Human Trafficking in Africa:  
The Role of Universities in Teaching and Research

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ABSTRACT The paper is an attempt to raise awareness and interest among African scholars about the scourge of human trafficking, and the need to embark on a focused socialization process through the teaching of human trafficking as a subject in educational institutions in Africa. Teaching will imbue in the youths the requisite attitude to appreciate the evils of human trafficking and become part of the fight to eliminate them. Enlightenment campaigns through the media, currently prevalent are not sufficient to combat the human trade. The paper argues that though the African states may be weak and ill prepared to fund education, it still concludes that it is only a change introduced through teaching, as a socialization process, encouraged and funded by the state that African youths may acquire the values and attitudes which will enable them to successfully fight human trafficking.

INTRODUCTION

This article is committed to one objective. It is an attempt to intensify academic awareness and sufficient interest among scholars in Africa about a subject matter, human trafficking, generally referred to as modern day slavery; a subject matter to which many African states appear not to have paid sufficient attention. The article suggests a compelling need to embark on a new and specially focused socialization process through the introduction of human trafficking as an academic subject in the curricula of educational institutions in Africa. This is because as a social phenomenon, human trafficking has become a major concern to Africa, and has dominated global attention with enormous resources being invested to combat it. Also, it is evident the phenomenon is having a devastating impact on the people, their civil rights, human and material resources, and indeed on the entire social security of the continent. The concern has prompted the Africa Union (AU) to choose the Day of the African Child in 2009 to launch ‘AU.COMMIT’, an initiative to fight human trafficking in Africa (UNODC 2010). The campaign seeks to make the fight against trafficking in persons a priority on the development agenda of the continent. The AU went further to call on African states to build on the Ouagodougou Action Plan to combat trafficking in human beings. The Action Plan was designed to guide AU member states in developing and reforming their policies and laws on trafficking in persons (UNODC 2010). In spite of the obvious general concern however, there is still lack of active and demonstrable political will on the part of African states to do enough to fight trafficking in persons.

The paper argues that the inability of the African states to demonstrate political will in the fight against human trafficking, which includes the will to see the critical need for the teaching of human trafficking in schools, is related to Africa’s crisis of state, and the consequent lack of capacity and inability to come to terms with the enormity of the social problems, including the human rights violations associated with human trafficking. In the conclusion it argues that without proper socialization process through schools there will be dearth of knowledge for both the citizens and their governments to better understand the phenomenon, human trafficking. And for the same reasons, appropriate policy measures to combat the global trade as it affects Africa will remain inconclusive.

HUMAN TRAFFICKING:  
THE GLOBAL TRADE

Human trafficking has provoked extensive research and wide ranging publications on various aspects and dimensions of the trade (Anderson and Davidson 2003; Bruckert and Parent 2002; Bertone 2000; Kempadoo 2000; Bales 1999; Beare 1999; De Dios 1999; Williams 1999; Salt and Stein 1997). In most of the works the focus has been on what may be considered common
elements associated with human trafficking: its diverse aspects in form of descriptions of actual trafficking organizations, which include the complex network, trafficking activities and the traffickers themselves. Other aspects analyzed are the push and pull factors like wars and conflicts, bad governance, population movements and poverty on one hand and the demand for the labour provided by victims at the destination on the other. Scholars have also examined efforts at legislations and actions to combat human trafficking (Bertone 2000; Kempadoo 2000; Bales 1999; Beare 1999; De Dios 1999; Williams 1999; Salta and Stein 1997; Wijers and Lap-Chew 1997; Skronbanek and Sanghera 1996).

Theoretical frameworks for the analysis of the phenomenon are yet developing. Some scholars have been able to situate their analyses within the broader context of globalization and its impact on human population movements (Bertone 2000; Kempadoo 2000; Beare 1999; De Dios 1999; Williams 1999). In one case Kempadoo (2000: 14-19) examined the global capitalist production system and such issues as restructuring and population movements linked to labour competitiveness in respect of which cheap labour offered by migrants and victims of trafficking provide such cheap and irresistible labour/wage options that could not be easily ignored or resisted by the destination countries. In relation to Africa, it is necessary to add the impacts of the structural adjustment programmes of the 1980s to the globalization dynamics which are argued to have seriously intensified the push factors of the global human trade (Onuoha 2011). The dimensions of the global trade in Sub-Saharan Africa are examines immediately below.

**HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN SUB-SAHARA AFRICA**

International Labour Organization (ILO) paints a grim picture of human trafficking in Sub-Saharan Africa (ILO 2001, 2008a, 2008b, 2012). Although a large number of the victims of human trafficking of African origin are found within the continent, many are also transported to Western Europe and other part of the world (UNODC 2009). In West Africa trafficking activities take place along clearly recognized routes that traverse Senegal, Gambia, Cote d’Ivoire, Benin, Togo, Nigeria, Cameroon, Central African Republic and Gabon. Other routes in the sub-region include those along Burkina Faso, Mali, Mauritania, Niger and Chad (Truong 2006; ILO 2012; Sawadogo 2012). In South Central Africa, trafficking destination in most cases is to the Republic of South Africa considered ‘land of opportunities’. Most victims to South Africa are from Angola, Botswana, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Lesotho, Ethiopia, Malawi, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Truong 2006: 67; IOM Folder 2011). Aside from West Africa where victims work in the cocoa belts (in Cote d’Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Cameroon) under slave conditions or debt bondage, in the rest of Sub-Saharan Africa including South Africa trafficked victims are engaged as commercial sex workers, sex slaves or homosexuals; yet others serve in bars and restaurants, hotels and brothels. Some others work under hazardous conditions in factories, mines and construction; others are into fishing and other agricultural activities and street begging; some are involved as child soldiers in conflict zones (Anti-Slavery International 1999, 2001, 2003a, 2003b; Anarfi 2000: 104-113; Molo Songololo 2000; Petzer and Isaacs 2000: 192-196; Tandia 2000: 240-245; ILO-IPEC 2001; Oguaah and Tengey 2002; Truong 2006: 24, 60-69; IOM 2008; ILO 2012).

Reports reveal growing cases of human ‘organ harvesting’ involving trafficked victims within the Sub-Saharan African region (Consultancy African Intelligence n. d). In addition, there is trafficking of African adult women to Western Europe for sex trade. The Nigerian National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons and other Related Matters (NAPTIP) report of 2009 estimated 10,000 Nigerian women alone in sex trade in Italy, and the number was said to be close to 60% of all prostitutes in the Italian sex trade at the time (NAPTIP 2009; Fajana 2010). Also there are reports of international trafficking of young women to South Africa from Russia, Eastern Europe, Thailand, China and Taiwan involving crime syndicates based in Mozambique, Eastern Europe and Thailand (Petzer and Isaacs 2000: 192-196; Truong 2006: 24, 60-69; IOM 2008). The commonest push factor in all the cases in Sub-Saharan Africa is the search for “better life”. This results into a desire to escape unemployment, poverty and ignorance. Other factors include cultural values and traditional belief systems which accommodate human trafficking as aspects of legitimate social
organization, for example victims providing domestic services as house helps.

The number of trafficked persons in Sub-Saharan African might not be readily ascertained, various agencies provide different figures. This is partly because of the secretive nature of the trade which makes the provision of accurate figures difficult. However governments in the region are concerned at the ever increasing rate of human trafficking. A study by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) indicated that in Nigeria alone over 12 million in 1995 and 15 million in 2003 Nigerian children under the age of 14 were engaged in child labour. (Federal Office of Statistics, now National Bureau of Statistics 2003). A similar study by NAPTIP estimated that there were 80 million child workers across Africa, and that the figure could rise to 100 million by 2015 (UNICEF 2007; UNICEF/NAPTIP 2009; Fajana 2010). United Nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC) human trafficking report of 2009 confirmed ILO and NAPTIP reports that in West African alone children constituted nearly 100% of victims of human trafficking, the rest were women (UNODC 2009).

