ABSTRACT

The study observes that human trafficking is one of the worst forms of human rights abuse and one of the most brutal forms of crime. It is a multi-dimensional phenomenon affecting both adults and children and touching on nearly all countries of the world. The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) was conceived to promote the global fight on human trafficking, on the basis of international agreements reached by the UN. The study made use of research questions, and three hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. Sources of data collection for the study was secondary. The study found out that Libya’s fragmented political scene has posed persistent obstacles to the UN.GIFT due to the ongoing conflict between rival groups with its own parliament and government seeking control of the territory of Libya. It recommends among others that domestic law should be enacted to cover most aspects of human trafficking, specifying severe punishment for traffickers and corrupt criminal justice and governmental officials.

Keywords: United Nations, Human Trafficking, Human Rights, Libya.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Human trafficking is thought to be one of the fastest-growing activities of trans-national criminal organizations. It is condemned as a violation of human rights by international conventions. In addition, human trafficking is subject to a directive in the European Union (Azarian 2011). Although human trafficking can occur at local or domestic levels, it has international implications, as recognized by the United Nations in the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (also referred to as the Trafficking Protocol or the Palermo Protocol), an international agreement under the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (CTOC) which entered into force on 25 December 2003 (Bales. 2012). The protocol is one of three which supplement the CTOC. The Trafficking Protocol is the first global, legally binding instrument on trafficking in over half a century and the only one with an agreed-upon definition of trafficking in persons. One of its purposes is to facilitate international cooperation in investigating and prosecuting such trafficking. Another is to protect and assist human trafficking victims with full respect for their rights as established in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Goodey, 2008).

In 2014, the International Labour Organization estimated $150 billion in annual profit is generated from forced labour alone. The average cost of a human trafficking victim today is
USD $90 whereas the average slave in 1800 America cost the equivalent to USD $40,000 (Miethe, 2008). Hundreds of African refugees are being bought and sold in “slave markets” across Libya every week, with many of them held for ransom or forced into prostitution and sexual exploitation to pay their captors and smugglers (Capous, 2007). Many of them ended up being murdered by their smugglers in the open desert or die from thirst or car accidents in the vast Libyan desert. A morgue in the southern city of Sebha - an entry point for many refugees coming from Africa - is overflowing with corpses, with faulty refrigerators making the situation worse, according to a Libyan health official (Obokata, 2006). The official in Sebha, 650km south of the capital Tripoli, described horrendous scenes of bodies dumped in threes, fives or more at the gates of the Sebha health facility by smugglers (Azarian, 2011). The refugees who died were never identified and many ended being buried without names or proper graves, he said. The health official, who declined to give his name for security reasons, said Sebha’s morgue has only one dysfunctional refrigerator that can hold bodies for up to three days but end up keeping them for months and on. “Bodies end up being decomposed inside the refrigerator and often give off a foul stench.” “We appealed to the World Health Organization to help us with a new refrigerator but we have yet to receive a positive response from them,” (Hannah, 2015).

The refugees and migrants - most of them from Ghana, Nigeria, Cameroon, Zambia, Senegal, Gambia and Sudan are smuggled into Libya by a network of criminal gangs on the promise of reaching Europe’s shores. Libya is the main gateway for people attempting to reach Europe by sea, with more than 150,000 people making the deadly crossing in each of the past three years (Dahrendorf, 2007). The International Organization for Migration (IOM) said on Tuesday that it had interviewed migrants from west African countries who recounted being traded in garages and car parks in Sabha, one of Libya’s main people-smuggling centres. The IOM said it had spoken to one Senegalese migrant, who was held in a private house in Sabha along with some 100 others (Capous, 2007). They were beaten up and forced to call their families to arrange money for their release. The unnamed migrant was then bought by another Libyan, who set a new price for his release. Some of those who cannot pay their captors are reportedly killed or left to starve to death, the IOM said. When migrants die or are released, others are purchased to replace them (Donnelly, 2007).

The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) was conceived to promote the global fight on human trafficking, on the basis of international agreements reached by the UN. UN.GIFT was launched on March 26, 2007, by UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) UNODC with a grant made on behalf of the United Arab Emirates (Breznau, 2016).

UN.GIFT works with all stakeholders - governments, businesses, academia, civil society and the media to support each other's work, create new partnerships, and develop effective tools to fight human trafficking (Haynes, 2009).

The extent of violence against victims of trafficking in Libya is severe, the government's position about human trafficking continues to be one of confusion, leaving victims unprotected and without remedies (Chacon, 2006.) There is poor implementation of domestic violence law in Libya, and laws punishing sexual violence are inadequate. The government prosecutes only the most violent rape cases, and judges have the authority to propose marriage between the rapist and the victim as a “social remedy” to the crime. Rape victims themselves risk prosecution for adultery or fornication if they attempt to press charges. Many victims' families coerce them into marriage in order to avoid public scandal (Gallagher, 2009).

The Global Initiative is focused on combating human trafficking seen to be a crime of magnitude and atrocity that cannot be successfully dealt with by any government alone. This global problem requires a global, multi-stakeholder strategy that builds on national efforts throughout the world. (Haynes, 2009). It is on this note that the researcher is examining the UN.GIFT and human trafficking in Libya.

2.0 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Libya is a transit and destination country for men and women from sub-Saharan Africa and Asia trafficked for the purposes of forced labour and commercial sexual exploitation (Hannah, 2015). While most foreigners in Libya are economic migrants, in some cases large smuggling debts of $500–$2,000 and illegal status leave them vulnerable to various forms of coercion, resulting in cases of forced prostitution and forced labour (Kangaspunta, 2007). As in previous years, there were isolated reports that women from sub-Saharan Africa were trafficked to Libya for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation. Although precise figures are unavailable, foreign observers estimate that approximately one to two percent of Libya's 1.5 to 2 million foreigners may be victims of trafficking (Musto, 2009).

In recent years, it has been revealed that African migrants and refugees have been trafficked in open markets in Libya, and are held against their will in inhumane conditions in exchange for ransom money (Donnelly, 2009). The revelations sent shock waves globally and sparked protests outside Libyan embassies across Africa and Europe. Libya is a major transit destination for migrants and refugees hoping to reach Europe by sea (Aas, 2007). Human trafficking networks have prospered amid lawlessness, created by the warring militias that have been fighting for control of territories since the toppling of Muammar Gaddafi in 2011. According to the International Organization for Migration, there are 700,000 - 1 million migrants in Libya (Bales, 2012).

