Human Security in the United Nations
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JCIE’s work on human security began in 1998, when—at the urging of then Foreign Minister Keizo Obuchi—it launched the Intellectual Dialogue on Building Asia’s Tomorrow. Through its work on human security, JCIE aims to call attention to the need for an intellectual dialogue among Asian countries on the human security challenges they face and approaches to dealing with those challenges. The intellectual dialogue has since continued with the cooperation and support of the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies based in Singapore and the Japan Foundation.

JCIE and its partners have convened five conferences under the rubric of the Intellectual Dialogue on Building Asia’s Tomorrow. The first three conferences focused on broad themes related to the Asian crisis, sustainable development, and cross-sectoral partnerships. The fourth conference used case studies on primary health care in East Asia to discuss policy formulation and implementation, and the fifth conference explored evaluation systems for human security projects.

JCIE was also integral to the establishment and progress of the Commission on Human Security, which was formed in 2001 and released its final report in 2003. In its final report, the commission called on the international community to explore ways in which the concept of human security can and should be implemented on the ground in the form of human security projects. The project discussed in this report is JCIE’s first response to that call.

JCIE undertook this project on Human Security in the United Nations from September 2003 through March 2004. The project team developed case studies on five projects that were funded by the Trust Fund for Human Security (TFHS), which was established in the United Nations with funding from the Japanese government. The case studies were then analyzed in an attempt to propose common elements to be included in human security projects on the ground as well as to highlight the challenges faced by people designing and implementing human security projects and to make
recommendations to the United Nations and the Japanese government on ways to improve the use of the TFHS in promoting human security around the world.

I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge the generous financial support from the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which made this work possible. I would also like to thank the Columbia University Center for International Conflict Resolution (CICR) for their cooperation.

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Introduction

This research project attempts to understand how the human security concept can be implemented on the ground by undertaking case studies of projects funded by the UN Trust Fund for Human Security (TFHS), established in March 1999 with funding from the Japanese government, following Prime Minister Keizo Obuchi’s policy speech in Hanoi in December 1998. “The objective of the fund is to translate the concept of human security into concrete activities by supporting projects implemented by UN agencies that address, from the viewpoint of human security, various threats to human lives, livelihoods, and dignity currently facing the international community, including poverty, environmental degradation, conflicts, landmines, refugee problems, illicit drugs, and infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS.”*

It was clear that, while the categories of activities to be supported by the fund were stipulated, the term “human security” was not clearly defined in the fund’s guidelines. Those who were involved in the creation of the fund were interested in developing a clearer understanding of the concept of “human security” on the operational level, including how it can effectively address human needs at the ground level in the present international environment. The Commission on Human Security—established in June 2001 and headed by Madame Sadako Ogata, former UN high commissioner for refugees, and Professor Amartya Sen, master of Trinity College—provided a definition of human security in its final report, issued in May 2003. It is hoped, however, that analysis of the human security projects funded by the TFHS, which is currently developing new guidelines, will be valuable in further improving the fund’s work from the point of view of the challenges that projects face while attempting to translate the concept of human security into action.

The projects for the case studies were chosen based on several criteria. First, logistics required that the projects be limited to one geographic region. The majority of the Japan Center for International Exchange’s (JCIE) work on human security in the past has focused on Southeast Asia, so that was the region selected for the case studies. Second, projects were chosen in such a way as to ensure a diverse selection of target countries, themes, and UN implementing agencies. Third, the project team decided on larger projects, which were more likely to include diverse elements to be analyzed. Finally, only projects that were far enough along in implementation to provide significant data for the research project were chosen. Based on these criteria, the following five projects were chosen for the case studies:

1. Ainaro and Manotuto Community Activation Project (AMCAP) in East Timor, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
   This project aims to increase food and income security in an environmentally sustainable manner in poor households in two of East Timor’s poorest districts. It uses community-focused participatory methods, promotes adoption of new techniques, and networks with other aid agencies to create markets for new products.

2. Development of Social Safety Nets for Health in Laos and Vietnam, World Health Organization (WHO)
   This project aims to create social protection by increasing people’s security from the financial burden of high health care costs. It also aims to increase overall funding for health care at the local level through the introduction of commune-based insurance schemes. The project implemented pilot projects for poor farmers and workers in the informal sector in order to assess the viability of health insurance schemes in poor communities on a larger scale.

3. The Human Dignity Initiative: Community-Based Safety Nets as Tools for Human Development in Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Thailand, and Vietnam, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)
   This project aims to enhance social and economic conditions in targeted communities throughout Southeast Asia. It does so by training community leaders in the use of tools for social mobilization and participatory decision making. It then provides funds for projects that are designed and implemented through participatory processes in the target communities.
4. Prevention of Trafficking in Children and Women at the Community Level in Cambodia and Vietnam, International Labour Organization (ILO)
This project looks at various factors that put women and children at risk of being trafficked. It aims to build community capacity to prevent trafficking by setting up and mainstreaming holistic community-based preventive interventions targeted at those factors to reduce the incidence of trafficking.

5. Tobelo-Galela Area Recovery Initiative in Indonesia, North Maluku, UNDP
This project aims to develop socially and economically sustainable communities living cooperatively in freedom from fear and violence. The project does so by supporting income-generation and education initiatives implemented through cross-community collaboration.

After selecting the cases to be studied, the project team studied the project proposals, interim reports, and other documents related to the projects and the human security challenges in their target populations. Next, they interviewed relevant actors at UN headquarters and in Japan to gain a better understanding of the fund from the perspective of those managing and disbursing funds. Based on this background research, they developed a questionnaire to guide them through interviews in the field. Interviews were undertaken in four countries—Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, and East Timor—with UN field officers responsible for design and implementation of the selected projects, government officials, partner organizations, academics, target communities, and other relevant actors. The fieldwork was conducted from November 24 through December 12, 2003. A draft report of the team’s preliminary findings was circulated among the projects’ UN field officers and partner organizations as well as Japanese government officials, UN representatives, and other experts on human security, all of whom gathered in Tokyo on February 27 and 28, 2004, for a workshop to discuss the preliminary findings and their implications.

The project team faced some limitations in developing the case studies. First, time and budgetary constraints did not allow the team to visit all of the community-based project sites. Priority was placed instead on eliciting the experience of the UN field officers and others involved in design and implementation. Second, most of the projects were behind schedule because of delays in gaining final project approval and receiving funds. One project
in particular, the ILO project, had only recently started the implementation phase and, therefore, had not yet set up any project sites for the team to visit. Third, time and language constraints did not allow the team to engage in in-depth discussions with the target communities.

I. Essential Elements of an Effective Human Security Project

While some of the needs represented in these case studies are already being addressed by more traditional development or humanitarian assistance, this study has reinforced the project team’s understanding that a human security project should incorporate the following elements in order to be effective in its planning and implementation:

1. Reducing causes of threats in people’s lives
2. Taking a multifaceted approach in strengthening people’s capacities
3. Engaging and empowering people at the community level
4. Engaging government leaders at all levels to secure people from vulnerability
5. Enhancing sustainability of people’s efforts
6. Enhancing participatory processes

1. Reducing causes of threats in people’s lives

Human security projects help people to address the multiple threats in their lives, including, but not limited to, natural disasters, disease, and violence. By helping people strengthen their resiliency to threats, human security projects make people less dependent on outside assistance when they are faced with threats. Meanwhile, they decrease the potential devastation of the threats.

Human security projects take a broad view in targeting both actual current threats and potential future threats. A comprehensive understanding of the resources and structures on which people depend can offer insight into the potential impact of removal of any of those elements from their lives and serve as a basis for creating projects to lessen the negative impact. Understanding of potential threats to those critical resources and structures can enhance a project’s capacity to prevent those threats from emerging or, at the very least, anticipate them and prepare for them before they emerge.
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For example, the UNDP project in East Timor attempts to reduce the threat of hunger by addressing various factors, including environmental degradation and lack of access to markets. The WHO project tries to reduce the threat of illness by helping poor families gain access to health care. The ILO project tries to reduce the threat of human trafficking by addressing such contributing factors as lack of awareness of trafficking and poor families’ need for income. The UNDP project in Indonesia tries to reduce the threat of a resurgence of violence, among other threats, by helping to bring together communities that have been divided by deadly conflict.

2. Taking a multifaceted approach in strengthening people’s capacities

Human security projects are multifaceted and deal with all aspects of people’s lives. They are designed with the awareness that all aspects of people’s lives are interrelated with both positive and negative implications. Simply increasing capacities in one area still leaves people vulnerable to devastating threats in other areas. By strengthening their capacities in all aspects of their lives—including access to food, health care, and education; protection from crime and other violence; and generation of adequate income—people are better able to compensate when one aspect is threatened.

For example, the ILO project looks at income, food, and health security all as ways of decreasing the threat of human trafficking. They acknowledge and address the fact that at-risk girls are often lured into trafficking through deceit, but they also acknowledge and address the poverty-related issues that create the environment most likely to put them at risk.