In a larger and more comparative study the UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking estimated in 2010 that 2.5 million people were in forced labour (including sexual exploitation) at any given time as a result of human trafficking. Of these:

- 1.4 million – 56% - are in Asia and the Pacific
- 250,000–10% - are in Latin America and the Caribbean
- 230,000–9.2% - are in the Middle East and Northern Africa
- 130,000–5.2% - are in sub-Saharan countries
- 270,000–10.8% - are in industrialized countries
- 200,000 – 8% - are in countries in transition.

The UN Global Initiative has also estimated a global annual profit made from the exploitation of all trafficked forced labour at US$ 31.6 billion. Of these:

- US$ 15.5 billion – 49% - is generated in industrialized economies
- US$ 9.7 billion – 30.6% is generated in Asia and the Pacific
- US$ 1.3 billion – 4.1% is generated in Latin America and the Caribbean
- US$ 1.6 billion – 5% is generated in sub-Saharan Africa

US$ 1.5 billion – 4.7% is generated in the Middle East and North Africa (UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking 2010).

According to a new International Labour Organization’s Global Estimate of Force Labour, there are 20.9 million victims worldwide by 2012 involved in forced labour and sex exploitation at any point in time (ILO 2012). The ILO’s first estimate of forced labor, in 2005 was 12.3 million victims on forced labor and sex trafficking. Of the victims of 2012, 55% are women and girls, while 98% are sex trafficking victims; there is higher percentage of sex trafficking victims, than in the 2005 Report; by region, the Asia and the Pacific region (which included South Asia) remains the largest in terms of number of victims, while the estimate of trafficking victims in Africa has kept growing since the 2005 estimate (ILO 2012; US Trafficking in Persons Report 2012).

While Africa is placed third both in the world population of victims of trafficking and the financial benefits to traffickers, (and one of the least in compliance with Trafficking Victims Protection Acts - TVPA-), the overall impact of trafficking on the continent in terms of deprivation, human rights violations and negative social and security implications (for example, drug, diseases, arms and other related crimes) is relatively higher and more damaging on Africa than it is in a place like Asia. This is because of the degree of weakness and failure already associated with the states in Africa, their greater lack of capacity, and overall poverty of the people (Zartman Ed. 1995; Rotberg 2000; Bates 2001).

Nevertheless there appears to be an improvement in legislations as more countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are enacting laws against human trafficking, in some cases providing comprehensive and far reaching legislations and stiff punishment for those convicted of the crime of trafficking. The growth in legislations has been acknowledged by the current US Trafficking in Persons Report 2012, where most of the countries are in Tier 2 placement. Tier 2 placement classifies countries that do not fully comply with Trafficking Victims Protection Acts (TVPA) minimum standards but are making significant efforts to bring themselves into compliance. However the same report reveals Africa’s poor compliance with the provisions of the laws (US Trafficking in Persons Report 2011, 2012). Except Nigeria which was placed on Tier 1 in 2009, majority of the Sub-Saharan African countries have
been on Tier 2, Tier 2 Watch List (Tier 3 or Special Case) since the US Trafficking Report began in 2002. In addition to the inadequacy of legislations or their poor enforcement, the role and behavior of officials have been unsatisfactory especially in terms of high level corruption which evidently has been encouraging human trafficking as indicated by the finding of United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2009-2012). All together most of the countries in West Africa and others like South Africa, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia and Mozambique have in the recent past enacted relevant legislations against human trafficking, with various successful cases of convictions. But on the balance, the implementations of the laws are still limited and fragmented. The findings indicate that there is lack of institutionalized coordination effort among partners in the region which makes it difficult for agencies to offer effective protective services to victims (Truong 2006; IOM Folder 2011). These inadequacies increase the need for socialization of the people, particularly the youth and the harmonization of approaches towards combating trafficking through the development of an educational curriculum on human trafficking.

