CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study.

According to the United Nations Palermo Protocol; trafficking in human beings mean "the recruitment, transportation, transfer, habouring or receipt of persons by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation" (United Nations, 2003). It is important to note that a major difference between smuggling of persons and trafficking in human beings is that the latter includes an element of coercion, deception and exploitation.

Human trafficking is presently one of the biggest problems afflicting virtually every state and region in the world. Its magnitude and dimensions have continued to pose tremendous moral, social and economic challenges to the civil society. This is more in the third world countries where the impact of this illegal underling issue is most visible and most felt. It is dis-heartening to hear that people do engage in the trafficking of fellow human beings in order to satisfy their inordinate desires.

Official statistics on numbers of human trafficking are not consistent and vary widely due to the clandestine nature of the activity. However it has been estimated that between 800,000-900,000 persons are trafficked annually worldwide. In the United States alone, between 18,000-20,000 persons are trafficked into the country annually (United States Department of State, 2008). These figures however do not include trafficking within a country's border. In this respect, the US State Department estimates jumps from 2 to 4million people annually, while the United Nations estimate 7million. Translated in dollars, human trafficking is billion-dollar illicit industry third behind illicit drug trafficking and arms trafficking. Thus trafficking in people especially women and children for prostitution and forced labour is one of the fastest growing areas of international criminal activity.

Nigeria is also highly vulnerable to the activities of human traffickers. Like in all other states and regions, the statistics on the number of Nigerians involved, mostly as victims, vary widely. Nigeria is a source, transit and destination country for women and children trafficking for the purposes of forced labour and commercial sexual exploitation. Within Nigeria, women and girls primarily trafficked for domestic servitude and sexual exploitation and boys are trafficked for forced begging by religious teachers as well as forced labour in street vending, agriculture, mining, stone quarries and domestic servitude (USDS, 2008).

Rural-urban drift which is common among youths reduce rural population where most farming activities takes place. This results in low food production because farming is left in the hands of the aged population (Ekong, 2003). This youthful population that should be active in community development are the ones being lured away by traffickers.

According to the Nigerian Police Force and the Women Trafficking and Child Labour Eradication Foundation, between March 1999 and April 2000 about 1126 women trafficked out of the country were deported from various countries. This figure excludes the dead, the maimed, the stranded and those who sneaked back. By 2001, the figure of those deported was over 5,000. It has been reported that there are about 20,000 Nigerian women involved in the sex industry in Italy. It was reported in 2002 that 80% of foreign prostitutes in Italy were Nigerian women mainly from Edo, Delta and Lagos states (The Tide Online, 2006).

In 2004, Nigeria's National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) reported that 46 percent of Nigerian victims of transnational trafficking are children, with majority of them being girls trafficked for commercial sexual exploitation. An increasing trend, reported recently is the trafficking of African boys and girls from Lagos to the United Kingdom's urban centers including London, Birmingham and Manchester, for domestic servitude and forced labour in restaurants and shops. Some of the victims are Nigerians while others are from other African countries (USDS, 2008). In 2007, NAPTIP reported investigating one hundred and fourteen (114) cases, sixty-two (62) of which were prosecuted. Of the 62 cases, seven resulted in convictions and fifty-one are still pending in court. NAPTIP reported rescuing eight hundred victims and providing assistance for six hundred and ninety-five (695).

The overall implication of this situation on national development is manifold. Subjection of women and children to slave-like labour and sexual exploitation had grossly violated their human rights. Such worst forms of labour have retarded the growth and

development of Nigerian children and women and their contribution to national development.

The dramatic growth in migration and trafficking flows has resulted from a combination of push, pull and facilitating factors. Push factors include uneven economic growth and the breakdown of economic systems, an increase in war and armed conflict, environmental degradation, natural disasters and increasing levels of family violence (Gupta, 2004; UNESCO, 2006). Environmental degradation, natural disasters and conflict make rural development difficult because it pushes people away from their communities. This also results in low agricultural production; there could be no meaningful production in the midst of conflict, bad weather and degraded environment. The poor and disadvantaged can now see with their own eyes the wide disparity between their standard of living and that of the richer and more advantaged people in the world. They want to share in the wealth, and by the means of modern transportation, they are able to get to richer lands in a matter of hours (International Organisation for Migration, 2005). These are pull factors that draw people away from their communities to seek better lives outside. Growth in the industrialized economies with modern transportation and telecommunications motivates more people to move and so facilitates all aspects of migration and trafficking.

