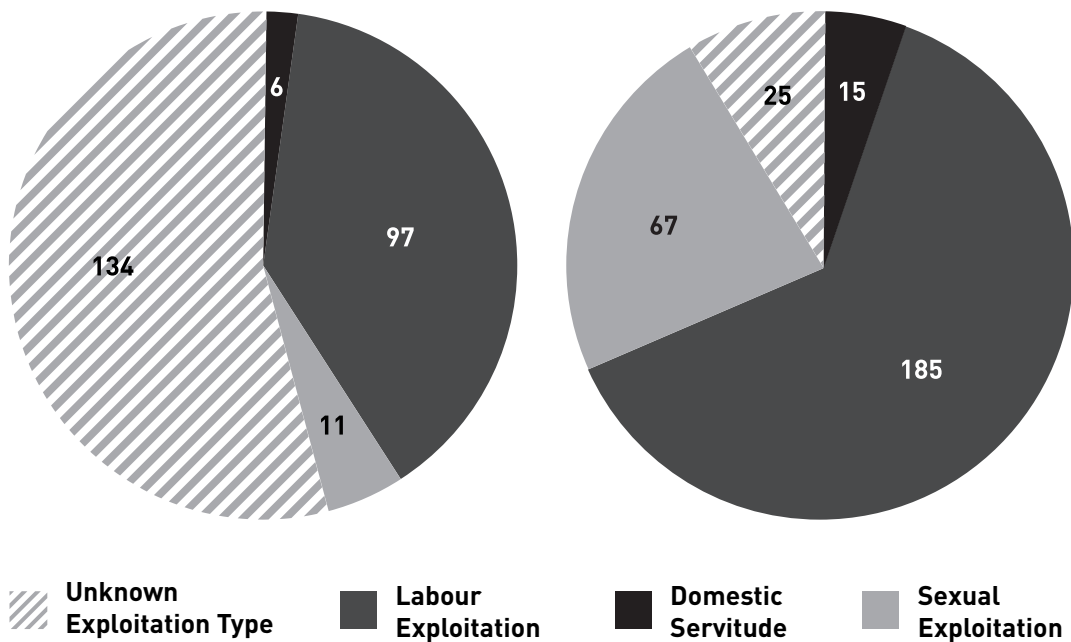


Graph 4 and 5: Reported Forms of Exploitation of Adults Referred into the NRM in 2015 (left) and 2016 (right)



As can be seen from these two graphs, the majority of adults from Viet Nam referred into the NRM were recorded as having been trafficked for 'labour exploitation.' Labour exploitation was the recorded exploitation type in 58% of cases of adult referrals in 2015 and 63% in 2016.

Graph 6 and 7: Reported Forms of Exploitation of Minors Referred into the NRM in 2015 (left) and 2016 (right)



For children, in 2015 more than half of the Vietnamese minors referred into the NRM the recorded exploitation type was unknown. In 2016 this was 30%. In 2015 39% of Vietnamese minors referred into the NRM were recorded as having been trafficked for the purpose of labour exploitation. This increased to 54% in 2016.

The media narrative around trafficking of Vietnamese nationals to the UK has involved reports of cannabis farms being staffed by young, male ‘gardeners’ who are exploited and held against their will in often small scale cannabis growing operations in houses rented for that specific purpose. Having a comprehensive understanding the nature and scale of trafficking of Vietnamese nationals for cannabis cultivation is particularly problematic as many potential victims of this form of exploitation are seen as criminals and punished through the criminal justice system rather than being perceived as people who have been trafficked and should therefore be treated as victims of a crime and be provided access to support and assistance. The scale of this problem is also hidden by the fact that potential victims of trafficking for cannabis cultivation will be recorded in the NRM under the category of ‘labour exploitation.’ The specific forms of exploitation under ‘labour exploitation’ are not aggregated in the publicly available data.

Another media narrative exists around exploitation within nail bars that British Born Vietnamese (BBV) have imported from the US through transnational family networks (Sims, 2007). This has resulted in calls from the office of the UK Independent Anti-Slavery Commissioner for licensing of these nail bars to avoid ‘slavery-like conditions’ and subsequently being ‘forced into prostitution. (Silverstone and Birkell, 2017: p64)

A presentation by the British Embassy in Hanoi focussed on the profile of Vietnamese nationals who had been trafficked and/or exploited in the UK. Utilising NRM statistics and a report by the UKs Independent Anti-Slavery Commissioner (Silverstone and Brickell, 2017), it was pointed out that 1,747 Vietnamese nationals were referred to the NRM between 2009 and 2016. In 2016 this represented the second most commonly referred nationality of potential victims of trafficking (519 cases).