**EDUCATION, SOCIALIZATION AND HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

One of the foremost problems which may confront the introduction of human trafficking in the curricula of schools is the lack of unanimity surrounding the definition of the concept, human trafficking. Literature on human trafficking is still debating the varied definitions of the subject. Perhaps, one of the ways scholars have tried to get over this diversity of definitions is to identify and itemize the common concepts recognizable in what each scholar isolates as constituting human trafficking. Such common concepts include deception, fraud, physical or psychological abuse, force, coercion, exploitation, violence, or threat to violence, most often involving the organization of a crime network or syndicates in the process of selling, exchanging, or transporting human persons as a form of business or trade activity (Salt and Stein 1997: 467-494; Salt 2000: 31-56; Bruckert and Patent 2002: 2-4).

The efforts to aggregate the concepts of human trafficking have resulted in United Nations’ (UN) definition which views human trafficking as:

(a) the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons by means of threat, or use of force or other form of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payment or benefit to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery or servitude or the removal of organs;

(b) The consent of the victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used;

(c) The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered “trafficking in persons” even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article;

(d) "Child" shall mean any person less than eighteen years of age (United Nations 2000: 2).

The definition which may be considered official is said not to have ended the debate over what constitutes human trafficking, particularly when we consider some regions, like African where some ancient forms of slavery in terms of debt bonds still exist (Laczko 2005, 1-2, 5-16; Bruckert and Patent 2002: 2-4). In some cases in Africa, individuals or families clear the debt they owe by being bonded to slave labour (Truong 2006: 59-74). In addition to enslavement through debt bonds, there is also the issue in Africa about hiring house-helps or housemaids which is culturally an acceptable practice, and within the home or domestic organization, and which is an avenue of employment or assistance for some underprivileged families or children (Truong 2006: 59-74). Diverse cultures like the ones identified in Africa make a uniformly acceptable definition of trafficking problematic (Bruckert and Parent 2002: 2-4).

Apart from the problem of definition, the study of human trafficking has the additional
difficulty of building a theoretical framework as already identified above. What may be considered theoretical explanations are rudimentary, and include descriptions of trafficking organizations, their activities, and general pattern of functioning (Salt and Stein 1997: 467-494; Bertone 2000: 4-12; Kempadoo (Ed.) 2000: 12-19). It is being suggested that regular and formal teaching and academic pursuit and research will increase the chances of building theoretical explanation of human trafficking.

The call to include human trafficking in the curricula of universities is recent, even in the developed countries of the world which have pioneered the trafficking discourse. Europe initiated it, but in the recent past United States of America (US) has led other developed countries, and committed more resources in the study and research into human trafficking (Laczko 2005: 6-7; humantrafficking.org 2007). By the last count, US higher institutions had over 500 faculties offering courses in human trafficking, as well as having direct contact and networking with professors and research fellows (Inside Higher Education 2007; humantrafficking.org 2007). One such campaign for the promotion of educational curriculum in human trafficking was undertaken by The Protection Project, a human rights research institute based at the Foreign Policy Institute of The Johns Hopkins University School of Advanced International Studies in Washington, D.C. USA.

According to The Protection Project, comprehensive approach to combating the problem of trafficking in persons must include prevention, and prevention always starts with understanding — and to understand the problem we need research, we need scholars of human trafficking to explain to us the scope of the problem and what should be done about it (The Protection Project 2007: 2). Emphasizing the critical need for curriculum of study in human trafficking, The Protection Project cited Brussels Declaration on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings adopted in November 29, 2002 which explicitly stated that: closer links should be developed with educators and ministries of education with a view to elaborating and including relevant and realistic teaching modules in school and college curricula and to inform pupils and students on human rights and gender issues (The Protection Project 2007: 2). The Protection Project called for the promotion of the teaching of human trafficking as an effective method to combat the problem. According to it, the conduct of workshop for law enforcement agents and NGOs should be extended to educators and teachers in academic institutions on trafficking in persons: now it is time for an educational movement that will engage our scholars and professors, and raise awareness among our students, our future generation (emphasis mine) (The Protection Project 2007: 5).