The UNDP project in East Timor seeks to create positive reciprocal impacts between environmental protection, food security, and income generation. They have established tree nurseries for income generation, created markets for the trees by encouraging other organizations to purchase the trees and plant them in order to reverse the rapid deforestation in the country, thereby nourishing the soil for better crop production, leaving formerly subsistence farmers with more crops to sell.

The UNDP project in Indonesia attempts to rebuild relationships in post–deadly conflict communities while creating income-generation opportunities. If the project only helps generate income in the communities and violence breaks out again, the incomes will be lost again. This project provides another good example of multifaceted approaches in that the
implementing unit within UNDP—the Crisis Prevention and Recovery Unit—has expertise in reconciliation and participatory decision making and has subcontracted much of the education-specific activities to groups with more expertise, such as UNICEF and World Vision Indonesia. The project team found that such integration among UN agencies is extremely useful but requires some mechanisms for joint planning of activities and joint administration of funds.

3. Engaging and empowering people at the community level

The individuals and communities that benefit from human security projects are in the best position to determine their own needs and vulnerabilities. Their active participation at all stages is integral to the success of a human security project. The people who are expected to benefit from human security projects are not merely beneficiaries of projects; they are key actors in the planning and implementation of the projects.

By engaging and empowering individuals and communities in all stages of a human security project, project staff can help local communities buy into the importance of the project. If local communities have a sense of ownership over the project they are more likely to put their full effort into the activities and continue them on their own after funding and outside partnerships have ended. By empowering people to make project decisions, human security projects encourage them to take further control over their lives and their vulnerabilities.

For example, the ESCAP project was designed without preconceived ideas of what each community would identify as its own needs. Even after needs are identified through participatory processes and the communities formally request funds from ESCAP, the communities are responsible for implementing their own projects. ESCAP provides training in participatory decision making in order to build the skills needed.

The UNDP project in Indonesia provides grants to community groups—all of which need to be a combination of Muslims and Christians—that are interested in implementing projects. The community groups decide on their own what it is that they want to do and submit proposals to UNDP.

In an attempt to engage the local community in the project and empower them through the experience, UNDP in East Timor has a subcontract with the United Nations Office for Project Services, which is responsible for much of the project implementation. They also have a subcontract with
a local NGO in one of the districts in which they are implementing their project. A representative from the local NGO stated that his organization has gained institutionally through the partnership by receiving hands-on training in project management, accountability, financial management, and UN agency requirements. Through the experience, they have also gained recognition within the UN system as a suitable partner organization for other UN agencies.

UNDP in East Timor also has a subcontract with a Japanese NGO to provide project management training for a local project coordinator. UNDP’s original plan was to simply bring in an international consultant as the project coordinator. At the suggestion of the TFHS, however, they decided instead to employ a local project coordinator and bring the Japanese NGO into the project in order to further increase the local project management capacity.

WHO worked closely with mass organizations in Laos and Vietnam, eliciting feedback on their project plans and raising awareness of the utility of health insurance. While mass organizations in both countries are initiated and controlled by the government, they are the closest thing to a community organization in such centrally controlled countries as Laos and Vietnam. ILO has identified a local NGO in Cambodia with which they will partner on their project. In Vietnam, they are working closely with mass organizations.

UNDP in Indonesia has subcontracts with UNICEF and World Vision Indonesia to work on parts of the project that are within those organizations’ expertise. They are currently considering similar arrangements with other organizations.

4. Engaging government leaders at all levels to secure people from vulnerability

Government leaders at the international, national, and local levels need to be engaged at all stages of a human security project whenever possible. Governmental leaders can and do play a key role in securing people from vulnerabilities, but they also can and do contribute to people’s vulnerability. By engaging with them in human security projects, the project implementers are more likely to secure government support for and protection over the project activities. Going one step further and explicitly providing training and other educational services to national and local governmental
leaders will build the capacity for ongoing governmental support of human security activities.

In addition, some projects have helped enlighten national governments about the human security problems faced by their own citizens and the broader problems that human insecurity creates in their countries. In many cases, government support and active participation in activities is essential to the sustainability of a human security project after funding and outside partnerships have ended. For this reason, it is important to convince them of the potential and real benefits of a human security project from an early stage.

For example, the UNDP project in East Timor had a national government leader on the initial planning committee. This arrangement ensured that government interests and concerns were represented in the design. National and district government leaders have been active members of the steering committee throughout the duration of the project.

The WHO project involved government leaders at all stages in Laos and Vietnam. The government leaders developed a sense of ownership over the project, which encouraged them to integrate their experiences with the project into the policy framework. Similarly, the ILO project is engaging ministries in Cambodia and Vietnam in order to gain their support for the project but also to raise their awareness of the problems of human trafficking.

5. Enhancing sustainability of people’s efforts

The processes and outcomes of human security projects need to be sustainable in order for people to be able to effectively continue to address the threats with which they are faced after the projects’ outside funding and partnerships have ended. The only way that individuals and communities can truly reduce their vulnerability to threats is to continue the activities on their own and to support themselves without having to depend on outside assistance.

International partners should give ample consideration to the timing and process of their strategies for exiting from partnerships with local communities. Involving local communities in the management of human security projects increases their capacity for initiating and implementing human security projects on their own, further enhancing the project’s sustainability beyond partnerships with international NGOs. It is important to avoid staying in a partnership so long that a dependency relationship
develops, but it is also important not to exit the partnership before the local partner is fully capable of continuing the activities on its own.

For example, by working closely with national-level policymakers in Laos and Vietnam, the WHO project was able to convince the policymakers of the importance and viability of health insurance schemes. Policymakers were convinced by the pilot projects that poor families would enroll in health insurance schemes under certain circumstances and that they would seek better health care as a result. They also witnessed the positive effect that the insurance schemes had on the quality of service at public clinics that were receiving more income in communities with health insurance schemes for the poor. These realizations led them to include health insurance principles into their own countries’ policy frameworks.

The UNDP project in East Timor focuses on increasing productivity in the two districts where it works. Simply increasing productivity without markets for the products, however, will not lead to any sustained levels of productivity. UNDP, therefore, has sought out NGOs and governmental aid agencies to purchase trees from the project’s nurseries, creating a sustainable market for the trees.

By helping people to generate their own income, the UNDP project in Indonesia aims to help people to become more independent in the future. It also works on rebuilding relationships in such a way that encourages communities to continue working together on other priorities.

6. Enhancing participatory processes

While the outcomes of a human security project—improved livelihoods and decreased vulnerability—are important to the success of a human security project, the process in which the project is designed and implemented is more important. The way in which people are or are not engaged in a project will determine how they will continue engaging in activities in the long run. The skills and approaches that people learn by experience in a project are likely to be replicated in other parts of their lives. Helping people gain control over activities in a project helps them to feel more empowered in other aspects of their lives. Conversely, adopting a top-down, directive approach in project design and implementation reinforces existing practices of top-down, directive interaction.

For example, the ESCAP project focuses on teaching and using participatory processes of decision making and implementation. All of the
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...continues...
1. Bringing in diverse actors in a cohesive manner

Given that any effective human security project needs to address a diverse set of threats to human lives simultaneously, projects need to bring in the expertise and experience of a diverse set of actors. Those involved in several of the case study projects were aware of the TFHS’s general mandate for projects, and they were generally aware of the importance of certain components of the human security concept, such as empowerment, protection from vulnerabilities, and addressing the situation of the poorest of the poor. One challenge that the project team witnessed, however, in bringing together such diverse actors was in dealing with those participants who did not see a clear enough distinction between traditional development or humanitarian assistance projects on the one hand and human security projects on the other.

The project team also found that there was not a clear understanding of the elements needed to make a human security project effective, as discussed in the previous section, but that it was difficult to determine what variables affected each actor’s understanding of the human security concept. One variable appears to be the target country’s stage of political, economic, and social development as well as its socio-cultural traditions. For example, the village leaders in East Timor indicated that they had just begun to think of improving their own lives instead of relying solely on humanitarian assistance, after having achieved independence and living with the devastation caused by thirty years of violent conflict. In countries like Thailand, where the government is expected to provide food, money, and other necessities to its people, the concept of empowering people within a human security framework is relatively new. The project team found that the meaning of the human security concept, as embodied in the actual projects, was also affected by the mission and culture of the implementing agencies and the project directors’ own experience and areas of expertise.

The above clearly suggests a serious challenge to implementing multifaceted approaches in human security projects. While it is natural and desirable to encourage close integration among UN agencies in order to achieve multifaceted goals, as mandated in the fund’s new guidelines,
sharing an understanding of the concept of human security and its essential elements in the programmatic scheme present major challenges. A shared sense of urgency and a collective commitment to reducing the formidable threats that many people face in the developing parts of the world as well as in areas devastated by conflict and exploitation may help to bring about such a common understanding of the concept and of approaches to implementation.