Lack of institutional capacity, as well as lack of Libyan law enforcement, customs, and military personnel, especially along its borders, hinders authorities’ efforts to address human trafficking crimes. Libyan law criminalized some forms of sex trafficking but did not criminalize labour trafficking (Gallagher, 2009). Articles 418, 419, and 420 of the penal code criminalized some forms of sex trafficking involving women, and prescribed penalties of up to 10 years imprisonment and a fine between 100 and 500 Libyan dinars ($72-$361), which were sufficiently stringent and commensurate with penalties prescribed for other serious
crimes such as rape (Pourmokhtari, 2015). However, inconsistent with international law, the definition of trafficking within these provisions required transnational movement of the victim and did not criminalize sex trafficking acts that were induced through fraudulent or coercive means. The law did not criminalize sex trafficking involving adult male victims (Kempadoo, 2012).

International observers reported rampant complicity of government officials involved in human trafficking and migrant smuggling operations, including Libyan Coast Guard officials, immigration officers, security officials, Ministry of Defense (MOD) officials, members of armed groups formally integrated into state institutions, as well as officials from the MOI and MOI’s Department to Combat Irregular Migration (DCIM) (Breznau, 2016). Several credible sources continued to report that DCIM prison officials and detention camp guards forced detained migrants and refugees to work in DCIM-run detention centres and on farms and construction sites. According to an international organization, the Special Deterrence Force, which nominally operated under the MOI, was involved in the trafficking of detained migrants and benefited from extortion payments sent by the migrants’ family members for the migrants’ release (Regoezi, 2008). Additionally, during the reporting period, the MOD continued to operate an anti-illegal migration unit with strong affiliation to one of the two armed groups involved in migrant smuggling and human trafficking in northwestern Libya; this allegiance allowed the armed group to continually shift its activities from committing smuggling and trafficking crimes to policing migrants for the government (Ezeilo, 2015).

The government does not have any policy structures, institutional capacity, or resources to proactively identify and protect trafficking victims among vulnerable groups, such as foreign migrants, refugees, and asylum seekers, women and girls in prostitution, child victims of sexual abuse, and children recruited and used by armed groups (Ollus, 2015). The government also did not provide permanent or temporary residency status to trafficking victims. Female victims of trafficking and other crimes faced sexual harassment and assault and degrading treatment by predominantly male law enforcement and judicial officials in Libya (Capous, 2007). The government continued to operate rehabilitation centres for women in prostitution and victims of sex trafficking and other forms of sexual abuse; however, these centres reportedly operated as de facto prisons, and international observers documented incidents of abuse in these centres (Haynes, 2009).

Libya is vulnerable to exploitation because of the violence that had been occurring there since 2007 till date. A large number of trafficked persons from Africa are from this region occasioned by the first Libyan civil war in 2011, foreign military intervention, and the ousting and death of Muammar Gaddafi (Gallagher, 2015). The civil war’s aftermath and proliferation of armed groups led to violence and instability across the country which erupted a renewed civil war in 2014 thereby breeding high level of poverty, hunger and illiteracy. This means that the factors that lead to human trafficking are found in Libya; the country also serves as a source and destination centre for human trafficking (Fredette, 2009). It is against this background that the study raises the following research questions:

1. How does poor enforcement of anti-trafficking law constitute a problem for the UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking in Libya?
2. What measures does the UN.GIFT use in the fight against human trafficking in Libya?
3. How has the emergence of a factional government in Libya hindered the UN.GIFT in the fight against human trafficking?

3.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The broad objective of the study is to examine United Nations Global Initiative and human trafficking in Libya. While the specific objectives are as follows:

1. To ascertain how poor enforcement of anti-trafficking law constitutes a problem for the UN.GIFT in its fighting against human trafficking in Libya.
2. To investigate the measures used by the UN.GIFT in the fight against human trafficking in Libya.
3. To examine how the emergence of a factional government in Libya hinders the UN.GIFT in fighting human trafficking.

4.0 HYPOTHESES

1. Poor enforcement of anti-trafficking law constitutes a problem for the UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking in Libya.
2. UN.GIFT uses public awareness as a measure of control in the fight against human trafficking in Libya.
3. The emergence of a factional government in Libya hinders the UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking.

5.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

5.1 United Nations Global Initiative

The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) is a multi-stakeholder initiative providing global access to expertise, knowledge and innovative partnerships to combat human trafficking. UN.GIFT was launched in March 2007 by the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) with a grant made on behalf of the United Arab Emirates. It is managed in cooperation with the International Labour Organization (ILO); the International Organization for Migration (IOM); the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF); the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR); and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). (ILO, 2012).

UN.GIFT works with all stakeholders - governments, business, academia, civil society and the media - to support each other's work, create new partnerships and develop effective tools to fight human trafficking. The Global Initiative is based on a simple principle: human trafficking is a crime of such magnitude and atrocity that it cannot be dealt with successfully by any government alone. This global problem requires a global, multi-stakeholder strategy that builds on national efforts throughout the world. To pave the way for this strategy, stakeholders must coordinate efforts already underway, increase knowledge and awareness, provide technical assistance; promote effective rights-based responses; build capacity of state and non-state stakeholders; foster partnerships for joint action; and above all, ensure that
everybody takes responsibility for this fight. By encouraging and facilitating cooperation and coordination, the UN.GIFT aims to create synergies among the anti-trafficking activities of UN agencies, international organizations and other stakeholders to develop the most efficient and cost-effective approach to fight human trafficking. (ILO, 2008).

UN.GIFT mobilizes State and non-State actors to eradicate human trafficking. In carrying out its mission, UN.GIFT will increase knowledge and awareness on human trafficking; promote effective rights-based responses; build the capacity of State and non-State actors; and foster partnerships for joint action against human trafficking. The goals of UN.GIFT is:

1. To foster awareness, global commitment and action to counter human trafficking in partnership with different stakeholders including governments, the international community, non-governmental organizations and other elements of civil society and the media; and
2. To assist countries in creating and strengthening support structures for victims of trafficking.

The core areas of UN.GIFT’s work are 1. Global and collective advocacy efforts to help raise awareness of human trafficking; 2. Evidence-based knowledge on human trafficking to feed into national, regional and global policy-making; 3. Greater coordination and cooperation among international organizations and innovative public-private partnerships; 4. System-wide, institutional and individual capacity development of stakeholders through the delivery of technical assistance. (ILO, 2012).