In addition to the campaign by The Protection Project, studies by Frank Laczko and other contributors contained in a special edition of International Migration, volume 43, numbers 1-2 of 2005, reaffirmed the ever increasing need for research in human trafficking (Laczko 2005: 5-16). The contributors also identified problems encountered in conducting research in human trade. However, in a paper on human trafficking in Sub-Saharan Africa, one of the contributors, Adepoju fell short of recommending the development of curriculum of studies in human trafficking in schools in Africa (Adepoju 2005: 75-98).


The human rights abuses associated with human trafficking are the major apprehensions against human trafficking, and Africa is one of the greatest victims of these rights abuses. Yet
in spite of the large body of international publications on the subject, human trafficking has not gained adequate attention of institutions of higher learning and research institutes in Africa. We are referring to the type of attention deserving of a subject so globally overarching, and of such a concern as that created by human trafficking in the world since the last two decades. Indeed the little attention it has attracted in research institutions in Africa, and the much research grants made available come from UN agencies and some of the developed countries of Europe and America (Truong 2006: 99-117).

The contributions of African governments, African universities and research institutes to the effort to study or conduct research in the subject of human trafficking are insignificant when compared with the social problem posed by the human trade. From our identifications immediately below, except in one or two institutions, there is no clear evidence that schools in African are including courses in their curricula to study human trafficking. Certainly this reduces expertise on the subject matter among Africans. Lack of studies may also create ignorance and neglect of the major social implications of trafficking for the continent now and in the future. In spite of some doubts that may be expressed by some African government officials, developing educational curriculum will bring to African the benefit of the relationship between formal teaching, socialization and attitude change, and their effective impact in combating human trafficking (The Protection Project 2007: 2; Dowse and Prewitt 1969; Dowse and Hughes 1972).

Presently, the University of Witwatersrand in Johannesburg, South Africa, under its Africa Centre for Migration and Society, is one of the hand-full of universities in Africa known to offer degree courses in migration (somehow related to human trafficking). In a course of study under ‘Forced Migration Studies Programme,’ founded in 1998, the University carries out teaching, and research into all forms of forced migration. The University is said to have become ‘centre of excellence’ in Africa in this specialization (Africa Centre for Migration and Society 1998). But it is remarkable to observe that in the whole programme, including the listed courses, course outlines, course descriptions/syllabuses, no reference is made to ‘human trafficking’. By the time this paper was being put together in the first quarter of 2011, human trafficking was not part of the courses the University planned to teach (Africa Centre for Migration and Society 1998).

The University of Ghana, Legon, is another institution in Africa which has related interest in human trafficking. The University has a Centre for Migration Studies and Research, established in 2006, which co-ordinates activities, researches and studies in migration. The Legon Centre for Migration Studies has just begun to offer graduate degree programme in migration, but not specific to human trafficking (The Legon Centre for Migration Studies 2006). Another Institution which has interest in human trafficking is University of Pretoria, South Africa. Sometime in April 2010, the Centre for Human Rights of the University mounted a four-day course on Forced Migration and Human Trafficking (Centre for Human Rights, University of Pretoria 2010).

In addition, some US academic institutions are collaborating with universities in Africa in the ‘educational movement’ to introduce the teaching of human trafficking. The University of New Haven in collaboration with California State University at Fresno and Washbun University both in the US in 2007 embarked on a research study of human trafficking in South Africa (humantrafficking.org 2007). Other collaborative studies are those between Indiana University-Purdue University, Indianapolis and Moi University Kenya (Indiana University-Purdue University 2009), The American Bar Association and Seton Hall Law Zanzibar (American Bar Association 2008). All the collaborations were aimed at an interdisciplinary approach towards better understanding of and fight against human trafficking.

No doubt there are publications and writings about human trafficking in Sub-Saharan Africa. Africa was assigned 13% contribution of the world published works on human trafficking in 2005, making her the third after Europe and the Asia-Pacific (Laczko 2005: 6-8). But most of those works were publications based on field work without theoretical explanations. No doubt, such publications were part of the efforts to combat human trafficking, but they were not exactly the same as theoretically based findings and publications, which over time, academic study would provide as a necessary and fundamental intervention in the present stage of knowledge
about human trafficking. Teaching and academic pursuit will bestow in particular the theoretical knowledge which will help unfold some fundamental issues yet unknown in human trafficking, and thereby provide better and more reliable solution to the problem of trafficking in the African society.