2. Building full-fledged partnerships with government leaders

All of the projects have formed close relationships with national and local government officials, and the project team was able to meet the relevant government officials in most cases. UN agencies are accustomed to working with national-level government officials, and broadening that interaction to include local-level officials was not a radical concept for them. In most cases, government officials were integral in the design and planning phases and played less of a role in implementation. All of the project directors claimed success in raising the awareness of government officials of the human security challenges in their societies and raising recognition of the value of human security approaches in addressing those challenges. The WHO and ESCAP projects had specific training activities for government officials, but many of the other project directors indicated that such training activities would have further increased government recognition of the importance of human security and capacity to improve the human security–oriented activities in their constituencies.

One challenge identified in the case studies regarding the formation of close relationships with government leaders was the ability to strike an appropriate balance between strong government engagement and community empowerment. It is not desirable to rely entirely on governments for the choice of target populations, for example, where the community leaders can offer their perspectives by gathering unbiased data. This challenge is particularly acute for projects implemented in countries with more central control.

More research needs to be done on the implementation of human security projects in countries with repressive regimes. It is in these countries where human security is often most threatened, and engaging repressive regimes on human security projects may help convince leaders of their own interests in supporting human security projects. On the other hand, strict requirements
for engagement with policymakers may rule out highly important projects in these countries, where leaders are more likely to consider community empowerment and human security a threat to their own power.

3. Promoting active community participation

One pattern of interaction between project staff and local communities is found in projects that proposed a process of eliciting goals, priorities, activities, and outputs from the local communities as the first stage of their projects. Stakeholders were convened, sometimes trained in participatory decision making, and tasked with determining what they would actually produce through their involvement in the project implementation. In the other pattern of interaction, project staff determined the goals, priorities, and activities—based on their experience in the field and feedback elicited from local communities—and then brought their plans to the local communities for feedback and clarification. In the former, individual and community beneficiaries were forced to take responsibility for their own human security—with support from the project staff—from the planning through the implementation phases. In the latter, individual and community responsibility was emphasized in the implementation phase.

Directors of several projects employing the first pattern of interaction referred to the challenge of encouraging people to engage in new processes and think about their own involvement, empowerment, and responsibility in new ways. Most people are perfectly capable of participating in planning and decision making and of taking responsibility for improving their own human security, but in many cases doing so requires a deliberate change in each person’s way of thinking. Many countries where human security projects are being implemented have long histories of paternalistic governments and citizen expectations that the government is best suited to determine and provide for people’s needs. In addition, people who are accustomed to development agencies coming in and simply delivering goods and services may feel uncomfortable at first when asked to enter into more of an equal partnership with a development agency. Staff from one project explained that people in the target community always expected to be given something tangible at the end of every meeting or workshop they had with development agencies.

Many of the field officers with whom the project team met sensed a high level of local communities’ discomfort with participatory approaches to
planning and implementation. Where there is considerable effort within the development community to engage multiple stakeholders in needs assessment and project planning, this task is not always an easy one to undertake. There is an embedded sense of dependency that has developed as a result of the traditional donor-beneficiary relationship, making it difficult for communities and aid agencies to adopt new attitudes and expectations of empowerment and responsibility in the relationship. Many communities are used to governments or aid agencies simply telling them what they need and then giving that to them. Top-down approaches are often easier than participatory approaches because many aid agencies are willing and able to give people things for free. In addition, some of the governments are resistant to processes that empower communities because they may be perceived as taking away some control from the government.

A related challenge that project directors faced was deciding when to employ local experts and when to employ international consultants instead. There are many important reasons for employing local experts, including giving them more opportunities to use the skills they have, keeping project costs down with lower salaries, and contributing funds to the local economy. On the other hand, it is sometimes necessary to employ international consultants, at least in the early stages of a human security project, when local expertise is not available. A good international consultant will concentrate his or her attention on building much stronger local capacities and phasing out the need for international assistance.

III. CHALLENGES OF MANAGEMENT OF THE TRUST FUND FOR HUMAN SECURITY

It is inevitable that a fund at the United Nations newly created by the Japanese government would face considerable criticism regarding diverse aspects of its administrative mechanisms and procedures. Though this team understands that plans for considerable adjustments are being made by the United Nations and the Japanese government, it may be useful to register some of the criticisms the fund has been facing in connection with its management.
Streamlining the application process

One of the most common complaints that the project team heard from the field about the management of the fund was of the length of time it took for a project to be approved for funding. It took most of the projects between eighteen months and two years between the time the project was first proposed until the time it was finally approved. The long delays had multiple negative impacts on the projects and the people involved in them, and there seemed to be a variety of reasons for the delays.

Some of the projects need to be initiated in a particular season. This is true of agricultural projects that depend on certain weather conditions in each stage. It is also true of projects that required travel to areas that are difficult to reach during rainy seasons. In both cases, even a slight delay in approval of the project could set the project back by a whole year while the implementers wait for the appropriate season.

Several of the UN officers expressed concern over the effect that the delays had on their relationships with local communities. This is a particular problem in projects that involve local communities deeply in the design and planning process. By engaging with local communities before the project is approved, UN staff raise expectations that they will be able to provide certain services to the communities who participate. When they are not able to deliver in a timely manner, it becomes more difficult to keep the communities’ trust. This is a particularly serious problem in human security projects, which depend on strong communication and mutual respect and trust as a part of the empowerment process. One of the advantages—and challenges—of human security projects is that they try to open people up to new participatory processes that might feel somewhat uncomfortable at first, but is easy for them to become disenchanted with the new processes if they do not realize immediate results.

Needless to say, one of the biggest challenges in improving the management of the TFHS is finding a way to streamline the application and approval process to substantially shorten the timeframe. Clarifying the criteria for eligibility and the application process will considerably shorten the long screening timeframe presently needed. The director of one of the projects mentioned that her office did not even have enough information to know how to approach the fund. After making several mistaken approaches to various offices within the UN system, they were finally informed that their proposal had to first go to the Japanese government. This confusion not only delayed the start of the project, it also meant that a lot of time and
effort was wasted each time they prepared a concept paper for the wrong office.

Most of the project staff cited a frustrating process of dealing first with the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) and then with the Controllers Office at the United Nations. After undergoing a long process of negotiation with MOFA, via the local Japanese embassy, they began the negotiation process again with the Controllers Office, which was following a different set of guidelines and restrictions than MOFA. The applicants with whom the team met invariably sensed a need for closer coordination and dialogue between the two offices so that the process could proceed more smoothly and quickly. All of the UN staff with whom the project team met expressed a strong interest in having clear guidelines and criteria from the outset. Often, applicants found themselves confused about what was and was not eligible for funding. They were informed of restrictions only after proposing elements that were not eligible. While one project director mentioned having received a kind of checklist from a colleague in Tokyo, none of the other directors had seen such a document. They acknowledged that such a list would have been an extremely helpful resource when they were applying.

Enhanced role of Japanese embassies in managing the TFHS

One resource that seemed to be underutilized was the local Japanese embassies. Negotiations with MOFA were conducted through the local embassies in most cases, but the embassy staff seemed to play little more than an intermediary role. The embassy staff, however, are actually in a position to be able to identify the needs of the target communities, and their input into projects’ appropriateness and feasibility at early stages could be a valuable resource for the fund in the screening process. In addition, empowering embassy staff to give substantive feedback and make recommendations to MOFA could simplify the application process by allowing applicants to negotiate directly with the embassy in person rather than spending more time and increasing the chances of misunderstanding by going through an intermediary.

Japan’s Official Development Assistance Charter, which was newly revised in August 2003, emphasizes the “perspective of human security” as one of its basic policies. This development may re-orient the embassy staff in charge to be better prepared to facilitate the activities of the fund.
One major challenge to this, however, is determining how to encourage the Japanese government to increase the number of staff members who can professionally play a catalytic role in promoting human security projects of all kinds, including activities related to the TFHS. In addition, there is a need for coordination or integration among the divisions that are separately in charge of the TFHS and the Grassroots Human Security Grant Fund within the embassies.

**Adopting more flexible approaches**

Human security needs and approaches vary significantly by country and even by community within a single country. In addition, the emphasis on local communities’ participation in the conception, design, planning, and implementation phases means that any number of needs may be identified as human security priorities. Project directors need to have the flexibility to tailor their projects to the needs and priorities elicited from the communities, not to strict criteria that are developed outside of the local context. A more directive approach from the fund would not be compatible with the elictive approach that it requires of its applicants.

Needs, priorities, and capacities change quickly in the kinds of places where TFHS projects are implemented, particularly in societies engaged in violent conflict or emerging from violent conflict. Project activities and approaches, however, are agreed upon and committed to in the application process. Many UN officials suggested that more flexibility to change the details of their activities, and sometimes the activities themselves, would have made them better able to respond to more volatile situations and to meet real needs as they emerged. In addition, they requested more flexibility in changing their project budgets after they were approved to better respond to changing needs and realities. Allowing project directors a certain amount of discretionary funding in their budgets from the beginning could help address this concern.

**Increasing flexibility in financial management of the TFHS**

Participatory processes, human interaction, and capacity building are all important elements of human security projects. Those elements all require significant inputs of staff time, requiring adequate funds for salaries. The
fund’s preference for local experts over international consultants is a wise preference and responds well to the need for local capacity building and empowerment. Often, however, the appropriate expertise is not yet available locally. Careful use of international consultants can build significant local expertise and can save resources over time as people on the ground learn new skills and approaches.