5.2 Steering Committee

The UN.GIFT alliance is composed of the six major international organizations providing technical know-how and expertise to Governments and non-governmental entities in addressing the human trafficking challenge. The UN.GIFT Steering Committee, comprising representatives from the six founding members and the main donor to UN.GIFT, coordinates the anti-trafficking efforts of its members and their respective networks and alliances.

The UN.GIFT Steering Committee provides a unique opportunity to increase the impact of anti-trafficking responses supported by the UN and other organizations and to create synergies to ensure the most efficient and effective delivery of anti-trafficking activities.

International Labour Organization (ILO: The mandate of ILO is to protect the interests of workers when employed in countries other than their own, noting that labour is not a commodity. The Conventions adopted by ILO that are of most relevance to human trafficking are those on forced labour, child labour and migrant workers. Other relevant ILO Conventions include those on gender equality and discrimination, employment policy, employment agencies, labour inspection, safety and health at work.

International Organization for Migration (IOM: IOM has a comprehensive approach to counter trafficking in persons within the wider context of managing migration, providing an integrated response to prevent human trafficking, protecting the victims through targeted assistance and empowering governments and other agencies to combat this severe human rights violation more effectively. IOM has implemented almost 500 counter-trafficking
projects in 85 countries since 1994 and has provided assistance to over 15,000 trafficked persons. IOM’s primary aims are to prevent human trafficking and protect victims of the trade by offering them options of safe and sustainable reintegration and/or return. IOM has developed over 400 partnerships with both state actors and civil society in the course of this work.

The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR): OHCHR’s anti-trafficking program focuses on the integration of human rights into anti-trafficking initiatives at the legal, political and program levels. Its anti-trafficking work is based on a dual strategy that addresses prevention through focusing on the root causes creating vulnerability, such as economic disparities, conflict and discrimination, as well as reinforcing victim assistance and protection. In promoting and advocating a human rights-based approach to anti-trafficking, OHCHR is guided by two fundamental considerations: human rights must be at the core of any credible anti-trafficking strategy; and anti-trafficking initiatives must not in any way adversely affect the rights of trafficked persons or those vulnerable to trafficking.

The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE): The fight against trafficking in human beings has become a priority of the OSCE, which applies the OSCE concept of common and comprehensive security and its three dimensions (politico-military, economic and human dimension) to address this grave crime and human rights violation. Since the late 1990s, the OSCE has created political and operational frameworks to combat human trafficking - political commitments adopted by the OSCE participating States from 2000 to 2008 and relevant structures designed to provide assistance to them in the implementation of these comprehensive Ministerial Decisions and anti-trafficking projects and programmes. The Organization works closely with its 56 participating States to catalyze political will at the national level in countries of origin, transit and destination, to facilitate dialogue and better co-ordination and cooperation in combating all forms of trafficking in human beings, increase capacity building and involvement of all relevant stakeholders, be it state institutions or civil society, in developing zero tolerance towards slavery and exploitation of trafficked persons.

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF): UNICEF’s mandate to protect children from all forms of violence, abuse and exploitation is based on the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Children deprived of their rights are vulnerable to numerous forms of exploitation including trafficking and exposure to multiple forms of abuses, violence and exploitation including sexual exploitation, forced marriage, illegal adoption, cheap or unpaid labour. Trafficking violates their rights to be protected, depriving them of the right to reach their full potential. The Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography provides added impetus to combat child trafficking.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime: UNODC has a general mandate to address transnational organized crime. The Trafficking in Persons Protocol, supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC), provides the legal and conceptual framework for UNODC’s work in the area of human trafficking. It focuses on the criminal justice system response to human trafficking, and also includes further provisions on victim protection and preventive measures. UNODC serves as the secretariat of the
Conference of the Parties to UNTOC and its protocols and for the Inter-Agency Coordination Group against Trafficking in Persons.

The UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has further assisted many non-governmental organizations in their fight against human trafficking. The 2006 armed conflict in Lebanon, which saw 300,000 domestic workers from Sri Lanka, Ethiopia and the Philippines jobless and targets of traffickers, led to an emergency information campaign with NGO Caritas Migrant to raise human-trafficking awareness. Additionally, an April 2006 report, Trafficking in Persons: Global Patterns, helped to identify 127 countries of origin, 98 transit countries and 137 destination countries for human trafficking. To date, it is the second most frequently downloaded UNODC report. (ILO, 2012). Continuing into 2007, UNODC supported initiatives like the Community Vigilance project along the border between India and Nepal, as well as provided subsidies for NGO trafficking prevention campaigns in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatia. Public service announcements have also proved useful for organizations combating human trafficking. In addition to many other endeavours, UNODC works to broadcast these announcements on local television and radio stations across the world. By providing regular access to information regarding human trafficking, individuals are educated on how to protect themselves and their families from being exploited (Capous, 2007).

The UN.GIFT virtual knowledge hub, UN.GIFT.HUB was developed in response to the need to gather all existing knowledge on human trafficking. In addition, it was designed to broaden this knowledge base by sharing experiences and information from all sectors. The UN.GIFT.HUB is an online space, not only to collect information but where users can participate in the creation and dissemination of knowledge. UN.GIFT welcomes submissions of publications, projects, discussion topics and events on human trafficking to be included in the UN.GIFT.HUB and shared globally with all those involved in the fight against human trafficking (Dahrendorf, 2007).

The Global Report recorded victims of 136 different nationalities detected in 118 countries between 2007 and 2010, during which period, 460 different flows were identified. Around half of all trafficking took place within the same region with 27 per cent occurring within national borders. One exception is the Middle East, where most detected victims are East and South Asians. Trafficking victims from East Asia have been detected in more than 60 countries, making them the most geographically dispersed group around the world. There are significant regional differences in the detected forms of exploitation. Countries in Africa and in Asia generally intercept more cases of trafficking for forced labour, while sexual exploitation is somewhat more frequently found in Europe and in the Americas. Additionally, trafficking for organ removal was detected in 16 countries around the world. The Report raises concerns about how 16 per cent of reporting countries did not record a single conviction for trafficking in persons between 2007 and 2010. As of February 2018, 173 countries have ratified the United Nations Trafficking in Persons Protocol, of which UNODC is the guardian. Significant progress has been made in terms of legislation: as of 2012, 83 per cent of countries had a law criminalizing trafficking in persons in accordance with the Protocol (ILO, 2008).