Of the 1599 Vietnamese nationals referred to the NRM between 2009 and 20 October 2016, 370 (23%) received a Positive Conclusive Grounds decision. It was outlined how 65% of these 1,599 cases were male and, of these 370 cases, 46% were aged between 14 and 16 on referral (Silverstone and Brickell, 2017). Issues around age disputes and the number of children going missing from care were briefly discussed (for a further of discussion of this see Barber and Nguyen, 2015).

During a question and answer session it was purported that children and young people from Viet Nam do not want to be taken care of in the UK and subsequently hide from local authority workers, as discussed by Lainez (2017) in relation to adult and minor cases. It was suggested by a further participant that children who arrive into the UK are not usually alone, do not want to be detected and 'sent to a foster carer' given the lack of cultural reference for this form of child protection. It was considered logical that they would turn to the people they travelled with, particularly due to the levels of manipulation they may have experienced and the difficult fact that they owed money to their families (see also Barber and Nguyen, 2015). It was also suggested that 'they are not always children', something which not all participants agreed with. A question from the floor sparked debate on the amounts invested with figures between \$20,000 - \$40,000 borrowed by families. A further comment related to young people not actually being 'missing' but rather 'escaping' care to proactively look for employment to pay back the heavy investments and/or debt incurred following their journeys.

The motivating factors behind Vietnamese nationals going to the UK were then outlined and considered to include mainly economic reasons, unemployment and low-income within Viet Nam. The UK as a destination was considered of interest as others had migrated there previously, the ease of finding employment and the potential to earn a high income. Life in the UK was, however, then not considered to be easy with individuals experiencing constant instability and disorientation as a result of lack of status, 'temporariness' and the lack of a clear future (see also Barber and Nguyen, 2015). A lack of understanding of the risk of life in the UK was outlined as particularly important as was the threat of being faced by the realities of coercion, having pay withheld by unscrupulous employers, forms of physical, emotional and sexual abuse plus threats to families remaining in Viet Nam. These issues, plus the inability of many to speak English, were considered to result in a 'voiceless and unprotected' population.

Key concerns of the British Embassy in Hanoi included a lack of political will or priority given to Viet Nam/UK experiences of trafficking, with priority always afforded to intra-regional trafficking from and to China and Cambodia amongst other Southeast Asian nations. This is a reflection of the larger numbers of people identified as victims of trafficking in the region compared to those being trafficked to the UK. Other concerns were constraints in state funding, state agents continuing to encourage labour migration, general gaps in understanding of the Viet Nam/UK trafficking phenomenon as well as a lack of prosecutions involving these cases. A lack of specialist support for men and boys in the UK and limited provision for men and boys who had experienced trafficking in Viet Nam reflected concerns highlighted earlier in this report.

A presentation by the German Embassy in Hanoi focussed on information gathered through contacts with airlines, providing details of Vietnamese nationals with Russian visas who take onward travel to Europe. It was reported that information sharing across a range of agencies had led to a suggested profile of people being trafficked as being young, unmarried, around 28 years old, not having travelled previously, not speaking English and often travelling with a 'facilitator'.

It was considered that people might travel to Japan or Korea first before then utilising a Russian visa as either a tourist or student. In Russia they would then be separated into smaller groups of around 20 people before being transported to Western Europe by foot or in cars through Poland or the Czech Republic to Germany and/or France. This type of travel was considered to be paid by segment of trip which to France may cost up to \$15,000 or to the UK may cost up to \$30,000. It was outlined how people work en-route be this in karaoke bars, massage parlours, restaurants, nail bars, people's homes or cannabis farms and that the pressures to earn money to repay the cost of the journey or debts were great. The demand for domestic workers in Europe was considered another reasons for such journeys to commence, often with inaccurate information provided to those undertaking the journeys.

Photographs of a camp for Vietnamese nationals in Angres, France, were shown with examples of routes and the cost of travel of particular individuals.