Participatory processes take a longer time than directive processes, and they require high fees for good facilitation. A participatory process can, however, lead to less waste by creating projects that truly respond to real needs on the ground and empower people (learning by doing) so that, in the long term, the need for expensive international intervention is decreased.

Often, UN agencies require research funds in order to assess project feasibility and identify the appropriate target populations. Without such funds, many agencies have to rely on national and local governments for the guidance and information they need.

Several of the UN officers expressed frustration at not being able to use TFHS funds to train government officials. Government leaders have been identified as key actors both in protecting people from vulnerabilities and in contributing to people’s vulnerability. By engaging and educating them, project staff hope to decrease their role as potential threats and strengthen their role as responsible protectors who are in touch with the needs, priorities, and capacities of the populations they are protecting. Allowing applicants to include training of government leaders in their budgets would make it possible for them to integrate such important efforts into their projects.

**IV. Future Agenda**

The project team has identified several future agenda items that the TFHS might consider in further refining its understanding of what makes an effective human security project. Following are a few examples.

In order to effectively implement a new concept, particularly a concept as complex as human security, there is a clear need for regular feedback on how the concept is being implemented and what the common challenges and lessons are. By creating mechanisms for feedback and review, the fund can raise understanding of how the concept can be better operationalized and can incorporate more innovative ideas that are based on real experiences at the ground level.
The current research project focuses on design and implementation, so the emphasis of the fieldwork was on talking with the people most directly involved in those stages. The project team was not, however, able to talk directly with the projects’ target populations in most cases due to limited time and budget. Future research on the perspective of and impact on target populations is critical to a deep understanding of the people-centered approach of a human security project.

It could be useful for the TFHS to look more deeply at the relationships that UN agencies formed with local, national, and international NGOs as well as community-based organizations in designing and implementing their projects. Questions of how NGOs were engaged in the projects, what sort of relationships were formed, whether or not the relationships were sustained beyond the duration of the project, the impact of participation on the NGOs, challenges faced by both UN agencies and NGOs, the capacities and resources that were needed, and lessons learned from the relationships could provide valuable insight for future human security projects.

The project team found that there is very little work that has been done on implementing human security projects in countries with repressive regimes. It is in these countries where human security is often most threatened, and engaging repressive regimes on human security projects may help convince leaders of their own interests in supporting human security projects. On the other hand, strict requirements for engagement with policymakers may rule out highly important projects in these countries, where leaders are more likely to consider community empowerment and human security a threat to their own power. Research could be done first on the potential impact of human security projects in countries with repressive regimes, both positively—in terms of improved human security—and negatively—in terms of legitimization of the regime. Next, the TFHS could look at questions of the desirable level of engagement with government leaders in repressive regimes, how to engage such government leaders and under what circumstances, any differences between general TFHS guidelines and guidelines for implementing projects in countries with repressive regimes, and particular mechanisms for monitoring such projects.

Similarly, it could be helpful to have more research on human security projects targeted at migrant populations considered illegal by their host governments. Governments and surrounding communities with acknowledged legal rights are unlikely to place priority on protection of illegal populations’ human security needs, making it difficult for UN agencies to engage governments in projects that target such populations. The Commission
on Human Security has identified people on the move as high-priority target populations for human security projects. Many people around the world who are on the move cross national borders illegally without being granted any kind of legal status in the receiving country. The TFHS does not currently have any mechanisms for providing for those populations’ human security needs and might find research on this area useful.

The new guidelines that the TFHS has developed will require integration of two or more UN agencies in all new projects that are proposed. While the project team found this to be a good idea, as discussed above, it also found that the fund would need to develop some new mechanisms for joint planning of activities and joint administration of funds among agencies.

The Japanese government has mechanisms other than the TFHS to support human security projects, such as the Grassroots Human Security Grant Fund. Future research focused on connecting the various sources of funding could lead to more effective complementary use of all of the funding sources available for addressing human security needs around the world.

It could be useful to undertake more research on mechanisms to ensure flexibility and accountability on the ground, including regular meetings among the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, local governments, NGOs, Japanese embassies, local UN staff, and other stakeholders. Such mechanisms could also be used to increase the shared sense of urgency of human security threats in a community among the various actors.

As discussed above, there is not a shared understanding among diverse actors of the concept of human security, let alone how it can be operationalized. More research on how to promote understanding of the human security approach among various actors could be useful in further disseminating the concept and developing effective strategies on the ground for addressing human security needs.
## Description of the five targeted projects

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<tr>
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<th>Trafficking</th>
<th>Tobelo-Galela</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1) Profile</strong></td>
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<td>Primary UN Agency</td>
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<td>UNDP/UNOPS</td>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>ESCAP</td>
<td>ILO</td>
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<td><strong>Budget</strong></td>
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<td>US$5,081,683</td>
<td>US$374,500</td>
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<td>US$1,179,092</td>
<td>US$1,415,529</td>
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<td>Phase I: US$141,250</td>
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<td>Phases II–III: US$480,430</td>
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<td>Phases IV–V: US$244,990</td>
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<td><strong>Duration</strong></td>
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<td>(Total span: January 2002–December 2006)</td>
<td><strong>Target area</strong></td>
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<td>Ainaro: 3 sucos (Hato Builico, Hato, and Maubisse) of Ainaro subdistrict</td>
<td>Vietnam: Soc Son District, Ha Noi Province</td>
<td>Laos: 3 districts (Sisatanak District, Vientiane; Nambac District, Luang Prabang Province; Champassak District, Champassack Province)</td>
<td>4 provinces in Cambodia: possibly Prey Veng, Sihanoukville, Banteay Meanchey, and Battambang provinces</td>
<td>Galela, Tobelo, Tobelo Selatan, North Halmahera District in North Maluku Province (Contiguous, 3-sub-district, conflict-affected area in eastern Indonesia)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Manatuto: 37 villages in three sub-districts (Lachubar, Soibada and Natarbora) in East Timor</td>
<td></td>
<td>Phase one: 5 communities (Pannee, Boonuler, Romkloa, Ruamsamakee, and Rintang Dang Bangna), Bangkok, Thailand</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>This is a part of the North Maluku and Maluku</em></td>
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<td>Current Phases: A total of 25 communities (5 per country) in Phnom Penh, Cambodia;</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 provinces in Cambodia: possibly Can Tho Provinces, Tay Ninh Provinces, and Ho Chi Minh City</td>
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<tr>
<td>Galela, Tobelo, Tobelo Selatan, North Halmahera District in North Maluku Province (Contiguous, 3-sub-district, conflict-affected area in eastern Indonesia)</td>
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AMCAP Social Safety Net Human Dignity Trafficking Tobelo-Galela

Table:

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<td></td>
<td>Yogyakarta, Indonesia; Vientiane, Laos; Chiang Mai and Chiang Rai, Thailand; Danang, Hue, and Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam</td>
<td>two types of poor communities: geographical (defined by a location) and non-geographical (defined by similar situation/condition, such as people with disabilities in Yogyakarta or with HIV in Chiang Rai)</td>
<td>children and women at high risk of trafficking</td>
<td>Recovery Programme executed by UNDP, which is in its second phase following relief operations and reconciliation activities.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Target population

- upland and lowland farmers: 11,895 households, 63,741 residents
- farmers and the poor who are working in the informal sector who cannot afford to pay service fees for health care
- two types of poor communities: geographical (defined by a location) and non-geographical (defined by similar situation/condition, such as people with disabilities in Yogyakarta or with HIV in Chiang Rai)
- children and women at high risk of trafficking

Objectives

- increase food security and incomes of poor households in Ainaro and Manatuto districts on an environmentally sustainable basis, using community-focused participatory methodologies and promoting adoption of new techniques
- create social protection or security from the financial burden of paying for health care
- increase funding for health care at the local level through introduction of a commune-based insurance scheme
- promote adoption by local governments of approaches to policy formulation and implementation based on community participation and the establishment of partnerships between all stakeholders
- enhance social and economic conditions of the target communities through the use of tools and mechanisms based on social mobilization and participation by community members
- build community capacity to prevent trafficking in children and women by setting up and maintaining holistic community-based preventive interventions against trafficking in children and women in a participatory manner