6.0 HUMAN TRAFFICKING
Human trafficking is the trade of humans for the purpose of forced labour, sexual slavery, or commercial sexual exploitation for the trafficker or others. This may encompass providing a spouse in the context of forced marriage, or the extraction of organs or tissues, including for surrogacy and ova removal. Human trafficking can occur within a country or trans-nationally. Human trafficking is a crime against the person because of the violation of the victim's rights of movement through coercion and because of their commercial exploitation. Human trafficking is the trade in people, especially women and children, and does not necessarily involve the movement of the person from one place to another (Fredette, 2009).

Trafficking in persons is a serious crime and a grave violation of human rights. Every year, thousands of men, women and children fall into the hands of traffickers, in their own countries and abroad. Trafficking for organ removal was a complex issue that included controversial technical, ethical, legal and medical considerations. Such trafficking also involved a unique range of actors, including surgeons and hospital staff, who collaborated with criminal networks, brokers and middlemen who recruited donors from among the most vulnerable groups of society. Almost every country in the world is affected by trafficking, whether as a country of origin, transit or destination for victims. UNODC, as guardian of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNCOTC) and the Protocols thereto, assists States in their efforts to implement the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons (Fredette, 2009).

UNODC offers practical help to States, not only helping to draft laws and create comprehensive national anti-trafficking strategies but also assisting with resources to implement them. States receive specialized assistance including the development of local capacity and expertise, as well as practical tools to encourage cross-border cooperation in investigations and prosecutions.

The adoption in 2000 by the United Nations General Assembly of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking In Persons, Especially Women and Children marked a significant milestone in international efforts to stop the trade in people. As the guardian of the Protocol, UNODC addresses human trafficking issues through its Global Programme against Trafficking in Persons. A vast majority of states have now signed and ratified the Protocol. But translating it into reality remains problematic. Very few criminals are convicted and most victims are probably never identified or assisted (Obakata, 2006).

Trafficking in Persons is 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. It is evident that trafficking in persons has three constituent elements;

The Act (What is done): Recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons.
The Means (How it is done): Threat or use of force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or vulnerability, or giving payments or benefits to a person in control of the victim.

The Purpose (Why it is done): For the purpose of exploitation, which includes exploiting the prostitution of others, sexual exploitation, forced labour, slavery or similar practices and the removal of organs (Obakata, 2006)?

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), forced labour alone (one component of human trafficking) generates an estimated $150 billion in profits per annum as of 2014. In 2012, the ILO estimated that 21 million victims are trapped in modern-day slavery. Of these, 14.2 million (68%) were exploited for labour, 4.5 million (22%) were sexually exploited, and 2.2 million (10%) were exploited in state-imposed forced labour.

6.1 Trafficking in the Context of Labour and Exploitation

Human trafficking happens when a person is moved from one place to another within a country or across a border into a situation in which they are exploited, and this exploitation can take many forms. Many people move legally for work, temporarily or on a more permanent basis. If people cannot move legally to find work— for example, because a country will not accept workers from elsewhere, or because they do not meet the country requirements, or maybe just because they do not know how to use legal channels for migration— then they may turn to illegal means. For example, they may obtain fake documents that allow them to enter a country fraudulently, or they may enter with a terrorist visa and then not leave the country when the visa expires. Sometimes they may enter a country using a route that avoids official border crossings, so that they arrive without any entry papers, thus becoming ‘undocumented’.

6.2 The Geography of Human Trafficking

If human trafficking were to be drawn as a shape, it would have something that has a beginning, a middle and an end. The beginning would be the place that people come from, the middle would be the journey they take as trafficking victims, and the end would be the place where they are exploited.

Human Trafficking Routes in Africa: Africa is an origin, transit and destination region for victims of trafficking. It is estimated that 92 percent of countries in the region are origin countries, 41 percent are used as transit, and 44 percent are destination countries for victims of trafficking. In some cases, a single country is an origin, transit and destination country. For example, Nigeria is an origin for persons trafficked to Cameroon, a transit country for Ghana trafficked to Gabon, and a destination country for people trafficked from Benin (UNODC, 2006; IOM, 2005).

There are two major patterns of trafficking in West and Central Africa. the first, internal trafficking which is the trafficking of victims from rural to urban areas, and the second, cross border trafficking from one country to another and in some cases from the African continent to another continent. Trafficking routes include origin and transit countries as Benin, Ghana,
Nigeria, Mali, Burkina Faso, Mauritania and Togo. While destination countries are Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Cote d'Ivoire, Congo and Nigeria (UNODC, 2006; IOM, 2005).

6.3 Human Trafficking Recruiters and the Traffickers

The recruiters are male and female familiar to the victims and are not strangers. UNODOC:16 states that the trafficking of women is greater than the trafficking of men. Commercial sex and forced labour are the two most common trafficking purposes.

Traffickers have to balance between supply and demand through maintaining false information, fraud and force and demand by providing a reliable source of trafficked persons (Sita, 2003; Anderson & Davidson, 2003). Traffickers may be either organizations or individuals. In some cases, the victims are sent back to their villages to recruit more people. The IOM also notes that ‘Mozambican traffickers are mainly local women in partnership with their compatriots and South African men who transport trafficked victims from Maputu to Johannesburg or Durban’ (IOM, 2005). The reports state that women who are engaged in prostitution are sent back to their villages to recruit more people. Both boys and girls are recruited with promises of a better life and easy with some promises of education (IOM, 2005).

6.4 How much profit is generated?

A study conducted by Belser, 2005 estimates 27.8 billion US Dollars were generated from the commercial sexual exploitation of human trafficking. However, UNICEF estimates that 7 to 10 billion US Dollars is generated annually from human trafficking (UNICEF, 2005). Another estimate by the US intelligence community is 9.5 billion US Dollars annually. However, Belser questions the profit figures estimated by UNICEF, stating that it is unclear how profits were calculated. Almost half of all the revenue is made in industrial countries, followed by Asia which generates 9.5 billion US dollars. 3.2 billion US dollars are generated from Transition economies; 1.0 billion US dollars from the Middle East and North Africa; 0.6 billion US dollars from Latin America and 0.1 billion US dollars from Sub-Saharan Africa (Belser, 2005). The UNODC states that human trafficking is number three in the top criminal activities in the world. Human trafficking outranked illegal arms and drugs sale, because it involves less risk and that the victims could be trafficked repeatedly (UNODC, 2006).

6.5 Reasons for Human Trafficking

Human trafficking varies from country to country, but it usually preys on vulnerability situations. People in vulnerable and precarious situations are looking for a way out and in their depression can fall prey to human trafficking. The following are examples of the conditions and/or realities people may be fleeing:

Leaving a place of poverty to gain wealth: Many victims want to get out of their situation, so they risk everything to leave the place that sees them mired poverty. This gives the human traffickers bait to lure victims to a different country. Traffickers lie, promising jobs and stability in order to recruit their victims. Upon their arrival to another state or region, captors take control. The practice of entrusting poor children to more affluent friends or relatives may
create vulnerability. Some parents sell their children, not just for money, but in hope that their children may escape poverty and have a better life with more opportunities.