The reasons why people migrated from Viet Nam were then considered and were outlined as including rural or coastal provinces of Central Viet Nam, also referred to as the 'typhoon belt'. A number of factors relating to the IOM Determinants model were relayed, such

as poor soil for growing crops, a high percentage of unskilled workers and incidences of toxic waste dumped into the sea resulting in the death of fish and loss of livelihoods were cited as reasons for migration. A 'yellow card' from the EU and US over illegal fishing was also cited as reasons for this loss of livelihood. It was suggested that these developmental and environmental reasons resulted in people arriving in Germany from these central provinces. This movement was said to be through diaspora networks in Europe – mainly in the Czech Republic, Poland, Germany, France and the UK – allowing people to send money to their relatives in Viet Nam.

VIET NAM: WHAT FACTORS SHAPE 'VULNERABILITY' TO HUMAN TRAFFICKING

'Some people recognize this movement as illegal migration and not as human trafficking.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

'The process of rescue is very complicated. In some cases we only have a telephone number. ... We have to rely on those we trust to bring them back. ... The rescue has to be done quickly. If there is evidence of exploitation, being cheated, being deceived into forced labour or sexual exploitation.' (speaker comment, SLE Day 1)

In this session, the Department of Social Vices Protection (DSVP) provided two presentations – one from the Central DSVP Viet Nam and another from Hai Phong province. These presentations were focused on trafficking from Viet Nam to neighbouring countries in the region. The first speaker discussed how MoLISA works to support people who have been formally identified as 'victims' of trafficking, with around 97% of their cases being female and 3% male. Such an overwhelming number of women highlights the possibility that there are significant risk factors related to gender which is recognised as a risk factor at the individual level of the IOM DoV framework. The representative from DSVP suggested that most are from poor economic background, another risk factor at the individual level of the IOM framework, with higher proportions of single people (estimated at 60%) than married. Trafficking within Viet Nam was estimated to be as low as 1%.

The majority of trafficking cases involved people being trafficked from Viet Nam to China (estimated to be 38% for forced labour and 42% for forced marriage). It was suggested that there is a shortage of brides in China with estimates of 15 million brides in demand by 2020. This type of movement was perceived to be illegal migration rather than human trafficking.

In cases of voluntary return, it was suggested that returnees do not always bring identity documents with them so verification and identification as 'victims' of trafficking was difficult. The amounts provided to those returning was considered too low to facilitate successful reintegration.

Policies and support needs for returnees were outlined as needing better design to improve support generally but also in relation to prevention programmes. At present it is considered that there is limited knowledge of the needs of victims and awareness raising campaigns are necessary, particularly in the languages of ethnic minorities, across a broader geographical area. There is some perception that it is not possible to do peer education as it is sensitive and victims might not wish to share their experiences with others.

A presentation by a representative from the provincial DSVP Hai Phong, commenced with an overview of the trading and other linkages with China due to its close proximity. The export of labourers to Korea and China was also outlined. From 2011 to July 2015, Hai Phong police reported that 38 victims of trafficking were 'detected' in the city. Thirty-five people originated from Hai Phong were trafficked overseas (mainly to China). Hai Phong DSVP representative highlighted three main factors that shaped the vulnerability to trafficking, including personal factors ('desire' for material possessions, limited educational level), family factors (lack of care), social issues (poverty, illiteracy, unemployment). These three factors represent risk factor at the individual, household and family and community levels.

In terms of available support the government subsidy for victims was suggested as being too low, at 1million Vietnamese Dong (approximately £32) and 2million Vietnamese Dong

(approximately £64) available for training purposes (Circular No.134). Hai Phong city, however, positively found their intervention model of peer group for women in two districts Kien Thuy and Thuy Nguyen helpful in reducing the trafficking cases. The model is under collaboration with the Vietnamese Women's Union to reintegrate victims of trafficking into the community when they have been married to Korean or Chinese nationals. Thus far there have been no cases involving the UK although there are a number of people from Hai Phong province living in the UK.

Another presentation by the NGO Blue Dragon in Hanoi focused on anti-trafficking activities when working with children. Their first domestic 'rescue' of a victim of trafficking was in 2005 in Hanoi and then internationally from China in 2007. Since 2005 the organisation has rescued 716 victims from sexual slavery or labour exploitation and 39 victims represented in court with prosecutions of 59 traffickers. Prosecutions of 59 traffickers, sentenced to 531 years in total, are a key achievement of the organisation. Prosecutions carry up to 30 year sentences.

Since 2005, the organisation has grown and has worked with more than 1,000 children. They have encountered some practices in schools and other institutions wherein children who have experienced trafficking, in one case having been sold into a brothel in China, have been held up as "bad" following their return and are told to tell their stories in front of others as a warning about the dangers of migration.