The Area-Based Recovery Approach does not advocate selection of "target populations" but concentrates its support within "target areas" that demonstrate great need. Primary beneficiaries of this project, therefore, are conflict-affected communities within the target area. Special attention is given to the vulnerable, particularly formerly displaced persons within their communities of return.
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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
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<td>- upland and lowland farming (Ainaro &amp; Manatuto)</td>
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<td>- rice cultivation</td>
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<td>- improved livestock</td>
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<td>- seed multiplication (Natarbora in Manatuto)</td>
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<td>- nursery development</td>
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<td>- Ainaro Community Training Centre and Library</td>
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<td>- community nutrition, health, and post-conflict reconciliation</td>
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<td>Laos</td>
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<td>- implement one of the pilot projects conducted for improvement of existing voluntary health insurance for the poor</td>
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<td>- encourage the government to integrate the findings into their national policy</td>
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<td>- build awareness and conduct promotion campaign with leaders in politics and health about the importance of pre-payment and risk-sharing at the community level</td>
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<td>- build capacity in the community and with the community leaders: teach basics of health financing and insurance; teach regulations and management of the insurance scheme; include leaders in communication with</td>
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<td>Each community decides their own issues to address and priorities.</td>
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<td>Phase I: Pannée: building pedestrian bridges</td>
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<td>Boonluer: cleaning their canal</td>
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<td>Ruamsamakee: constructing a multi-purpose center</td>
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<td>Rimtang Duan Bangna: improving the water supply</td>
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<td>Current Phases:</td>
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<td>Phnom Penh (low-income):</td>
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<td>Anglung Korng (raising land to prevent flooding of homes)</td>
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<td>Rostest Plang Bay (children’s literacy and health education)</td>
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<td>Yogjakarta (disabilities): Téban (improving access to healthcare, capacity and building), Sewon</td>
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<td>- awareness raising</td>
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<td>- rural skills training for food security and income generation</td>
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<td>- development and empowerment of Village Development Committees (Cambodia)/People’s Committees (Vietnam)</td>
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<td>Vietnam</td>
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<td>Vietnam</td>
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<td>- remunerative labor-intensive public works to support post-conflict clean-up of urban areas (accounting for 70% of the fund)</td>
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<td>- support to local government for re-establishment of revolving credit schemes, providing agricultural and fisheries inputs to vulnerable groups whose livelihoods have been destroyed</td>
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<td>- technical support and small, start-up grants to vulnerable women with children needing a livelihood</td>
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<td>- training provided to mixed groups of village returnees and communities of return to enhance reconciliation and normalization processes</td>
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<td>AMCAP</td>
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<td>population around health financing issues; train collectors in each village - persuade health care providers to accept a capitation (poll tax) payment system and guarantee provision of health services - implement three pilot projects of community-based health insurance schemes - encourage the government to adopt the findings into their national policy</td>
<td>(public awareness campaign) Vientiane (low-income): Don Palaep (chicken and frog raising), Nongtha Tai Village (road building, village fund for community development) Chiang Mai (the elderly and young): Wat Daowadoung (health care and education), Wat Muen Sarin (income generation) Chiang Rai (living with HIV/AIDS): San Makhed (income generation, growing and usage of traditional herbal remedies) Ho Chi Minh: provision of fire extinguishers Hue: construction of rescue boat, health examination Danang: sewage system repair, establishment of credit fund</td>
<td>and income generation activities - support to the district court and other legal professionals, via an experienced national, legal advocacy NGO (PBH: the Indonesian Legal Aid and Human Rights Association) to deal with post-conflict legal issues, as well as to develop and carry out a legal literacy campaign in conflict-affected villages - support to the new North Halmahera District government and civil society to establish inclusive, participatory planning processes - rehabilitation or reconstruction of 28 primary and junior secondary schools across the 3 sub-districts - rehabilitation or reconstruction of community centers in the 3 sub-district capitals</td>
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</table>

2) How the target population was identified

- Japanese joint mission visited Ainaro and identified the district as a relevant area (the poorest area) and UN staff, including a technical assistant, and a consultant visited 21 villages to grasp the situation in detail.

- Vietnam: Social health insurance has been introduced for active and retired salaried workers on the basis of voluntary membership. However, the voluntary affiliation

- Laos: Social health insurance for the formal salaried sector has just been introduced and the Ministry of Health was keen to have schemes for the

- ESCAP selects local counterparts through consultations with other UN agencies and associations such as the Asian Coalition for Housing Rights. ESCAP then works with the local counterpart to identify potential communities

- ILO-IPEC has been conducting a series of research projects on the situation of trafficking in the Greater Mekong sub-region and has been implementing a sub-regional project to combat trafficking funded by the

- Several post-conflict assessment and fact-finding missions to North Maluku were carried out by UNDP in coordination with the central and provincial governments and concerned donor country representatives.
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<tr>
<td>- Manatuto was added to the target area by the Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery of East Timor.</td>
<td>- was not working, and the government did not want to have community-based health insurance schemes that were separate from the existing Vietnam Health Insurance System. Therefore, the project was confined only to a pilot project in one district. - Soc Son district was identified by the Vietnam Social Security Agency. Apart from Soc Son, they recently introduced a similar commune health insurance scheme in three more provinces (Hai Phong, Vinh Phuc, and Ho Chi Minh) where two communes in each of the provinces were selected for the project.</td>
<td>- informal sector, which is more than 80% of the population. Inspiration was sought especially in the Philippine model of community-based health insurance schemes. - The target districts (for the pilot schemes) were identified first by the Health Insurance Team formulating requirements, next by the provincial government proposing districts, and finally through a mission that looked at feasibility. based on a preliminary general overview of the situation.</td>
<td>- UK Department for International Development. Through the agency’s experience in the sub-region, the target groups and target sites were identified. However, considering the time lag (between the time the project proposal was formulated and the project implementation start date), target sites will be discussed again with key stakeholders in each country and will be determined in accordance with the up-to-date local situation and needs.</td>
<td>- A 3-sub-district area in North Halmahera (North Maluku Province) was the scene of some of the province's fiercest fighting; nearly all villages within the area of 1,465 square kilometers were completely destroyed and approximately 27,615 persons or 6,387 families were displaced. These figures represent the largest number of severely conflict-affected persons within a concentrated area. - The Indonesian government's efforts to repatriate and provide basic or temporary housing for IDPs (internally displaced persons) was complemented by emergency assistance from donors. - The Indonesian government's formal recognition of the area's need for a recovery program to support human security, and, therefore, the durability of returns, coincided with a multi-donor mission in 2000.</td>
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</table>
3) Procedure of application

- An international consultant drafted the proposal based on site visits and submitted it to the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA).
- Following discussions between the prime minister and the UNDP resident representative, they changed the structure of the project from employing international staff to engaging local human resources and providing adequate training by Japanese NGOs. They faced difficulties in getting approval for the change from the Controllers Office. The 10-month procedure delayed the start of the project and has affected its implementation.

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<td>district offices. The committees undertake their tasks, and both the tasks and the processes are evaluated. Follow-up activities are then identified.</td>
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- ESCAP was initially contacted by the Embassy of Japan and was urged to submit a proposal to the TFHS.
- ILO-IPEC staff in Bangkok received concise guidelines for project proposals to the TFHS from the ILO Japan Office.
- The ILO Japan Office communicated with ILO-IPEC staff in Bangkok, ILO Headquarters, and MOFA.
- The project proposal was prepared by ILO-IPEC staff in Bangkok with input of other ILO colleagues.
- ILO Headquarters submitted the proposal to UN headquarters in December 2002, and it was approved in May 2003 by the government of Japan.
- The agreement between the UN and ILO was signed in July 2003.
- Consultations with representatives of the Embassy of Japan were followed by successful proposals to Japan’s MOFA and the UN authorities managing the TFHS.
- The UNDP Jakarta office staff did not find any difficulties in getting approval from MOFA and the UN Controllers Office.
### Structure of Decision Making and Implementation

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| -There are decision-making mechanisms at the national and district levels with involvement by governments. They meet on a monthly basis. | -Vietnam:  
- The Vietnam Social Security Agency decided on the framework in consultation with the Ministry of Finance and General Confederation of Labor and gave guidelines to local governments, the province (Hanoi Social Insurance), and the district (Soc Son).  
- A committee for each pilot site was set up and coordinated by the local/provincial social security branch in close cooperation with local government.  
- At the district level, the Commune People’s Committee, vice chairmen of the commune, and leaders of mass organizations were the mechanism for decision making and encouraging people in the community to join in the health insurance scheme. | -Laos:  
- The Ministerial Management Committee for CBHI and a health insurance team were formed at the Ministry of Health (MOH). The team consists of an international staff and three national staff seconded from the MOH.  
- A district level management committee was developed at each site to run the schemes on a daily basis. | -Each community establishes a project committee composed of community members, local counterparts, and representatives of relevant stakeholders. For example, in Chiang Rai, Thailand, local health officials are part of the committee; in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, representatives of the Waste Collector’s Syndicate and the Women’s Union were included. All members of the committee have equal ranking and the meetings are facilitated by the local counterpart.  
- ESCAP staff act as advisors to the committees. | -A project coordinator (who will be assisted by a secretary) will be appointed in each country.  
- The project coordinator will serve as a country project coordinator and will ensure a comprehensive and integrated country program. The program coordinator will be supported by ILO-IPEC Bangkok.  
- The project coordinator will convene stakeholder workshops with participation of government and NGOs to determine the target geographical sites/communities and select implementing agencies.  
- Participants at the national level include representatives of the National Steering Committee and the Project Advisory Committee for ILO-IPEC, established in the national government.  
- Selected implementing agencies (local governments or NGOs, generally with experience in community development or anti-trafficking activities) will work  
- Consistent with UNDP’s model for area development, an inclusive, area-based decision-making mechanism was established. The Community Programme Board of Galela-Tobelo (CPB) brings together representatives from a variety of stakeholder groups within each of the formerly conflicted communities.  
- The CPB’s 16 members include representatives of various levels of local government and local administration, religious leaders, women and youth group leaders, representatives of vulnerable or minority populations, as well as members of the district justice system, education, and private sectors.  
- Members met regularly over several months in late 2002 to reach consensus on their area’s priority needs for recovery and development, discuss possibilities for appropriate implementation partners, and allocate funds within each prioritized sector. |
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<td>with target communities to develop and conduct community-based preventive interventions against trafficking.</td>
<td>-Project concepts and proposals were examined and 44 project concepts were recommended to UNDP for further development and funding.</td>
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<td>-Those community-based interventions include capacity building of the existing Village Development Committees (VDC) or People's Committees in each village. Normally they are composed of key persons in communities, such as village heads and school teachers, who are elected by villagers. If the committees do not already exist, they will be established through villagers' participation. They will play a key role in raising awareness, mobilizing the community, and generating income generation.</td>
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<td>-Details of interventions will be determined in consultation with key villagers (including VDC members, children, young women, and parents).</td>
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<td>-Project coordinators and other ILO-IPEC colleagues will support the development and implementation of those community-based interventions.</td>
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</table>
### 5) Approaches