The observations just made are not oblivious of the findings of Adepoju referred to above in a review of research and data on human trafficking in Sub-Saharan Africa (Adepoju 2005: 75-95). According to his study, there is significant progress in researches in trafficking in various parts of Sub-Saharan Africa. However, most of the researches are primarily conducted or supported by NGOs in Sub-Saharan Africa, networking with international organizations and agencies like International Organization for Migration (IOM), United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), International Labor Organization (ILO), United Nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC), United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and some governments of the developed countries. Most of the findings may be considered limited research efforts; basically field works without theoretical foundation, and containing no explanatory rigour and predictive power.

The remark about the limited nature of the researches is also supported by the work of Turong (2006: 99-117), and indeed agrees with Brennan (2005: 38) that a lot of what appear as awareness or studies about human trafficking in Africa, are still more of officialdom, politicized, glamorized, at times misrepresented and sensationalized. In others, government officials and NGOs organize seminars on human trafficking, reducing the subject to institutional activity involving ministries and departments. In many cases the ‘people’ are missing, and not involved in such programmes. No doubt the awareness activities are part of the fight against human trafficking. But they do not go far enough. There is need for a more formal and fundamental socialization of the youth to prepare them to appreciate the evil of the trade in humans, and be part of its eradication.

SOCIALIZATION PROCESS AND HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN AFRICA

Socialization is the means whereby ‘individuals acquire the knowledge, skill, and dispositions that enable them to participate as more or less effective members of groups and the society’ (Dowse and Hughes 1972: 179). It is a lifelong process of inheriting and disseminating norms, customs and ideologies. It provides individuals with the skills and habits necessary for participating in their own society. A society develops a culture through a variety of shared norms, customs, values, traditions, social roles, symbols and languages; and through the process of socialization individuals attain continuity in these social and cultural attributes/artifacts. In other words, individuals learn to live in accordance with the expectations and standards of their group or society, acquiring its beliefs, habits, values, and accepted modes of behaviour primarily through imitation, family interaction, and educational systems; thereby the society integrates the individual. Socialization has among others, a political dimension - political socialization - which is the process through which a citizen acquires his own view of the political world - - - it is the way in which one generation passes on political standards, beliefs, and ideas to succeeding generation (Dawson and Prewitt 1966: 6).

In some cases socialization is none-deterministic, and may be multi-directional. Indeed at other times there exist contradictory processes and values. For example values disseminated by the school or the church/religion may conflict with those received at home/family. However whichever value becomes dominant must have passed through the process of socialization. Socialization is the most influential learning process one can experience – a reflexive process of both learning and teaching through which cultural and social characteristics attain continuity. Schools are known to be among the most active and direct agents of political socialization (Dowse and Hughes 1972: 190). Others include family, peer group, mass media, and religion.

In this study we are assuming that schools which conduct teaching and guide learning in Africa should constitute a major part of a socialization process - that requires the socialization of the youth into the norms, habits, values, traditions and roles in the society, including their socio-political aspects. The socialization through school, more than any other agent, will better prepare the youth to acquire the norms and values which now and in the future will enable them have a more effective *attitude change* which is
required in order to appreciate the evil of human trafficking (Dowse and Prewitt 1969: 143-180; Dowse and Hughes 1972: 182-215; McGuire et al. 1985; Wood 2000; Aronson et al. 2005). This is what The Protection Project refers to as 'an educational movement that will engage our scholars and professors, and raise awareness among our students, our future generation' (The Protection Project 2007: 5).

Presently the African people (the ordinary Africans) neither know what activities are going on to combat human trafficking, nor are they part of it. The poor and the alienated who are trafficked may not attend conferences and seminars where trafficking is discussed; nor do they view the television programmes or read newspapers articles discussing and analyzing human trafficking. But through formal education in the class rooms, or even if designed for nomads (that is, ‘nomadic education’ for example in Nigeria), the chances are higher that the young who are present in the class rooms will listen and learn.