These large- scale migratory movements have both positive and negative effects on community and rural development. Emigration of the more highly skilled represents a "brain drain" for developing countries. This means by implication that the return of these skilled migrants would represent a "brain re-gain" that could help in promoting development. Stahl (1988) in a review of "the effects of emigration and return on sending countries" posed three related questions: Do remittances contribute to economic development? Do migrant workers acquire new skills that are useful on their return? and Can returning workers reintegrate in their home societies and economies?

A recent review of the extent to which a range of international development institutions are concerned with migration, highlights how their interest have been focused primarily on remittances and reversing the drain through the return of skilled nationals (Olesen, 2002). Within these broad areas of interest, there has been a perceptible shift both in recent literature and in the attention of governments and international organizations towards the potential benefits of migration and return to developing countries. Taylor (1999) noted how pessimistic opinions on migration and development have generally pervaded literature, but proposed in contrast the view that migration can

help to reduce both production and investment constraints faced by households. He argued that remittances form part of a mutually beneficial informal contract between the migrant and the household in the country of origin.

The major facilitating factor is the involvement of organized crime for which trafficking is a growing source of profits (Gupta, 2004). According to Nwogu (2006), UNICEF estimates that profit from human trafficking in West Africa are only exceeded by trade in guns and drugs. The great majority of those who are trafficked are migrant workers who originally chose to leave home in search of an improved standard of living but when faced by restrictions on immigration are forced to turn to traffickers and smugglers.

According to Aftab (2003), poverty and unemployment have been identified as the underlying causes of human trafficking. Poor families have traditionally sent boys and girls they have trouble feeding or cannot provide a future for, to work in wealthier homes. This is supposed to be a form of fostering that gives the child a better start in life but sometimes it is thinly veiled slavery.

Various things motivate people in their decisions to move from their place of origin. Some people migrate so that they can provide better social, economic and educational opportunities for themselves or their families. Others move to escape from their families and their expectations particularly after arguments and conflicts, which may result in permanent separation (Thomas, 2004). Other individuals move for short periods to achieve individual goals such as saving money to build a house or start a business. Migration both internal and international, can offer an important route out of poverty for many people in developing countries. Rather than a vicious circle, migration is increasingly seen as part of integration in which development is enhanced (Weinstein, 2001).

1.2 Socio-economic implications of human trafficking

Human trafficking involves controlling and exploiting people after transporting them to a new location, often beyond the border of their homeland (Laczko, 2002). Movement of people through human trafficking has several implications on both the sources and destinations communities. The donor or source communities lose:

1) the labor and skills i.e. human or social capital of the trafficking persons
2) the income which the victims earned
3) the food, goods and services they produced

4) their social and other contributions to their families and communities (Thomas, 2004)

There can be no doubt that human trafficking can have devastating long- and short-term consequences for its victims' physical and mental health as well as their legal, social and financial situation. Apart from the individual suffering it causes, its repercussions for society as a whole are highly detrimental.

According to Ebirim (2006), trafficking can damage its victims' health– often severely – in a number of ways: He or she is usually subjected to cruel mental and physical abuse designed to break down initial resistance, including confinement, seclusion, threats, humiliation, beatings and sexual abuse. This treatment places the victim under severe stress, often leading to trauma and depression. The risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases – from Chlamydia to HIV/AIDS – is very great. Physical injuries are common, unwanted pregnancies among women and girls who are sexually abused frequently lead to dangerous abortions. The physical, mental and social development of women and children is severely impaired and the victims are usually marked for life by the treatment and experiences they undergo.

The social consequences of trafficking are also extremely serious, not least for the young women and girls who are sold for purposes of sexual exploitation. Women who return to their homes are often rejected by their families and communities. They have difficulty starting families of their own and employment is hard to come by. More excluded than ever, they may once again become the victims of exploitation of various kinds or be sold into prostitution for a second time. Very little is known about the fate of boys but, here too, the risk of social exclusion and of being drawn into a life of criminality and abuse is evident (Ebirim, 2006). The boys may later end up being miscreants after running away from their trafficked destinations; sleeping under bridges, market stalls and so on.