- Community-based development
- Involvement of local government from the design stage (ownership)
- Utilization of local human resources (national capacity building)

*A Project Coordination Unit (PCU) was organized with a project coordinator, and assistant project coordinator, 13 extension facilitators, and 3 UN volunteer extension mentors. The PCU coordinates all the projects, especially in Ainaro, with the assistance of the International Development Center of Japan (IDCJ) and UNDP and UNOPS local staff. They evaluate the roles of village facilitators who assist communication between villages and the PCU on a voluntary basis.*

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<td>- Project coordinators keep necessary communication with all key stakeholders including governmental (national, provincial, and district) and implementing agencies to ensure smooth implementation of the program.</td>
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- Involvement of ownership
- Influencing national policy

**Vietnam:**
- Involvement of local government
- Involving national policy

**Laos:**
- Involvement of local government (ownership)
- Promoting understanding of community-based health insurance schemes among public agencies and communities
- Management by district people (collectors and representatives of authorities), no external financial support for the management costs

- Involvement of community as a key actor (ownership)
- Labor intensive
- Promoting understanding of community-based approach within public agencies and communities

- Community-based participatory approach
- Integrated approach toward community empowerment (providing awareness raising and education combined with skills training and income generation activities for sustainable livelihoods)

- Multi-sector and area-based programming
- Participatory, inclusive, cross-community decision making delivered through the CPB as well as existing local mechanisms such as village councils, school committees, market associations, and cooperatives
- Recovery activities empower and build capacities of local government structures, as well as civil society
- Complementarity of programming and funding: Government recovery efforts in housing and repatriation were complemented by providing public services, infrastructure, and reconciliation activities in communities of return; CPB priorities that could not be funded under the TFHS were funded.
**AMCAP**

- comprehensive approach: agriculture, commerce, and health

**Social Safety Net**

- help each villager understand that the project aims not to provide them with food but to assist them in strengthening their own capacity of food production and income generation.
- UN assigns each community a village facilitator, who assists in communication between the project coordinator unit and villagers, and extension facilitators, who promote adoption and understanding of new technologies. Village facilitators were trained by extension facilitators (national) who were in turn trained by international technical assistants.

**Human Dignity**

- help the people in the community understand insurance concepts, such as pre-payment, risk pooling, cost sharing, and capitation payment, to enable them to tackle with their own health threats in the future
- facilitate the residents deciding the priority of their problems and collaborating to overcome them
- recognize mechanisms existing in the community that facilitate cooperation and participation
- provide community members with skills to participate in the formulation, implementation, and monitoring of community development activities
- ensure that the majority of the community (not only the community leaders) has a voice in the decision-making process
- mediate in the relationship between the community and
- not only educate those at risk of trafficking (children and young women) but whole communities that have family members in risk groups. Education is combined with provision of skills training for food security and income generation. VDC will play a key role in raising awareness, mobilizing the community, and generating income alternatives.

** Trafficking**

- via other sources under the North Maluku and Maluku Recovery Programme
- Transitional approach allows for flexible programming based on local realities: Some “emergency” types of activities may be implemented where most needed while recovery and development activities are simultaneously implemented in other parts of the target area.

**Tobelo-Galela**

- Establishment of CPB and building its capacities have enabled several developments:
  - A broadened sense of community ownership of stabilization and reconciliation processes;
  - Broadened, more equitable access to representation in “collaborative” decision-making mechanisms
  - Direct participation in ensuring accountability and transparency in distribution of resources for recovery, as well as shared responsibility for ensuring the quality of assistance and services delivered.

**Approach community empowerment**

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- The Project Coordination Unit (East Timorese coordinator, assistant coordinator, and 3 international technical assistants) coordinates the whole project. Ainaro: IDCJ: provides project management training Farmers' groups, women's

- In both countries, partnerships were sought with existing public agencies and public health care providers. Vietnam: Vietnam Social Security Agency, Hanoi Health Insurance Department, Soc Son Commune People's

- Local counterpart, central and local governments, communities.

  * Depending on the situation, other actors may be involved such as academia in Phase I and other organizations such as youth volunteers in Laos.

Cambodia: Ministry of Social Affairs, Labour, Vocational Training and Youth Rehabilitation at central, provincial and district levels; the Healthcare Centre for Children, a local NGO; and the Cambodian Center for Protection of Children's Rights (CCPCR), also a local NGO

- UNICEF: providing educational kit

District and sub-district line agencies, particularly those most involved prior to the conflict in local economic development, management of natural resources, reconstruction and public works, and capacity building.
**AMCAP** | **Social Safety Net** | **Human Dignity** | ** Trafficking** | **Tobelo-Galela**
---|---|---|---|---
groups, Governmental agencies (central, district, village) Manatuto Halarae (local NGO), farmers’ groups, women’s groups, Governmental agencies (central, district, village) | Committee, farmers’ union, women’s union, party committee, health center | | Vietnam: Ministry of Labour, Invalids, and Social Affairs at central, provincial and district levels; Vietnamese Women’s Union; the Committee for Population, Family and Children; and ILO | Local public utility companies - World Vision Indonesia - Religious and traditional (Adat) leaders; Padamara Polytechnic Institute; local nonprofit radio and newspaper; youth organizations; women’s groups

*In this project, women’s participation has been emphasized.*

**Involvement of local government**

- Even in the process of drafting the project, the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery was involved substantially.
- Through the steering committee at the national and district level, this project has involved local governments in decision-making processes, and they have a sense of ownership of the project.

In Phase I: The Urban Community Development Office (UCDO) was the core partner for identifying targets and implementing projects. UCDO was set up by the government of Thailand in 1992 to reform the housing conditions of the poor with a revolving fund (US$50 million). In 2001, UCDO integrated with the Rural Development Fund to form the Community Organizations Development Institute with funding (US$77 million) under the Ministry of Finance. However, it is administered by an independent board.

- Prevention of trafficking requires a multi-layered response, which requires involvement of various ministries such as labor, education, agriculture, and rural development.
- Meaningful coordination among the line-ministries is always a challenge.
- When the local government develops and implements national policy and legal frameworks against trafficking (e.g., the National Plan of Action against Trafficking), government needs to integrate the multiple response approach with a built-in component of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for using information from

- Initial consultation was done with the central government. They did not want to accept that there was conflict within the country, so UNDP did not use “conflict” but “area recovery” in the project title.
- As decentralization has proceeded, most procurements have been done in collaboration with local governments.
- Local governments are involved in the Community Programme Board.
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<td>and agencies, disseminate and explain new ideas, encourage people to join the health insurance scheme, participate in fee collection and monitoring, convey feedbacks to health service and health insurance system, and help to improve the performance of those systems.</td>
<td>supports the process and provides some of the technical assistance (evaluating quality of road work) Indonesia: Local government officials involved in implementation of project and formulation of follow-up activities</td>
<td>Laos: District Labour and Social Welfare officers are members of the project committees&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;Thailand: Local health officers are members of project committee&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;Vietnam: Local authorities are members of project committee</td>
<td>the ILO project of what works well and what does not at a community level.</td>
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<td>Laos: The local authorities help manage the insurance scheme (district governor: 2 hours per month as chair of the Management Committee for CBHI). Local governments' acceptance of CBHI scheme is promoted through seminars and persuasion of the central government. They believe in social benefits for the population.</td>
<td>* The main obstacle to promoting understanding is the general perception by local officials that people are poor because they don't work hard enough or they use drugs or are not honest. However, there are different levels of understanding. Interestingly enough, in some places officials are sympathetic to this approach but do not know how to implement it and what it entails. The most difficult situation concerning local officials</td>
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*The ILO project of what works well and what does not at a community level.*
## Involvement of NGOs and CSOs