Political Conditions: Political instability, militarism, generalized violence or civil unrest results in an increase in trafficking as well. The destabilized and scattering of population increase their vulnerability to unfair treatment and abuse via trafficking and forced and labour.

War: Armed conflicts can lead to massive forced displacement of people. War creates a large number of orphans and street children and/or displaced people who are vulnerable to trafficking.

Social and Cultural Practices: Many societies and cultures abuse and exploit women and girls, creating perilous living conditions for the women. With few opportunities of upward mobility and with little value placed on women and girls, they are more vulnerable to trafficking.

6.6 Poverty and globalization

Poverty and lack of educational and economic opportunities in one's hometown may lead women to voluntarily migrate and then be involuntarily trafficked into sex work. As globalization opened up national borders to greater exchange of goods and capital, labour migration also increased. Less wealthy countries have fewer options for livable wages. The economic impact of globalization pushes people to make conscious decisions to migrate and be vulnerable to trafficking. Gender inequalities that hinder women from participating in the formal sector also push women into informal sectors.

Long waiting lists for organs in the United States and Europe created a thriving international black market. Traffickers harvest organs, particularly kidneys, to sell for large profit and often without properly caring for or compensating the victims. Victims often come from poor, rural communities and see few other options than to sell organs illegally. Wealthy countries' inability to meet organ demand within their own borders perpetuates trafficking. By reforming its internal donation system, Iran achieved a surplus of legal donors and provides an instructive model for eliminating both organ trafficking and shortage.

Globalization and the rise of Internet technology has also facilitated sex trafficking. Online classified sites and social networks such as Craigslist have been under intense scrutiny for being used by johns and traffickers in facilitating sex trafficking and sex work in general. Traffickers use explicit sites and underground sites (e.g. Craigslist, Backpage, MySpace) to market, recruit, sell, and exploit females. Facebook, Twitter, and other social networking sites are suspected for similar uses. For example, Randal G. Jennings has convicted of sex trafficking five underage girls by forcing them to advertise on Craigslist and driving them to meet the customers. According to the National Center for Missing and Exploited Children, online classified ads reduce the risks of finding prospective customers. Studies have identified the Internet as the single biggest facilitator of the commercial sex trade, although it is difficult to ascertain which women advertised are sex trafficking victims. Traffickers and pimps use the Internet to recruit minors since Internet and social networking sites usage have significantly increased especially among children (Gallagher, 2009).
Organized criminals can generate up to several thousand dollars per day from one trafficked girl, and the Internet has further increased the profitability of sex trafficking and child trafficking. With faster access to a wider clientele, more sexual encounters can be scheduled. Victims and clients, according to a New York City report on sex trafficking in minors, increasingly use the Internet to meet customers. Because of protests, Craigslist has since closed its adult services section. According to authorities, Backpage is now the main source for advertising trafficking victims. Investigators also frequently browse online classified ads to identify potential underage girls who are trafficked (Gallagher, 2009).

While globalization fostered new technologies that may exacerbate sex trafficking, technology can also be used to assist law enforcement and anti-trafficking efforts. A study was done on online classified ads surrounding the Super Bowl. A number of reports have noticed an increase in sex trafficking during previous years of the Super Bowl. For the 2011 Super Bowl held in Dallas, Texas, the Backpage for Dallas area experienced a 136% increase in the number of posts in the Adult section on Super Bowl Sunday, whereas Sundays typically have the lowest amount of posts. Researchers analyzed the most salient terms in these online ads, which suggested that many escorts were travelling across state lines to Dallas specifically for the Super Bowl, and found that the self-reported ages were higher than usual. Twitter was another social networking platform studied for detecting sex trafficking. Digital tools can be used to narrow the pool of sex trafficking cases, albeit imperfectly and with uncertainty. (Breznau, 2016).

However, there has been no evidence found actually linking the Super Bowl – or any other sporting event – to increased trafficking or prostitution.

7.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

7.1 The Social Disorganization Theory

In 1942, two criminology researchers from the “Chicago School” of criminology, Clifford Shaw and Henry D. McKay developed social disorganization theory through their research. The theory of social disorganization states a person’s physical and social environments are primarily responsible for the behavioural choices that a person makes (Bond, 2015). At the core of social disorganization theory, is that location matters when it comes to predicting illegal activity. Shaw and McKay noted that societies with the highest crime rates have at least three common problems, physical dilapidation, poverty, and a higher level of ethnic and cultural mixing. Shaw and McKay claimed that criminal act was not caused at the individual level, but is a normal response by normal individuals to abnormal conditions. Social disorganization theory is widely used as an important predictor of violence and crime.

Shaw and McKay discovered that there were four (4) specific assumptions as an explanation of crime.

1. The first assumption is the collapse of community based-based controls and people living in these disadvantaged Societies are responding naturally to environmental conditions.
2. The second is the rapid growth of immigration in urban disadvantaged Societies.
3. The third is business located close to the disadvantaged Societies that are influenced by the “ecological approach” of competition and dominance.
4. The fourth and last assumption is disadvantaged urban Societies lead to the development of criminal values that replace normal society values.

Social disorganization theory suggest that a person’s residential location is more significant than the person’s characteristics when predicting criminal activity and the people living in these areas acquire criminality by the cultures approval within the disadvantaged urban Societies. Therefore, location matters when it comes to criminality according to social disorganization theory.

8.0 METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of generating data for this study, the researcher made use of documentary sources which is also known as “Secondary Sources” from related literature on the role of UN.GIFT in fighting human trafficking in Libya. By documentary sources, we mean any written material (whether hand-written, typed or printed) that is already in existence, which was produced for other purposes than the benefit of the investigator.

The sources of data for this study includes government publication/documents as well as official reports of the UN.GIFT which is relevant to the topic, as to discuss the activities of UN.GIFT in fighting human trafficking in Libya.

The researcher also utilized materials derived from both published and unpublished works such as textbooks, journals, periodicals, official documents, seminars and conference papers. We also made maximum use of the internet in sourcing several useful pieces of information that form the bulk of the data used to analyze this work. The internet sources were accessed using Google and pdfgeni. This was done to generate information on human trafficking in Libya.