While this intended focus of this session was on vulnerabilities to trafficking there was important discussion about the impact of trafficking and the vulnerabilities of those who have been trafficked. The issue of social stigma and discrimination are complex in Viet Nam with some people rejecting the support of NGOs such as Blue Dragon because they do not want to be seen as people who are accessing support provided to victims of trafficking. Organisations such as Blue Dragon have access to shelters, emergency support and staff trained to provide psychological advice to those who have experienced trafficking. The legal department provide rescue and legal services plus support in schools for children considered to be at high risk. The need for a safe environment for interviews and for people to feel safe and secure before they transfer to their families and integrate into local life is handled on a case-by-case basis given the complexities involved.

The organisation support people formally recognised as having been trafficked as what was sometimes referred to as a "true victim", but also those who need holistic support who may not have been formally recognised. They have programmes in Hue and Dien Bien where teachers are taught about the early warning systems when a child goes missing.

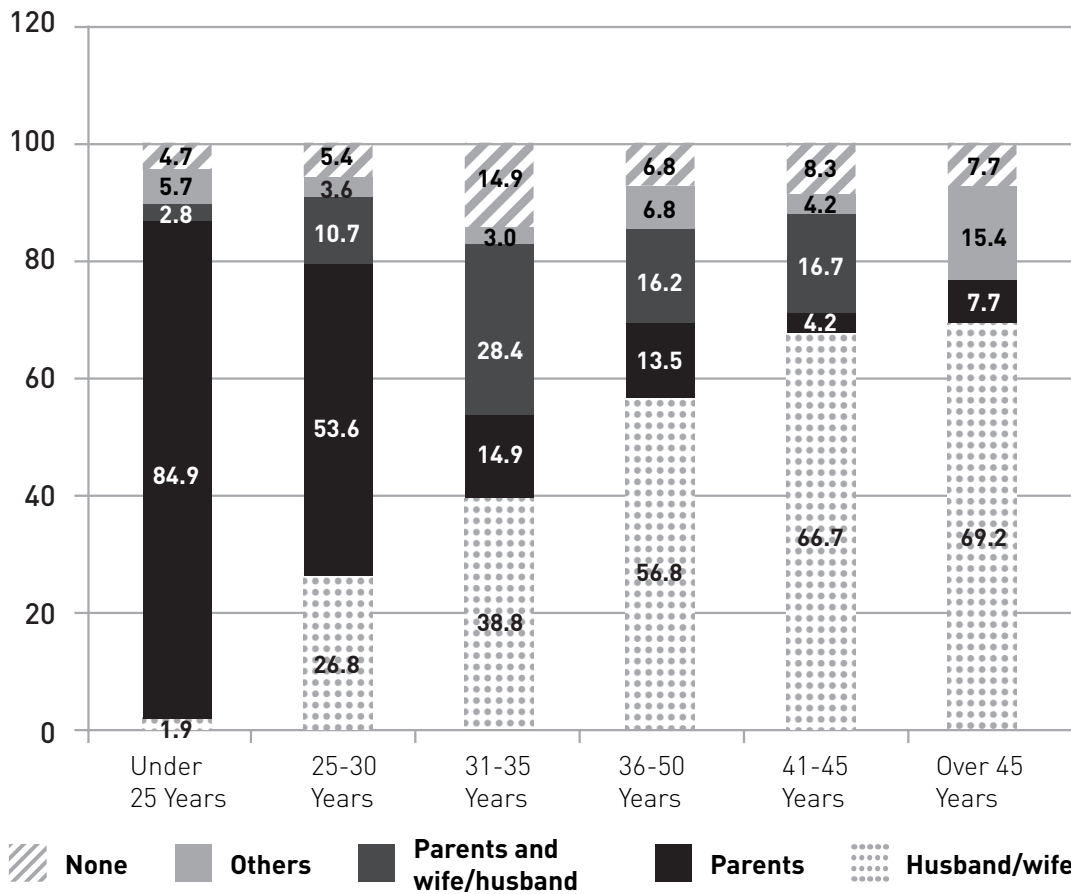
The issue of statelessness is problematic in Viet Nam. One form of statelessness – lack of birth registration – was discussed. It was outlined that approximately 10,000 people do not hold formal identification papers. Children born without their parents being able to register their birth results in there being no possibility of education, school enrolment or other services usually provided by the state. This is a structural level problem which creates risk factors at the individual level.