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<td>occurs in Cambodia where the relation between local governments and communities has been conflictive for a very long time; therefore, there is a resistance to community-based initiatives.</td>
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### Laos
- Mass organizations such as the women's union and farmers' union played an important role in bridging the people and government. They sometimes visited households and explained the concept of insurance.
- Phase I - Thailand: UCDO (Urban Community Development Organization, currently CODE: Community Organization Development Institute)
- Current Phases: Cambodia: Cambodian Volunteers for Community Development
- Laos: Village Focus International
- Indonesia: Dri Mannunggal (Institute of Research, Empowerment and Development for People with Different Abilities)
- Thailand: Heinrich Boll Foundation, Sustainable Alternative Development Association and Thai Network of People Living with HIV
- Vietnam: Environment and Development in Action
- In Cambodia, where there are several active local NGOs, they have been identified and selected as implementing agencies for the community-based program, based on technical and financial criteria such as reputation, track record, capacity to absorb the ILO project into their current workload, and financial reliability. They will cooperate with local government at the provincial and district levels.
- In Vietnam, where there are no local NGOs, some mass organizations (such as the Vietnamese Women's Union) have been selected as implementing agencies in close cooperation with local government at the provincial and district levels.
- The implementing agencies will be closely supported by country project coordinators

### Vietnam
- Mass organizations such as the women's union and farmers' union played an important role in bridging the people and government. They sometimes visited households and explained the concept of insurance.
- In Cambodia, where there are several active local NGOs, they have been identified and selected as implementing agencies for the community-based program, based on technical and financial criteria such as reputation, track record, capacity to absorb the ILO project into their current workload, and financial reliability. They will cooperate with local government at the provincial and district levels.
- In Vietnam, where there are no local NGOs, some mass organizations (such as the Vietnamese Women's Union) have been selected as implementing agencies in close cooperation with local government at the provincial and district levels.
- The implementing agencies will be closely supported by country project coordinators

### Laos
- Mass organizations have helped to organize discussions with the population. Local resource persons assisting the health insurance project team often come from mass organizations.

### Cambodia
- Involvement of NGOs and CSOs
- IDCJ provided the Project Coordinator Unit in Ainaro with project management training.
- Halarae, a local NGO, was selected as implementor of Manatuto projects after public recruitment through the local newspaper. Because they had little experience managing such a big project, the National Steering Committee decided to provide them with training support from a Bangladeshi NGO.

### Indonesia
- World Vision Indonesia (implementing partner for UNICEF's Enhancing Teachers' Capacity in Peace Education, teacher training, and peace-building activities in schools)
- They have already been implementing North Maluku Emergency Response since 2000 and North Maluku Peace and Rehabilitation
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<td>Program since 2001. The Enhancing Teachers’ Capacity in Peace Education is adapting UNICEF’s methodology for “Active Joyful, and Effective Learning.”</td>
</tr>
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**Involvement of Japanese Embassy**

- MOFA was involved directly in the process of target identification and design. (The Japanese Embassy in East Timor just opened in January 2004.)
- There was no involvement by the Japanese Embassy in Manila. The project designers were in direct contact with MOFA in Tokyo.
- Japanese Embassy urged AMCAP to apply to the TFHS. *This project was the first one funded by TFHS.*
- At the Japanese Embassy in Bangkok, the permanent representative of Japan to ESCAP is in charge of TFHS projects. Embassy staff consulted initially with UN agencies about the possibility of utilization of the TFHS. There is no coordination with the Economic Division which is in charge of Grassroots Grants for Human Security.
- The Japanese embassy in both locations is cooperative and showed appreciation for timely reporting (such as key events) but indicated to the project team that regular reporting would not be obligatory.
- After gaining approval from MOFA and the Controllers Office, UNDP staff made contact with representatives at the embassy and got constructive advice and support.
- At the Japanese Embassy in Jakarta, the Economic Division is in charge of the TFHS and Grassroots Grants for Human Security. The UN-led Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) monthly meeting seems to be a good opportunity for UN agencies, embassies, government, and international NGOs to exchange information and search for possibilities for collaboration.
- The Economic Division also facilitates contacts between UNDP and the government of Japan, as well as with other relevant actors.
### AMCAP

**Roles of UN staff**

- Local UN staff (UNDP and UNOPS) are deeply committed to assisting in project management. They visit the project sites at least once a month.

  - UNDP: overall coordination
  - UNOPS: a full-time project management staff has been assigned to support management of activities in Ainaro and Manatuto. She communicates with the project coordinators and facilitates communication with the group (village) leaders as well.

- Providing technical assistance to the national public officers

**Social Safety Net**

- Facilitation and communication
- Provision of training
- Mediation between local governments and communities
- Advising on managerial and technical issues. For example, in Indonesia, the structure of the revolving fund for business initiated by people with disabilities was formulated by the ESCAP staff; in Cambodia the procedure for the establishment of community enterprises was also formulated by ESCAP staff.

**Human Dignity**

- ILO-IPEC Bangkok: total coordination
- In each country: one project coordinator and one secretary

** Trafficking**

**Tobelo-Galela**

[Field Level]

1) The Area-Based Programme’s field office in Tobelo-Galela develops project concepts recommended by the CPB; provides ongoing technical support to project partners; supervises and monitors projects’ progress and delivery; supports missions, external consultants, and provincial-level program activities; recommends additional assistance inputs to UNDP for consideration; administers other projects under the NMMR Programme and feeds experience into future program-wide learning processes. (22 staff, including technical, programmatic, and operational/support)

2) Provincial Programme field office in Ternate (provincial capital) provides support (5 staff).

[Country Level]

Crisis Prevention and Recovery Unit provides programmatic, administrative, and technical support.
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<td><strong>7) Understanding of HS</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>UN staff: They do not use the term human security, but they think the concept of empowering the community is reflected in the poverty reduction projects of UNDP. Project Coordinator Unit: Human security means that the international community pays attention to the people of communities all over the world. Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery: Human security means to reduce poverty and promote food security. It is important to involve the community and foster a sense of responsibility. Local deputy administrator: He has never heard the term human security. The most important thing for him is not to hear any complaints from the people. Group leaders: They have never heard of human security. The major unique aspect of AMCAP is that it encourages communities to take responsibility to improve their own standard of living.</td>
<td>WHO Headquarters: - Social protection, elimination of financial barriers to seeking health care leading to earlier treatment, and protection against catastrophic expenditure for health which is a common cause of poverty. - Directing contribution revenue to the existing public health services in order to improve quality and ensure people’s continued ability to provide necessary services; a mechanism of security of essential social services.</td>
<td>- Human security is freedom from fear and freedom from want. - Human security means developing community-based systems that will enable communities to respond to their own threats. - Human security is usually understood in an international context, but in a country like Thailand there is a division between international and local, and most of the money is flooding into international activities. Human security should be interpreted in the local context.</td>
<td>- Empowerment of the people who need assistance - Sustainability and improvement of livelihoods, which will increase people’s opportunities and choices in life.</td>
<td>[UN staff] - Vulnerable, conflict-affected communities (particularly IDPs and their communities of return) are empowered to more fully reintegrate socially and economically. - Increase inter-community cooperation, defuse tensions, restore livelihoods, provide access to information, restart or rehabilitate basic public services, facilitate access to the justice system, and empower a local government weakened by the conflict and decentralization. - Prepare communities for future rights-based development. [NGO] - Rehabilitation - Community stability - Provide people in the community with training so that they can identify and analyze threats and seek the ways to overcome them.</td>
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Appendices

Key Informants
Tokyo Workshop (Agenda & Participants)
List of Key Informants

United Nations Headquarters, New York

Mr. Chris Kirkcaldy, Financial Management officer, UN Office of the Controller
Ms. Laura Skolnik, former Social Affairs Officer, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
Mr. Kazuo Tase, First Secretary, Permanent Mission of Japan to the United Nations

The Advisory Board on Human Security

Members of the Advisory Board on Human Security
Mr. François Fouinat, Executive Director, Advisory Board on Human Security
Ms. Mernaz Mostafavi, Programme Officer, Advisory Board on Human Security

Japan

Ms. Mitsuko Horiuchi, Director and Special Regional Adviser on Gender Issues, International Labour Organization
Mr. Yasumitsu Doken, Programme Manager, United Nations Development Programme
Mr. Stephano T. Tsukamoto, Director, Humanitarian and Development Assistance Division, International Development Center of Japan
Mr. Kazushito Takase, Director, International Programs, World Vision Japan
Human Security in the United Nations

Mr. Ryo Nakamura, Deputy Director, United Nations Administration Division, Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Mr. Jun Yamada, United Nations Administration Division, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Thailand (November 23–26, 2003)

The Human Dignity Initiative

Prof. Somsook Boonyabancha, President, Community Organization Development Institute
Mr. Jorge Carrillo-Rodriguez, Human Settlements Officer, Poverty Reduction Section, Poverty and Development Division, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
Ms. Mayuri Hirata, Special Assistant to the Permanent Representative of Japan to ESCAP, Embassy of Japan
Ms. Nanda Krairiksh, Chief, Programme Management Division, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
Prof. Saikaew Thipakorn, Institute of Asian Studies, Chulalongkorn University
Mr. Jiro Usui, Counsellor and Deputy Permanent Representative of Japan to ESCAP, Embassy of Japan
Mr. Tim Westbury, Programme Management Officer, Programme Management Division, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