9.0 METHOD OF DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The study adopted qualitative descriptive analysis which is an aspect of content analysis. The content analysis implies the search for the objective, systematic and qualitative description of the manifest content of the communication. The qualitative descriptive analysis enabled the researcher to scrutinize the contents of the documents in order to understand their underlying structure, ideas and concepts and the message they relate in this study.

This method of data presentation and analysis help in clarity of information and easy understanding of the facts presented. Hence, adopting this method of data presentation and analysis makes the content of the study appropriate and enabled the researcher to explain reality, verify and relate the hypotheses.

10.0 DISCUSSION

HYPOTHESIS ONE
Poor enforcement of anti-trafficking law constitutes a problem for UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking in Libya.

In Libya, anti-trafficking laws are problematic to enforce because trafficking is seen in Libya as a crime that transcends borders, and therefore jurisdictions. Applying international law to a person who resides in another state is a costly and complex endeavour. Additionally, human trafficking usually violates several laws, and it is not a one-time event. Building a case against traffickers can take a great deal of time, resources, and energy. Thus, these complexities hinder the enforcement of anti-trafficking laws. Victims of trafficking are hesitant to identify traffickers for fear of repercussion, hence, little or no attempt is made to investigate or prosecute people involved in trafficking (Azarian, 2011).

Another problem of enforcing anti-trafficking laws in Libya is lack of proper training of the local enforcement officers within the state. Even if the state has implemented anti-trafficking laws, it is not likely that the border patrol officers, federal agents, and local police officers are well-versed in international or domestic laws in regard to human trafficking. Victims of trafficking are often treated as criminals or illegal immigrants, and either arrested or deported. Additionally, since trafficking victims are usually not in their country of origin, there is often a language barrier between enforcement officers and the victims, making information-gathering problematic (Aas, 2007).

Furthermore, security personnel in the country does not help matters in the fight against human trafficking in Libya due to corruption among them who complain of poor remuneration and then see the pathetic situation in the country as a means of securing an additional source of income thereby aiding the traffickers in the deep perpetration of crime. The Government is not determined in wiping out human trafficking because there is no enabling environment that will ensure the availability of accurate record of trafficked victims and ensure appropriate prosecution and punishment of offenders respectively. These will continuously deter the efforts of UN.GIFT in bringing to an end the menace of human trafficking in Libya thereby characterizing their efforts as a fruitless exercise (Hannah, 2015). The above discussion supports our first hypothesis that poor enforcement of anti-trafficking law constitutes a problem for the UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking in Libya.

HYPOTHESIS TWO

UN.GIFT uses public awareness as a measure of control in the fight against human trafficking in Libya.

UN.GIFT serves as a unique mechanism for developing a wealth of technical tools and influential publications, including the first-ever global report on trafficking in persons, establishing pioneering partnerships with the private sector to highlight the responsibility of private business, launching public awareness campaigns to alert and sensitize the public to the nature and prevalence of human trafficking, strengthening the role of civil society to support and assist victims, and finally implementing joint programmes designed to support the efforts of Member States in eradicating this crime (ILO, 2012). UN.GIFT has achieved impressive results since its launch in March 2007. Pooling technical know-how and expertise on how to most effectively address the global human trafficking challenge, UN.GIFT helped
to forge a strong network of partners and allies in the fight against human trafficking and placed the issue high on the global policy agenda.

Public service announcements have also proved useful for organizations combating human trafficking. In addition to many other endeavours, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) work to broadcast announcements on local television and radio stations across the world. By providing regular access to information regarding human trafficking, individuals are educated how to protect themselves and their families from being exploited (Capous, 2007).

The UN.GIFT virtual knowledge hub (UN.GIFT.HUB), was developed in response to the need to gather all existing knowledge on human trafficking. In addition, it was designed to broaden this knowledge base by sharing experiences and information from all sectors. The UN.GIFT.HUB is an online space, not only to collect information but where users can participate in the creation and dissemination of knowledge. UN.GIFT welcomes submissions of publications, projects, discussion topics and events on human trafficking to be included in the UN.GIFT.HUB and shared globally with all those involved in the fight against human trafficking (Dahrendorf, 2007).

In May 2014, the UN.GIFT adopted an action plan and a campaign against human trafficking in Libya with three priorities: the protection of victims, dismantling networks linked to trafficking, and implementing a fully-fledged public policy on this issue. In accordance with law no 2016-444 of 13 April 2016 which seeks to reinforce the fight against the system of prostitution and to support prostitutes, funds are allocated to help prevent prostitution and to provide social and professional support to victims of prostitution and of human trafficking for the purposes of sexual exploitation. Internationally, France is working actively through the UN.GIFT to effectively implement the Additional Protocol to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC, known as the “Palermo Convention”), which aims to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children in Libya. This Protocol is the only universal legally-binding instrument for combating human trafficking. It asks the States to establish trafficking as a criminal offence, and contains provisions on prevention and the protection of victims and sets out international cooperation mechanisms in the areas of prosecution and suppression (ILO, 2012).

Subsequent to this legal instrument, in 2010, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a Global Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons (resolution 64/293), a soft law instrument that complements and promotes the effective application of the Additional Protocol. In 2013, the General Assembly of the United Nations held a high-level meeting to assess the Global Plan of Action. Member States also proclaimed 30 July to be the World Day against Trafficking in Persons. France also supports the efforts deployed by the United Nations through the UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) in Libya, launched in 2007, which brings together international organizations involved in combating human trafficking in the interests of greater coordination and mutual reinforcement of their action. At the General Assembly of the United Nations, in 2009, 2012 and 2013, France supported the UN.GIFT in its resolution in improving the coordination of actions against human trafficking in Libya. It also supported in 2012 and 2014 the resolution on “Trafficking in women and girls” (resolution 69/149) and the resolution on “Permanent memorial to and
remembrance of the victims of slavery and the transatlantic slave trade” of 2013 and 2014 (resolution 69/19). During its presidency of the Security Council in June 2016, France organized an open debate on the link between sexual violence and human trafficking, in the presence, among others, of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, the Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Conflict, Ms Zainab Bangura, and the Special Rapporteur on trafficking in persons, especially women and children, Ms Maria Grazia Giammarinaro. This meeting helped to emphasize both trading practices used in sexual slavery set up by certain terrorist groups and the increased vulnerability among female refugees to human trafficking and sexual violence networks in Libya. This was an eye-opener to people (ILO, 2012).