The final presentation of Day 1 of the SLE was by the Institute of Human Study, Vietnam Academy of Social Sciences, Hanoi, on the return of migrants from the UK and their motivations for migration and difficulties encountered on the journey. This presentation focused on a mixed-methods study of 346 returnees to Viet Nam across the space of a decade and in five provinces – Hanoi, Quang Binh, Ha Tinh, Hai Phong and Quang Ninh (Huong et al., 2014). Specific methods included a quantitative survey, in-depth interviews with returnees, family and community members plus participant observation.

Findings suggested that reasons for having the UK as a destination country included knowing others who have previously gone to the UK, the motivation of getting paid employment fairly easily and earning a high income (Huong et al., 2014). Motivations were found to differ between returnees' provinces from Viet Nam and there was a geographical distinction between motivations of those from the North and Central regions of Viet Nam. During the pre-migration phase participants were found to gather information from a range of sources but most frequently acquaintances (73.8%), followed by brokers (19.4%) and minimal reliance on others (6.8%). Consultation with parents (41.8%), partners (32.4%), parents (12.9%) or others (5.3%) outweighed individual decision making in 7.6% of the 346 participants. Families played an important role in decision making about migration. The

involvement of the family in decision making can be both a risk factor creating vulnerability to trafficking or a protective factor providing resilience against trafficking. The findings show consultation with family members is dependent upon age and marital status as outlined in Graph 8 below:

Graph 8: Range of Pre-departure Age and Consultation



Source: Dao Thi Minh Huong et al. (2014:44)

As can be seen, in this study, parents played a considerable role in pre-migration decision making for those under the age of 25 years.

The expense of this journey was outlined as being between \$10,000 and \$40,000, in line with other estimates outlined at the SLE. At least three payments were made during these journeys – one upon the decision to migrate, another for arranging visas and tickets and a third upon arrival – with payment made without receipts and on trust with the ‘facilitators’. According to the study, more than three quarters of the returnees had to borrow 70% of the total expense. During transit, it was not unusual for travel to be through at least three, sometimes up to six, different countries. Only 3.6% of cases involved travel from Viet Nam directly to the UK. Social networks on arrival, particularly for those who had relatives living in the UK, were found to be important.

Workshops in the afternoon provided the opportunity to consider key vulnerabilities/risk and protective factors in relation to human trafficking from Viet Nam, plus allowing for discussions around the issue of good practice.

Key vulnerabilities, in the order of being identified, included:

- Education – in relation to the level of education of the individual concerned but also education or information about potential destination countries
- Employment or sustainable livelihoods not being available in Viet Nam
- The importance of community in Viet Nam – it was considered that the community could be a pivotal factor if there was a pattern of following others who had previously migrated. Patterns of migration for marriage were cited as one example where social pressures were influential

- Membership of an ethnic minority was cited as another vulnerability, but in the case of the H'mong ethnic group, the UK was not considered to be a destination given the long history of resettlement of this group to the US
- Lack of language skills in the country of destination – may mean individuals follow the instructions of other Vietnamese speakers in the UK and are 'passed on' from one Vietnamese community to another or become vulnerable to gangs and other forms of exploitation
- Isolation and subsequent limited engagement with people outside their own communities, including those who might be able to provide support
- A combination of gender and age – for females when at an age where marriage is expected, some abduction of brides/wives in minority ethnic groups
- Age – upon a certain age an expectation to earn money, take responsibilities and marriage
- Age – upon an age when 'ready' and 'useful' for traffickers
- Post-crisis / natural or man-made disasters – when needs increase and insufficient funds are available
- If identity or travel documents are taken from them
- The lack of regular immigration status which means people have no access to regular employment and other services
- Difficult to comprehend and frightening criminal justice systems in destination country
- Social media

Another key vulnerability identified was around time left in 'limbo' and the increase in costs the longer someone is forced to remain in this liminal stage of their life. Increasing costs as a result of longer journey times allow for exploitation to occur more easily. Other reasons cited during workshops as to why people make risky, difficult and precarious journeys were related to a combination of hope and desperation.

Key protective factors discussed did not necessarily include higher levels of education, with a number of participants suggesting that highly educated individuals can also be susceptible to human trafficking. Trafficking was described as something thought to happen to other people with awareness raising campaigns not considered to target correct audiences and/or run running counter to individuals' hopes and aspirations.