Prevention of Trafficking in Children and Women at Community Level in Cambodia and Vietnam

Ms. Eriko Kiuchi, International Programme Officer, International Labour Organization International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour Mekong Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women: Trafficking

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**Vietnam (November 27–29, 2003)**

**Development of Social Safety Nets for Health in Laos and Vietnam**

Mr. Afsar Akal, Technical Officer on Health Financing and Insurance, World Health Organization, Hanoi
Ms. Pascale Brudon, Representative, World Health Organization
Dr. Doan Tuong Van, International Cooperation Department, Vietnam Social Security Head Office
Mr. Hai, Policy and Regimes Department, Vietnam Social Security Head Office
Mr. Le Hun Tuan, Deputy Secretary of Communist Party, Soc Son District
Mr. Ngo Minh, Chairman of the Fatherland Front Committee, Soc Son District
Mr. Nguyen Chi Dung, Head of Division of Voluntary Health Insurance, Hanoi Social Insurance Bureau
Dr. Nguyen Minh Thao, Vice Director of Hanoi Social Security Bureau (former Director of Hanoi Health Insurance Bureau), Hanoi Social Insurance Bureau
Mr. Nguyen Thanh Tung, International Cooperation Department, Vietnam Social Security Head Office
Mrs. Nguyen Thi Kim Phuong, Public Health Officer, World Health Organization
Mrs. Nguyen Thi Thuy, Vice Director of Social Security Office of Soc Son District
Mr. Nguyen Van Tan, Director of Social Security Office of Soc Son District

**Indonesia (November 30–December 3, 2003)**

**Tobelo-Galela Area Recovery Initiative in Indonesia**

Mr. Siddharth Chatterjee, Chief, Emergency Section, United Nations Children’s Fund
Mr. George Conway, Programme Specialist, Conflict Prevention and Recovery Unit, United Nations Development Programme
Human Security in the United Nations

Mr. Allen Harder, Peace Building Senior Advisor, World Vision Indonesia
Ms. Karen Janjua, Area Projects Manager, North Maluku & Maluku Recovery Programme, United Nations Development Programme
Ms. Haryanti Kadir, National UN Volunteer for income generating projects
Ms. Hj. Maja Matulac-Suhud, Programme Officer, North Maluku & Maluku Recovery Programme, United Nations Development Programme
Ms. Lakhsmi Nuswantari Subandi, Programme Officer for Peace Building, World Vision Indonesia
Mr. Erasmus Ray Ray, coconut oil producer
Mr. Fredy Salama, Official, Trade and Industry Section, North Halmahera
Mr. Kristanto Sinandang, Senior Programme Officer, North Maluku & Maluku Recovery Programme, United Nations Development Programme
Mr. Patrick Sweeting, Head, Conflict Prevention and Recovery Unit, United Nations Development Programme
Mr. Takehiro Wakabayashi, Third Secretary, Economic Division, Japanese Embassy

East Timor (December 4–12, 2003)

Ainaro and Manatuto Community Activation Project (AMCAP)

Mr. Hideaki Asahi, Chargé d’Affaires of the Embassy of Japan
Ms. Anna Barros, Project Coordinator for AMCAP, United Nations Office for Project Services
Mr. Lawry Bee Tin Yeo, Head, United Nations Office for Project Services
Mr. Roberto da Costa Magno, Assistant Project Coordinator, AMCAP
Mr. Estanislau A. da Silva, Minister of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries
Dr. Hiroshi Endo, Extension Mentor, United Nations Office for Project Services
Dr. Muhamamad Mia Abu Sayeed, Extension Mentor, United Nations Office for Project Services
Mr. Jan Meeuwissen, Senior Human Settlements Officer, United Nations Human Settlements Programme
Mr. Manuel Pereira, Deputy District Administrator, Ainaro
Dr. Karunaratne Rasnayake, Extension Mentor, United Nations Office for Project Services
Human Security in the United Nations

Mr. Estanislau Salshinha Martins, Project Coordinator, AMCAP
Mr. Masayoshi Takehara, Assistant Resident Representative, Japan International Cooperation Agency
Mr. Naoki Takyo, Assistant Resident Representative and Chief of Poverty Reduction & Community Development Unit, United Nations Development Programme
Mr. Toshiaki Tanaka, Resident Representative, Japan International Cooperation Agency
Mr. Antonio Victor, Program Officer, Poverty Reduction & Community Development Unit, United Nations Development Programme
Mr. Xu Haoliang, Country Manager and Senior Deputy Resident Representative, United Nations Development Programme
Staff of Halarae, an East Timorese NGO
Group leaders of farmers’ organizations

* The titles were those at the time of the interviews.
Human Security in the United Nations

Tokyo Workshop on Human Security in the United Nations

AGENDA

Friday February 27, 2004

09:00–09:20  Introduction to Project and Workshop
Tadashi Yamamoto, President, Japan Center for International Exchange (JCIE)

09:20–12:30  Session I: Human Security in Action: Cases of Projects Funded by the Trust Fund for Human Security

09:20–10:45  Presentation of Five Projects
Ainaro and Manatuto Community Activation Project (AMCAP) in East Timor:
Estanislau Salsinha Martins, Project Coordinator, AMCAP

Development of Social Safety Nets for Health in Laos and Vietnam:
Laos: Filip de Loop, World Health Organization (WHO), Laos
Vietnam: Nguyen Thi Kim Phuong, Public Health Officer, WHO, Hanoi

The Human Dignity Initiative:
Jorge Carrillo-Rodriguez, Human Settlements Officer, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Thailand

Prevention of Trafficking in Children and Women at a Community Level in Cambodia and Vietnam:
Mitsuko Horiuchi, Director, International Labour Organization Office in Japan

Tobelo-Galela Area Recovery Initiative in Indonesia:
Kristanto Sinandang, Senior Programme Officer, United Nations Development Programme, Indonesia

11:00–11:45  Presentation on Common Elements of the Projects
Susan Hubbard, Program Director for East Asia, Center for International Conflict Resolution, Columbia University
Tomoko Suzuki, Program Officer, JCIE
13:30–15:00  Session 2: Exploring Essential Requirements for Successful Human Security Projects
Moderator: Tadashi Yamamoto

15:15–16:45  Session 3: Effective Partnership for Implementing Human Security Projects
Moderator: Tadashi Yamamoto

Saturday February 28, 2004

09:00–09:15  Overview and Impressions of the first day and Introduction to the second day
Tadashi Yamamoto, President, Japan Center for International Exchange (JCIE)

09:15–11:00  Session 1: Challenges for Management of the Trust Fund for Human Security

09:15–09:45  Presentation on Common Threads in Utilization of Trust Fund for Human Security
Susan Hubbard, Program Director for East Asia, Center for International Conflict Resolution, Columbia University

09:45–11:00  Discussion

11:15–12:30  Session 2: Planning for Next Steps
Tokyo Workshop on Human Security in the United Nations

Participants

Amjad ABBASHAR  Humanitarian Affairs Officer, Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, New York

ACHARYA Amitav  Professor, Deputy Director & Head of Research, Institute for Defence and Strategic Studies, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

Jorge CARRILLO-RODRIGUEZ  Human Settlements Officer, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok

Filip DE LOOF  Officer, World Health Organization (WHO), Vientiane

Yasumitsu DOKEN  Programme Manager, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Tokyo

Bernard DOYLE  Centre Coordinator, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Regional Office for Japan and the Republic of Korea, Tokyo

François FOUINAT  Executive Director, Advisory Board on Human Security, New York

Yoshitaro FUWA  Professor, Graduate School of Environmental Management, Hosei University, Tokyo

Mitsuko HORIUCHI  Director, International Labour Organization, Tokyo

Susan HUBBARD  Program Director for East Asia, Center for International Conflict Resolution, Columbia University, New York

Yasushi KATSUMA  Programme Coordinator, United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), Tokyo

Hideko KATSUMATA  Managing Director and Executive Secretary, Japan Center for International Exchange (JCIE), Tokyo
Human Security in the United Nations

Jacobus KOEN
Program Manager for the North Maluku Rehabilitation Project, World Vision Indonesia, Ternate

Yoshihiko KONO
Executive Advisor, Sasakawa Peace Foundation, Tokyo

Koji MAKINO
Deputy Director and Senior Economist, Planning and Coordination Division, Planning and Evaluation Department, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Tokyo

Hiroshi MINAMI
Director, United Nations Administration Division, Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tokyo

Mehrnaz MOSTAFAVI
Programme Officer, Advisory Board on Human Security, New York

Edward NEWMAN
Academic Officer, Peace and Governance Programme, United Nations University, Tokyo

NGUYEN THI KIM Phuong
Public Health Officer, WHO, Representative Office in Hanoi

Akio NOMURA
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