One of the deleterious social consequences of human traffickingis the legitimising of patriarchal attitudes. In the most severely affected countries, moreover, the number of returning victims – many of them severely scarred, both physically and mentally – may prove an immediate burden on the community's resources. Trafficking provides the prostitution industry with ready victims. This in turn has repercussions for gender equality and views on male and female sexuality. It reinforces the notion that people and even sexuality can be bought and sold. Moreover, the sexual exploitation of women and children can contribute to the spread of HIV/AIDS, with its devastating effect on

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individual lives and adverse consequences for society as a whole in terms of loss of income, rising care costs, weakened families and social suffering.

Human trafficking, like the arms and drugs trades, is big business with a sizeable turnover. It contributes to a growing illegal market and rising criminality. The relatively high profit rate and comparatively low risk involved offer traffickers and other players the chance to earn quick, safe money. Large illegal markets involving criminal and quasi-criminal activities act to undermine healthy economies and hamper the establishment and maintenance of the rule of law. The proceeds are not only used to finance increasingly organised and sophisticated criminal activities; but, according to many indications, contribute to the financing of subversive activities and armed movements (Unongu, 2006).

There is also a significant impact on the receiving or destination communities. They experience some economic growth as these migrants join the work force. They also spend some of their income on food, homes and clothing thereby creating demand for goods and services in the receiving society, which in turn boosts their economy.

1.3   Statement of the research problem

Human trafficking has been described as "modern day slavery" whereby people are coerced or deceived through promises of good jobs and career opportunities to move out of their communities to 'work' outside the country or in cities. These victims of human trafficking are expected to send remittances to their households to improve their wellbeing. Many of these victims are forced into prostitution through which they contact various diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Others get trained in one skill or the other while some have opportunity to go to school and improve their educational qualification.

Trafficking is a complex phenomenon, resulting from a number of interlinked livelihood insecurity causes- poverty, ignorance, lack of secure livelihoods and social vulnerability. Vulnerability to trafficking stems from the needs and desires to earn money to meet emergency cash needs (Mitra, 2008). Many embark on trafficking so as to ensure or have a secure livelihood. There have been many studies demonstrating that poverty, low education and lack of understanding about human trafficking are not necessarily the key contributing factors to vulnerability (United Nations Inter-Agency Project, 2007). Many populations thought to be at risk have been saturated with knowledge about the risk of human trafficking, yet thousands if not millions are trafficked every year. More research is therefore required before firm conclusions can be drawn.

It is difficult to understand why anybody would want to stay in exploitative situations. To get the fuller picture of trafficking and migration nexus, one has to visit the victim's situations before trafficking or taking decision to migrate. A victim's vulnerability is very much shaped by where he/she stands in relation to macroeconomic development and social hierarchy. Migration (regular or irregular) is usually a rationale human response to the situation in which people find themselves. Regular migration involves movement of people through authorized means while irregular migration includes trafficking or smuggling of people. People also migrate in search of better opportunities, whether they be socio-economic or for reasons of human security.

Trafficking in persons is not only debasing to victims, it hacks down the economically active group of a nation. Human trafficking deprives the rural communities of young able-bodied youths who could be actively involved in agricultural and community development activities. This has various implications on the households and the communities where the victims were trafficked from. There is therefore, the need to study human trafficking and its implications on the community and national development as a whole. The research is aimed at understanding the implications of human trafficking on the wellbeing of victims and their households and its contributions, if any, to community development.

This research is thus designed to provide answers to the following questions:

1) What are the socio-economic characteristics of victims of human trafficking in the Southwestern Nigeria?

2) What roles do family members play in the recruitment of trafficked victims in Southwestern Nigeria?

3) Are the respondents aware of the purpose for which they were being trafficked?

4) What is the duration of victims' exposure to trafficking in Southwestern Nigeria?

5) What nature of jobs are the trafficked victims engage in at trafficking destination?

6) What is the frequency of contact between victims and their households?

7) Does the trafficking experience have any effect on the wellbeing of their households?

8) What is the perception of victims about changes in their households' socio-economic status?