Furthermore, to bring about a fundamental socio-cultural change in attitude, or achieve a behaviour or norm change, some formal and regular education or teaching at certain stage of the development of the young may have to be introduced (Dowse and Prewitt 1969; Dowse and Hughes 1972; McGuire et al. 1985; Wood 2000; Aronson et al. 2005). In addition, a more effective impact will be created when the focus or the target of teaching and learning is the youth; and this is best realized when it includes schools/universities, directed towards the youth at the school/university age grade levels. Even if the poor who get trafficked are not in this category, because they may not financially afford to be in school, yet it is the youth in this school age grade (the future generation) who will formulate the policies against human trafficking in the future and get them implemented. And the success of such education curriculum requires total national political commitment and absolute moral engagement on the part of government (Brennan 2005: 37).

**DEVELOPING EDUCATIONAL CURRICULUM**

In the case of a specific course of study, duration and at what stage it may be introduced, human trafficking may be introduced at two different stages in the life of the youth: the first to be introduced during the first three years in the secondary school (junior secondary) as part of history or social studies (for children between the ages of 9 and 15). The second stage will be during the first two years in the university as part of ‘general studies’ (for students from the ages of 17 and above). At each stage but at different levels and depths of the study, the course will cover as well as aim to expose the activities of trafficking, the different methods and forms of trafficking, those who are involved, traffickers and victims, and their various levels, tactics or strategies of involvement; the human and social costs including the human rights violations, and the economic consequences for the individual agent/trafficker and the victim, and for the overall economic consequences for the entire region of Africa.

For instance many universities in Sub-Saharan Africa offer a course of study called ‘General Studies’ or ‘General African Studies’, which in many instances is a compulsory course, which a student is required to take and pass before a degree is awarded. Such a course should be able to accommodate human trafficking to be taught as a full course or part of a course. In addition, history departments, relevant departments in the faculties of education, law and social sciences should be able to mount courses in human trafficking. This approach is similar to the ‘high profile issue’ to which the subject of human trafficking is said to have become in the US (Laczko 2005: 6). The objective of the course will be to formally and properly educate the people in order to discourage those who may want to get involved in one way or the other, prospective victims, and to empower majority of the people to fight against trafficking. However, the details of an effective educational curriculum in human trafficking should be produced by educational development experts in Africa.

It may be observed that education may not provide a blanket solution to human trafficking in Africa, and is not expected to do so. Like the problem with other crimes, there are those who in spite of education may still get involved in human trafficking for various reasons. The role of formal education is to educate the majority about the evil of human trafficking, build knowledge and greater and informed disposition of the majority to fight against human trafficking just as other crimes are detested and fought
against. Moreover it is a common fact that those who are least educated, especially children are more susceptible to human trafficking (USA World Education n.d.). This is more the case in Africa where increased knowledge should be compelling because one of the major differences between human trafficking and other crimes is that most Africans do not yet consider human trafficking as a crime. In West African for example trafficked children come from the least educated and poorest parts of the sub-region, thus confirming the relationship between the least educated, the poorest and the most ignorant in most societies; and they are the greatest victims, especially of children of human trafficking (ILO 2012; USA World Education n.d.).

It is being suggested that the funding of the educational programme be borne by the central government of respective countries. At this point it may be added that some relevant international agencies like IOM, ILO, UNODC, UNICEF, UNESCO, be requested to assist in the establishment of courses, their take-off as well as the provision of text books and other teaching aids, including on the training of a number of teachers who may be interested in teaching and research in human trafficking. International Organization for Migration is said to be involved in a similar programme, training teachers in Edo State in Nigeria; a temporary/ad hoc measure because the school’s curriculum in that state does not contain or teach human trafficking (Truong 2006:104).