However, protective factors were considered to include:

- Knowledge of human trafficking, including knowing ways of seeing early warning signs
- Knowledge of human trafficking through radio, social media, TV and other forms of communication
- Being 'street smart' in some way
- Having a positive peer group or social network
- A number of development and/or preventative solutions were suggested, highlighting a nexus between human trafficking and development:
- A focus on sustainable livelihoods involving the elimination of poverty at a structural level
- The development of mechanisms to listen to 'victims' in a more comprehensive way and subsequent awareness-raising through anonymized first-hand accounts
- Work in schools nationally to raise awareness about human trafficking
- Peer groups working together to share information and knowledge against trafficking
- Government financial support for self-help and peer groups allowed to operate independently and confidentially

- Improvement of the collection and presentation of statistics

It was also noted that the government of Viet Nam has already taken some initiatives at a national level to raise awareness, reduce poverty and produce more reliable data about human trafficking specifically.

In terms of good practice during workshops across all the SLEs it was found that this term requires further definition and debate in human trafficking terms generally but also within Viet Nam. Pockets of good practice were described by participants but these did not appear to often have any associated evaluations or measurements of effectiveness built into interventions, awareness-raising efforts or other support-based projects. There was little evidence of rigorous monitoring and evaluation of programming to highlight good practice.

However, coordination on counter-trafficking was widely considered to be an example of good practice and efforts to strengthen such coordination and communication channels were positively discussed. Also, some pre- and post-impact assessments were in place regionally. Activities described at hamlet and commune level provided good examples that could potentially be replicated and/or scaled up to provincial levels.

SHARED LEARNING EVENT – DISCUSSIONS ON RESEARCH APPROACH

Day 1 of the SLE provided the context for further discussions on the most appropriate approach for the research during Day 2. In particular, discussions relating to the sampling strategy and indicative areas for further elaboration during the study were debated.

SAMPLING STRATEGY IN VIET NAM

During the SLE in Viet Nam, dominant forms of exploitation were identified and a purposive sample of people who have experienced trafficking was discussed, plus decisions on the geography and key characteristics of interviewees made. The geographical spread of potential interviewees also relates to information discussed at this event with the majority of interviews to take place in Hanoi and others in Lao Cai and Nghe An where feasible.

Through presentations and conversations with participants at the SLE we recognized that we will not be able to identify a sufficient number of people who were trafficked from Viet Nam to the UK for research interviews. The original intention was for the sample for interviews to only include people who had been trafficked to the UK. This meant that we had to discuss an alternative adapted sample for the research. Based on information provided, guiding principles for this sample aimed to satisfy the aims of the research, reflect the picture of human trafficking in Viet Nam and provide a logic of comparison for interviews to be conducted within the UK. Segmenting a small sample in this way is not always desirable or feasible and this sample below therefore remains an aim at this stage of the research:

- Vietnamese nationals who are aged 18 or over – in the knowledge that their experience of trafficking may have been as a child or young person
- A minimum of 15 interviews with Kinh majority group and a minimum of 6 interviews with minority groups
- Interviews with people who have experienced trafficking to the UK and have been returned to Viet Nam (mostly male cases)
- A gender split of approximately 65% female and 35% male – but if an ability to interview people returned from the UK, a greater male percentage
- A cross-section of forms of exploitation with an aim of interviewing people who have experienced sexual exploitation (n=6), labour exploitation/forced labour (n=6), enforced criminality (n=2), forced or early marriage (n=3), other (n=2) and, if feasible, organ donation (n=1)
- Interviews to be conducted in Hanoi (n=11) and geographically spread across Lao Cai, Nghe An and other locations where feasible (n=9). If possible North, Central and South geographic spread.

- Where possible, interviewees to have been formally identified as a trafficked person through the official identification process and therefore receive support
- Where necessary, interviewees to have been informally identified as people who has experienced human trafficking by an organization which is working with them but may not have been formally identified as trafficked, including those who 'self-refer' on return, making themselves known to the authorities
- If necessary, interviews with people who have been trafficked to any other European country and have been returned to Viet Nam
- It was also decided that the purposive sample of key informants within Viet Nam would be:
 - A minimum of 13 interviews with professionals from the 'social care' sector (includes service providers, social workers, shelter coordinators, NGOs, community groups, faith-based organisations, counter-trafficking coalition/network members and other civil society organisations)
 - A minimum of 8 interviews with government officials working within national and local bodies

At this early stage of the research and prior to qualitative interviews or quantitative analysis taking place, a number of key themes emerged out of the SLE and this learning will guide the subsequent research. Issues arose around: risks and vulnerabilities; forms of exploitation; support services; the extent, nature and impact of stigma and discrimination against victims of trafficking; and, issues related to data protection plus the collection and recording of data on human trafficking.