In December 2016, the Security Council with the guidance of the UN.GIFT unanimously adopted a historic resolution clearly defining the link between human trafficking, sexual violence and terrorism as a threat to international peace and security. Resolution 2331, which calls on the Member States to take decisive and immediate action to prevent and prosecute human trafficking, including the context of armed conflict, to requests, that the Secretary-General issue a report at the end of 2017. During the public debate which took place at the Council, at which the United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, Spanish Prime Minister Mariano Rajoy, Special Representative Bangura, EU Anti-Trafficking Coordinator Myria Vassiliadou, two Yezidi representatives and about 70 delegations all made statements, France reiterated its commitment to combating human trafficking, particularly of women and children, and against sexual violence committed against them in conflict situations. The discussion above supports the hypothesis that UN.GIFT uses public awareness as a measure of control in the fight against human trafficking in Libya.

**HYPOTHESIS THREE**

**Emergence of factional government in Libya hinders UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking.**

The structural obstacle in the fight against human trafficking is the first Libyan civil war in 2011, overthrow and collapse of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, and the ousting and death of Muammar Gaddafi which led to the end of his rule over Libya, assumption of Interim control by National Transition Council (NTC), foreign military intervention, diplomatic recognition of NTC as sole governing authority for Libya by 105 countries. The civil war’s aftermath and proliferation of armed groups led to a factional violence and instability across the country which erupted a renewed civil war in 2014 and remains Libya’s fragmented political scene known as the second Libyan civil war. The second Libyan civil war is an ongoing conflict among rival groups with its own parliament and government seeking control of the territory of Libya. The conflict has been mostly between the government of the Council of Deputies that was elected democratically in 2014 and internationally recognized as the "Libyan Government", also known as the "Tobruk government"; and the rival Islamist government of the General National Congress (GNC), also called the "National Salvation Government", based in the capital Tripoli. In December 2015 these two factions agreed in principle to unite as the Government of National Accord. Although the Government of National Accord is now functioning, its authority is still unclear as specific details acceptable to both sides have not yet been agreed upon (Donnelly, 2007)
The Tobruk government, strongest in eastern Libya, has the loyalty of Haftar's Libyan National Army and has been supported by airstrikes by Egypt and the UAE. The Islamist government of the GNC, strongest in western Libya, rejected the results of the 2014 election and is led by the Muslim Brotherhood, backed by the wider Islamist coalition known as "Libya Dawn" and other militias, and aided by Qatar, Sudan, and Turkey.

In addition to these, there are also smaller rival groups: the Islamist Shura Council of Benghazi Revolutionaries, led by Ansar al-Sharia (Libya), which has had the support of the GNC; the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant's (ISIL's) Libyan provinces; as well as Tuareg militias of Ghat, controlling desert areas in the southwest; and local forces in Misrata District, controlling the towns of Bani Walid and Tawergha. The belligerents are coalitions of armed groups that sometimes change sides.

In recent months there have been many political developments. The United Nations-brokered a cease-fire in December 2015, and on 31 March 2016 the leaders of a new UN-supported "unity government" arrived in Tripoli. On 5 April, the Islamist government in western Libya announced that it was suspending operations and handing power to the new unity government, officially named the "Government of National Accord", although it was not yet clear whether the new arrangement would succeed. On 2 July, rival leaders reached an agreement to reunify the eastern and western managements of Libya's National Oil Corporation (NOC). As of 22 August, the unity government still had not received the approval of Haftar's supporters in the Tobruk government, and on 11 September the general boosted his political leverage by seizing control of two key oil terminals. (Breznau, 2016). Haftar and the NOC then reached an agreement for increasing oil production and exports, and all nine of Libya's major oil terminals were operating again in January 2017.

Libya’s fragmented political scene has posed persistent obstacles to the UN.GIFT. Trying to respond to the problem, the U.N. has sought to gain the buy-in of important local constituencies - rightly so, given that local conflicts are a crucial element of the struggles at the national level. Yet in their search for credible local representatives, mediators have faced increasingly fractious communities. Figures deemed local heavyweights suddenly lose grassroots support. Four years of struggles over national power between elites claiming to represent their particular local constituencies have eroded local cohesion. The result is yet deeper fragmentation and higher obstacles to conflict resolution (Bales, 2012).

Following regime collapse, a succession of weak interim governments fell prey to the multitude of local interests, and revolutionary armed groups evolved into powerful militias that seized state assets and engaged in increasingly fierce rivalries. In the absence of central government authority, one may have expected local representative and decision-making structures to consolidate, local communities to close ranks against external threats and local armed groups to cement their hold over patches of territory. Instead, the fragmentation of the national political scene is now mirrored at the local level. Local elites are losing their key political resource: their ability to speak for their communities (Azarian, 2011).

In many localities, a growing array of competing “councils” and “committees” are taking positions in national politics in the name of entire cities or tribes, turning a practise developed during the revolution into a parody of itself. Undiscerning observers may be fooled by the
never-ending succession of conferences purportedly assembling the country’s tribes for particular political ends. The tribes are best understood as merely another arena for competition between political entrepreneurs at the community level: Even representatives of the same sub-section of a tribe often take diametrically opposed positions. This also applies to many of the countless initiatives by local notables to mediate conflicts – some of which have resulted in tenuous local cease-fires. Too often, however, increasingly fractious local elites have been unable to rein in local armed groups attacking other communities, despite the disastrous consequences of such acts for their own cities (Gallegher, 2009).

Misrata emerged from the revolution as a major power centre, with cohesive local institutions, including those for the oversight of armed groups. However, as leading Misratan politicians aggressively pursued an agenda of the continuing revolution in the post-Gaddafi era, the city’s elite diverged (Azarian, 2011). Revenge acts exacted by Misratan armed groups on neighbouring communities in the final days of the revolution laid the base for future conflicts. In October 2012, Misratan politicians and armed groups led the charge to capture the neighbouring town of Bani Walid, allegedly to seize fugitive former regime officials. In Tripoli, Misratan factions exerted political influence until withdrawing in November 2013, when a Misratan militia fired at protesters in Tripoli, sparking clashes that killed dozens. At home, there were growing disagreements over the role of the city’s revolutionary hardliners and armed groups, which had damaged Misratan business interests across the country.