In a related case of curriculum development for a specific intervention to bring about a desired change in attitude, a report indicates that also in Nigeria, the Ogun State Government in 2010 commenced the implementation of “Family Life HIV/AIDS Education” (FLHE) curriculum to combat the scourge of HIV/AIDS among youths in the state. The programme is in conjunction with United Nations Population Fund (Sunday Punch 2010: 53). Also in Rwanda, ‘peace education’ is now incorporated in the schools’ history curriculum to counter the hate education which was implicit in the colonial education in that country (Mwambari and Schaeffer 2011). Such curricula development in collaboration with governments and agencies is part of the suggestion of this article. Among other reasons, what makes the development of an educational curriculum important for formal teaching in human trafficking is that the knowledge, information and other results will be open and available for use by the public, and not restricted only to law enforcement agents and/or other government agencies. The paper is convinced that introducing the teaching of human trafficking in the colleges/universities is compelling because it is about the most effective way of building up the youth with adequate knowledge and the right social values which in turn will equip them with the right attitudes that will make it relatively easier to fight human trafficking. And because of the scope of the educational programme, the role of the state in Africa remains critical in the implementation.

THE AFRICAN STATE AND SCHOOLS’ CURRICULA ON HUMAN TRAFFICKING

The nature of state in Africa is a thoroughly debated subject and need not delay us here (Ake 1981, 1985, 1994). The emphasis is on the fact that the institutions and apparatuses of the state are subordinated to the interest of the dominant and ruling class each point in time; they include the military, political, economic or bureaucratic interests or a coalition of some or all of them. This element of subordination or ‘capture’ frustrates and impedes the practice of democracy, and has persisted in spite of democratization processes of the 1990s (Ake 1994: 7-9; Bratton and de Waal 1998; Hellman et al. 2000; Hellman and Kaufman 2001:1-9; Ottaway 2002). Some of the consequences of this nature of state are corruption, crises and conflicts, state fragility and the failure of quite a number of these states (Young 1994; Ng’ethe 1995; Zartman (Ed.) 1995; Rotberg 2000; Bates 2001). The failures have led to subversion of the rule of law, the loss of the states’ capacity to govern, and the states’ inability to extract and accumulate sufficient resources for national development including development of the educational sector (Jinadu 2008: 201-208). Under such nature of state the introduction of a new curriculum requiring funding from the state may not be attractive to policymakers.

Thus by implication, a reformed state will possess some degree of autonomy and promote rule of law. Those conditions make the state better prepared to introduce education as a critical means of combating human trafficking. In other words, to develop schools’ curricula on human trafficking in Africa, state reformed will have to
be addressed to enable the state build administrative and productive capacities, and infrastructure; establish transparency and good governance, and reduce corruption, and address poverty and ignorance. These are some of the push factors which have precipitated human trafficking, and which along with education need to be taken together in order to successfully combat human trafficking. But out of these, education (teaching) remains the most fundamental and effective in preparing the future generation to embark on serious and sustained fight against the trade in human persons.

CONCLUSION

This paper is of the view that there is a compelling need for a major involvement of governments in Africa in developing educational curriculum for teaching of human trafficking, - an ‘educational movement’, in order to better prepare the people to fight the global crime of the commercialization of human persons. Teaching will enable the building of systematic and methodological approaches, and theoretically founded knowledge to investigate the phenomenon of trafficking in persons. For instance, if bills against human trafficking were to be presented or debated upon at the legislature, they would be enriched by studies and research findings from universities and research institutions. But in circumstances of scarce financial resources, capacity deficit and bad governance as we have in many states in Africa, there will be little resource allocated to a sector like education to enable it develop curriculum to promote teaching and learning in human trafficking. Those circumstances of weakness and capacity deficit deny the countries the inevitable socialization process through education which the people need in other to understand and confront the evils of human trafficking and the human rights violations associated with trafficking.

Therefore, to underline the central argument of this article, some knowledge about human trafficking need to be acquired through formal teaching, learning and research which will develop and deepen theoretical foundation for investigation. The knowledge will assist in the development and implementation of appropriate policy measures against the trafficking in persons. Presently African states have not started addressing the teaching and study of human trafficking accordingly, and the standard of research is not adequate. And to that extent, Africa’s ability to solve the problem of human trafficking and the human rights abuses associated with it may still remain equally distant.

REFERENCES