The first of these – risks and vulnerabilities – included discussion of:

The causes or drivers of human trafficking appeared to be broad, multiple and overlapping. A number of factors across the different levels of the IOM Determinants of Vulnerability model influenced an individual's decisions and motivations to migrate. Those highlighted during the SLE included poverty, economic hardship, low levels of education, norms that enabled forced marriage arrangements and limited options for safe and legal migration.

The 'transition' from a centralized state-led economy to a market economy is intrinsically linked to migration and human trafficking. Social changes as a result of this transition have impacted on the drivers and dynamics of migration.

Regional dynamics involving cases of cross-border human trafficking were better understood and prioritized over the routes from Viet Nam to the UK. A number of participants suggested that regional issues are considered more important than trafficking beyond the region. This is unsurprising given that 91% of trafficking 'victims' detected in East Asia and the Pacific involved either domestic (22%) or sub-regional (69%) cases (UNODC, 2017:106). Overall, it appeared that the experience of those arriving into the UK was less well known or understood within Viet Nam.

There was an impression amongst participants at the SLE that trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK is uncommon. There was also an impression that incidents of trafficking occurred due to inaccurate information provided to family members.

Places of origin for trafficking cases and the overall geography of human trafficking within Viet Nam affects all 63 provinces with an extensive range of places of origin discussed. Across the SLE, participants reiterated the geographical range of trafficking cases.

It was suggested that families collect financial resources, sell assets and take out loans to fund the migration of individual members, with payments sometimes made in installments for their journey to reduce risks of not reaching final destinations. It was also considered that those who reach the UK earn high wages, are given considerable support and freedom. This is an area that remains under-explored.

Journeys that begin based on rational decision making, hope and promises of employment, transport and housing opportunities can become fragmented journeys towards 'vulnerability', precarity and exploitation. There is reportedly a considerable amount of hope associated with migration from Viet Nam and risks taken are considered to be worthwhile. In cases reported during the SLE, there was an assumption that these journeys then become exploitative en-route.

Recruitment methods were varied and ever changing. It was considered that the use of social media was a key recruitment method for trafficking alongside previous recruitment methods within close family or close social ties.

In relation to forms of exploitation:

The forms of exploitation are multiple. For adults these included: sexual exploitation: forced labour (including for mineral extraction in Lao PDR, the fishing industry in Thailand and factory work elsewhere); forced marriages (also referred to as 'fake marriages'); seasonal employment; organ harvesting; work on cannabis production and multiple forms of exploitation (for example, sexual exploitation and begging). For children the purposes included: sexual exploitation; fake adoption; child abductions and infant trafficking (see also IOM, 2017:52); and multiple forms of exploitation (for example, work in nail bars and sexual exploitation). For both adults and children, multiple forms of exploitation were outlined as common but under-researched.

In relation to support services:

There is little understanding of the causes of trafficking for men and boys and their support needs. This in some part reflects how the trafficking of women and girls is more prominent in a regional sense. This is significant for this research as there are a high proportion of male Vietnamese nationals referred into the UK NRM. The lack of support services for men and boys in Vietnam increases the difficulties of accessing men and boys as a sample for this research. A focus of support for women and children was apparent from discussions.

In terms of the nature and impact of stigma and discrimination against victims of trafficking:

The issue of social stigma and discrimination as a result of trafficking were considered to be an issue and were gendered. For example, girls returning were said to receive no support from their communities whereas boys could sometimes be supported and cherished on their return.

Children were also stigmatized. Examples were provided of children being considered "bad" as a result of their trafficking experiences and being used as examples to others.

There appears to be a perception amongst a few agencies that victims of trafficking are 'lazy', interested only in 'material wealth' and wanting an 'easy life' so are in some way enticed by those promising riches and employment overseas. Such terms add to the existing social stigma associated with trafficking.

Issues related to data protection and collection included:

Data protection, confidentiality and anonymity were under-regarded in practice. It appears that there is little emphasis given to data protection, confidentiality and anonymity for people who have experienced trafficking across a broad range of sectors within Viet Nam, including within media reports.