But as battlefield progress stalled in early 2015 and U.N.-led mediation efforts gained momentum, the façade of local unity crumbled. Several of the offensive’s Misratan masterminds now positioned themselves as architects of a compromise, provoking fierce attacks from their erstwhile allies. Some of the largest armed groups suffered internal splits after they negotiated ceasefires with their former enemies and were reviled as traitors by other local factions. Misrata’s hardliners backed the Tripoli-based government – whose current Prime Minister, Khalifa al-Ghwell, is from Misrata – while their local adversaries supported the U.N.-led negotiations. When the talks moved to potential candidates for a unity government, further rifts emerged among local proponents of an agreement. Contrary to local politicians’ intentions, the repeated instrumentalization of local unity for particular political ends has left Misrata irreversibly divided (Pourmokhtari, 2015).

Bani Walid’s path in Libya’s power struggles could not have been more different from Misrata’s. In 2011, the city served as a recruitment base for volunteers enrolling in Gaddafi’s counter-insurgency. Several of its notables featured prominently in the regime’s efforts to rally loyal tribal constituencies. An attempted uprising in the city was violently repressed, provoking a rift through Bani Walid’s social fabric and hardening the revolutionary fervent of those who lost family members in the crackdown. A small group of revolutionary fighters from Bani Walid reentered the city when it eventually fell, as one of the regime’s last bastions. The majority opinion in Bani Walid remained hostile to the revolution, which was widely equated with the defeat of their city and its tribe, the Waterfall (Donnelly, 2007).

The units deployed to control Bani Walid were gradually forced out again, and Social Council members who had fled the city during the offensive returned. Bani Walid’s humiliating second capture further galvanized local resentment of the post-revolutionary order. But it also weakened the council, whose uncompromising stance some held at least
partly responsible for the disaster. Changes in council leadership brought a shift to a less belligerent posture, and distance from former regime elements based abroad. No new counter-revolutionary conferences followed, despite intense lobbying by hardliners (Ollus, 2015).

When tensions in Tripoli and Benghazi escalated into civil war in mid-2014, Bani Walid was too divided to take a position. Unlike many of the tribal constituencies with which it had previously sought to create a counter-revolutionary alliance, Bani Walid had not formed combat units and made no significant contributions to the “Army of Tribes” fighting with Zintanis against Libya Dawn. The Social Council has also been unable to use its ostensibly neutral position in the conflict to mediate between the warring parties and regain political influence. Hardliners on the council and in exile have blocked any rapprochement with Misrata, which is indispensable to any mediating role. Given by internal divisions, Bani Walid has failed to influence Libya’s ongoing power struggle (Donnelly, 2007).

In both cities, local elites adopted confrontational strategies in national politics to cement their own local position, invoking the need for local unity. That approach backfired because it wrought havoc on their own communities for political ends that were increasingly less clear. Widening local rifts were the consequence, with hardliners torpedoing attempts at conflict resolution. Variations of this pattern have played out across Libya. Gone are the clear-cut divisions of 2011, which required communities to take sides unequivocally. Since then, the options open to rival local actors have multiplied, while the conditions for consolidating leadership at the local level remain elusive (Ollus, 2015). The analysis above supports the hypothesis that the emergence of a factional government in Libya hinders the UN.GIFT in its fight against human trafficking.

11.0 FINDINGS

The study found out that:

1. Anti-trafficking laws are problematic to enforce, because trafficking is seen in Libya as a crime that transcends borders, and therefore jurisdiction.
2. There is currently a lack of reliable data on the quantitative aspects of human trafficking. The reasons for this is manifold, in Libya, there is a lack of specific legislation and a corresponding lack of a central database on the criminal justice response to trafficking in persons. In addition, data on trafficking victims are frequently incomplete because of the hidden nature of the problem and the high degree of underreporting.
3. Libya’s fragmented political scene has posed persistent obstacles to the UN.GIFT due to the ongoing conflict between rival groups with its own parliament and government seeking control of the territory of Libya. Many years of struggles over national power between two factional groups claiming to represent their particular local constituencies have eroded local cohesion. The result is yet, deeper fragmentation and higher obstacles to conflict resolution.
4. There is a lack of adequate knowledge about human trafficking. Victims are unemployed males and females who are in their twenties (20s) and thirties (30s),
their educational levels are low and many do not possess the language skills necessary to understand what they are told in the host countries.

5. There is a lack of training of the local enforcement officers in Libya. Even if the state implements anti-trafficking laws, it is not likely that the border patrol officers, federal agents and local police officers are well-versed in international or domestic laws in regards to human trafficking. Victims of trafficking are often treated as criminals or illegal immigrants, and either arrested or deported.

12.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the foregoing, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Anti-trafficking laws should be properly enforced in Libya to cover most aspects of human trafficking, specifying severe punishment for traffickers and corrupt criminal justice and governmental officials. Victims must be rehabilitated, with their basic rights respected, and law enforcement officers must be given adequate investigative tools and training.

2. Government of Libya should develop and maintain a systematic, harmonized and continuous data collection system for use by the national police and other law enforcement agents in the recording and management of trafficking cases that could also be used for the generation of statistical reports and qualitative intelligence information to enhance investigative capacity.

3. UN.GIFT should liaise with the principal organs of the United Nations Organization (U.N.O) to ensure political stability in Libya.

4. Awareness-raising about the dangers of human trafficking in Libya is necessary within communities to prevent people from becoming victims. Governments should invest in education and provide alternative economic opportunities for children and youths to help reduce their vulnerability to trafficking.

5. The government of Libya should ensure the training and retraining of law enforcement agents, migration and judicial officials for the identification of trafficking victims among vulnerable populations particularly among females involved in prostitution, etc.

CONCLUSION

Human trafficking is a multifaceted global phenomenon that touches almost every nation, affects a diverse array of people, and manifests in a variety of forms. As such, understanding and addressing this complicated and far-reaching problem is equally complex. In fact, there is very little certainty surrounding the prevalence of human trafficking or the most effective approaches to tackling this international crime. Although human trafficking is a complex issue, international legal instruments have been implemented to aid trafficking victims and combat this worldwide epidemic. Even states that are not a party to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its two related protocols are obligated to protect the rights of trafficked persons under provisions in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which comprises customary international law. The issues of compliance and enforcement of anti-trafficking laws are problematic, but not impossible to overcome. Initiatives through the UN.GIFT will provide supplemental funds to states to
combat the issue of trafficking, but states cannot rely solely on UN programs as the solution to human trafficking. Regional efforts are promising, because trafficking is a transnational crime, and coordinated efforts are essential to targeting the sources of trafficking and convicting traffickers. States must honestly recognize their role in combating this worldwide epidemic because trafficking continues to negatively impact millions of people every year. Trafficking, like pollution, is everyone’s problem. The world collectively objected to slavery, and it will require a collective effort once again to abolish the practice of human trafficking.

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