Statistics for trafficking could be improved. A number of Ministries release statistics and presentation of statistics over differing time frames. This meant that from the presentations at the SLE that it was difficult to quantify cases of human trafficking in Viet Nam. Further work to centralize and improve statistics would be beneficial.

There appears to be a gap between the number of Vietnamese nationals referred into the UK NRM and the numbers of people accessing support service for trafficked persons in Viet Nam.

The term ‘good practice’ requires further definition and debate. As with other countries included in this study, there was no consensus as to what ‘good practice’ might look like in human trafficking work. It was clear from the SLE that there were pockets of what might be described as ‘good practice’. However, these pockets were not well known, were not discussed or amplified in any way and did not appear to have been evaluated. This is linked to discussions about methods of measuring effectiveness and is an area requiring further thought and reflection.

Finally, it was clear that further research is necessary to explore gaps and key themes not elaborated upon during the SLE. These include the issue of victims’ agency and the relationship of this to vulnerability of capabilities; further research on forced labour and other non-sexual types of exploitation; and the relationship between human trafficking and statelessness, particularly within ethnic minority area.

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APPENDIX 1: DAY 1 AGENDA

**‘Vulnerability’ to Human Trafficking:
A Study of Vietnam, Albania, Nigeria and the UK
Shared Learning Event: Viet Nam
6 December 2017, 9am-5.30pm
Agenda**

Aims

The event will bring together relevant stakeholders from civil society, governments and academia who are involved in anti-trafficking work in Viet Nam to:

- Share what is already known about trafficking from Viet Nam (observed trends, patterns, origin communities, destination locations, numbers, profiles) with an additional focus on the UK as a destination country;
- Explore contextual ‘vulnerabilities’ and resilience that relate to trafficking in Viet Nam; and
- Explore what good practices address these ‘vulnerabilities’ and strengthen resilience against trafficking in Viet Nam.
- Coffee and photo sessio

TIME	SESSION
09:00	Registration
09:30	Opening Remarks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mr. David Knight, IOM Chief of Mission • Dr. Patricia Hynes, University of Bedfordshire
10:00	Project Presentation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jenniffer Dew, IOM UK
10:30	Session 1: The picture of trafficking in Viet Nam Focusing on Viet Nam as a source country, covering nature/trends, statistics, destinations, changing patterns <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry for Public Security (10 min presentation followed by discussion) • UN ACT Viet Nam (10 min presentation followed by discussion) • Pacific Links (10 min presentation followed by discussion)
11:30	Coffee and photo session
12:00	Session 2: Patterns of trafficking from Viet Nam to the UK What we know from official statistics, news, reports and direct assistance about trafficking of Vietnamese to the UK <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IOM (10 min presentation followed by discussion) • British Embassy (10 min presentation followed by discussion) • German Embassy (10 min presentation followed by discussion)
13:00	Lunch
14.00	Session 3: What factors shape ‘vulnerabilities’ to trafficking in Viet Nam? Focusing on risk factors at individual, household and family, community, structural and/or situational levels <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dept. of Social Vices Protection, Central (10 min presentation, discussion) • Dept. of Social Vices Protection, Hai Phong (10 min presentation, discussion) • Blue Dragon (10 min presentation, discussion) • Center for Training and Community Development (10 min presentation, discussion)

TIME	SESSION
15:00	Timeline Activity
15:15	Workshops <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What are some of the key vulnerabilities to human trafficking for people from Viet Nam? 2. What protective factors are there that can provide resilience to human trafficking? 3. What good practice is there in anti-trafficking work in Viet Nam?
16:15	Coffee
16:30	Feedback from workshops <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Vulnerabilities Workshop - Reporter from Group 2. Resilience Workshop - Reporter from Group 3. Good practice - Reporter from Group
17:30	Close

APPENDIX 2: LIST OF ORGANISATIONS PARTICIPATING IN THE VIET NAM SHARED LEARNING EVENT

Australian-Asia Program to Combat Trafficking in Persons (AAPTIP)

Blue Dragon

British Embassy

Central Vietnam Women's Union (CVWU)

Department of Social Vices Prevention (DSVP)

German Embassy

Institute for Human Studies

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MoLISA)

Ministry of Public Security (MPS)

Pacific Links Foundation

Research Institute of Population, Family and Children

Samaritan's Purse

United Nations Action for Cooperation Against Trafficking in Persons (UNACT)

University of Bedfordshire

World Vision International

Plus a range of individuals working across more than one organisation



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