1.4. Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study is to investigate trafficked victims perception of socioeconomic implications of human trafficking on rural households in Southwestern Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

1) identify the socio-economic characteristics of trafficked victims Southwestern Nigeria,
2) describe the role of family members in the recruitment of persons being trafficked,
3) assess the awareness of respondents on the purpose for which they were being trafficked,
4) ascertain the duration of exposure of victims to trafficking,
5) examine the nature of jobs trafficked victims engage in at trafficking destination,
6) determine the frequency of contact between victims and their households,
7) assess the contribution of human trafficking to the wellbeing of affected households; and
8) determine the perception of victims about the changes in the socio-economic status of their households.

1.5 Hypotheses of the study

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant relationship between human trafficking victims' socio-economic characteristics and change in their household wellbeing.

2. There is no significant relationship between human trafficking victim's method of recruitment and change in their household wellbeing.

3. There is no significant relationship between length of time victims spent in trafficking destination and change in their household wellbeing.

4. There is no significant relationship between the nature of job trafficking victims engage in and change in their household wellbeing.

5. There is no significant relationship between trafficking victims' frequency of contact with parents and change in their household wellbeing.

6. There is no significant difference between Oyo, Ogun and Lagos States in perception of trafficking victims about change in their households' socio-economic status.

1.6. Justification for the study

This study becomes important based on the fact that despite national and international efforts geared towards eradicating trafficking in persons, the scourge is still on the increase. This study will help to identify factors responsible for continuous human trafficking thereby giving a better understanding of what could be done to stop it. It will help policy makers understand culturally appropriate countermeasures to be applied to the situation.

The way in which rural households earn their living is becoming increasingly complex. Understanding changes in livelihoods, the diversity of livelihood portfolios, and the exclusion of some from new opportunities is equally complex. Policies and programmes necessarily rest on assumptions of how people live, what they need, and how they will respond to new incentives, regulations, or opportunities. Livelihoods analysis helps to improve our understanding of what is really happening in people's lives (Chambers, 1989).

An idea of the socio-economic implications of human trafficking on the society will give room for comparism of its positive effects as against the negative effects. This will serve as enlightenment for grassroots workers to create better awareness for rural-dwellers on the implications of human trafficking.

Trafficking in persons is a highly complex, sophisticated and organized crime; it is a multi-faceted, sensitive issue, with compelling social, cultural and political implications. The nation has been ripped off its budding young men and women leading to impoverished citizenry and dwindling national income with resultant falling standard of living as a result of trafficking in persons. Victims of human trafficking are also exposed to serious health risks such as HIV/AIDS and they return to the communities to continue their normal lives. This poses serious health implications on the society and future generation.

Moreover, human trafficking deprives the rural communities of young able-bodied youths who could be actively involved in agricultural and community development activities. The result of this research will also serve as a basis to proffer solution to household livelihood insecurity problems, which often lead people into illegal migration and human trafficking.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Human trafficking: All acts and attempted acts involved in the recruitment, transportation within or across Nigerian borders, purchase, sale, transfer, receipt or harbouring of a person involving the use of deception, coercion or debt bondage for the purpose of placing or holding the person whether for or not in voluntary servitude in force or bonded labour, or in slavery-like conditions.

Child trafficking: Child trafficking is about taking children out of their protective environment and preying on their vulnerability for the purpose of exploitation.

Trafficked victim: These include all the women, children and men who are deceived, transported and delivered into the hands of those who exploit them for profit.

Household: A **household** consists of all persons who live in the same dwelling and also share meals or living accommodation, and may consist of a single family or some other group of people.

Rural household: people living in the less developed areas and derive their income mainly from farming or agricultural activities.

Household wellbeing: this is a state of feeling satisfied with one's condition when households are able to meet the basic needs of its members.

Perception: is the way one think about or understand someone or something; the ability to understand or notice something easily the way that you notice or understand something using one's senses.

Pull factors: are things that attract people to go and live in a particular place. **Pull factors** are responsible for dictating where migrants end up.

Push factors: these are negative aspects or conditions that motivate one to leave, especially in one's country, region, organization, religion, etc. In migration, **push factors** are those that encourage a population to leave its home. A **push factor** is forceful, and a factor which relates to the country from which a person migrates. It is generally some problem which results in people wanting to migrate.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition of Human Trafficking

The most used international law definition of human trafficking is the one contained in Article 3 of the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime 2000, and in Article 4 of the Council of Europe Convention on action against Trafficking in Human Beings 2005:

(a) "Trafficking in persons" shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.

Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs;

(b) The consent of a 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.

Definition of Child Trafficking

(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.

Trafficking in human beings is a serious crime that many governments and other actors in the world are trying to address. Trafficking is different from smuggling of migrants and from individual migration, because the trafficked person is intended to be exploited by the persons involved in managing their movement from one place to another.

To be exploited means that someone other than the victim profits from the situation. In some jurisdictions the mere exploitation is enough for the case to be considered trafficking. However, in reality, it may be difficult to distinguish between smuggling and illegal migration and trafficking, because a person may start a journey as a migrant, but end up in a trafficking situation.

Human traffickers gain large amounts of money by trafficking human beings, while their victims suffer terrible abuses, including death and disease. Other male and female intermediaries, including relatives, may also make profits, but not necessarily in large amounts. Humans can be trafficked within their national borders or across borders. However, trafficking within a country might not be defined as 'trafficking' in the national legislation.

Humans are frequently exploited in the sex industry, but people can also be exploited by being used for running drugs or weapons, for begging and petty theft, for organ theft, for illegal adoption, for work in the informal labour sector, such as agriculture, and even in the formal labour sector.

Trafficking in human beings therefore, is an act involving the recruitment, transfer or harbouring of a person using force, threats, deception or other improper forms of pressure for the purpose of exploiting that person in some way. The definition in the Protocol rests on the assumption that adults and children of both sexes can become victims of human trafficking, and that every victim's free will has in some sense been undermined or constrained. It is not limited to sexual abuse but applies to all forms of exploitation. The broad terms of reference used make for wide applicability and allow room for interpretation. Although it deals with transnational trafficking – the crime is committed or organized in more than one state – it can be applied just as effectively to trafficking within countries (United Nations, 2003).

According to UNIAP (2007) trafficking in human beings is a complex, multi-layered phenomenon. Viewed as a process, it falls into three separate phases: recruitment, transferal and exploitation in the country of destination. The crime can usually be broken down into a series of violations of someone's rights during this process. The victim can be subjected to deception and fraud, rape, assault or maltreatment, forced labour, the illegal dispossession of travel documents, etc. Several perpetrators may be involved and the violations committed in a number of locations over time. Human trafficking is thus an elastic concept, behind which lurks a complex reality.

It is a concept, which partially overlaps or coincides with a number of other issues and phenomena, such as people smuggling, migration, prostitution and child labour. Although the primary concern of the present strategy is trafficking in human beings, analyses and measures relating to these closely allied issues could also have a bearing on the former, and vice versa. A brief account of some of these is given below:

Smuggling of human beings may be defined as the transportation of people to countries for which they lack visas or the necessary entry permits in order to obtain a financial or other material benefit. The transaction normally takes place at the initiative of the smuggled person or with his/her consent. People smuggling is a crime, primarily against the state.

Migration of workers refers to the voluntary movement of people to other parts of the same country or other countries in search of work or livelihood. Although it does not per se involve unwarranted use of pressure or influence, or the pursuit of financial or material benefit, the need or desire to migrate can encourage the proliferation of human trafficking activities and create a market for people smuggling. People not infrequently become the objects of smuggling operations while traveling in search of work.

Forced labour may be defined as work performed under compulsion and subject to a penalty. Victims of human trafficking are frequently forced against their will to perform various kinds of work, in households or in agriculture, where their rights and movement are circumscribed.

Child labour refers to the exploitation of minors in hazardous or harmful occupations, i.e. the work itself may be physically or mentally damaging or it may prevent the child from exercising his or her right to education or development in general.

Sexual exploitation, in particular prostitution, is among the predominant forms of exploitation for which human beings are trafficked. The demand for sexual services is thus one of the most important causes of this type of trafficking.

Although it is primarily in the legal – specifically penal – context that there is a need to define and delimit human trafficking in absolute terms, a common basis for information gathering, analysis and action is also needed. The three constituent components of the offence: attempt, participation and direction-set out in the UN Protocol may be used to establish whether an act of trafficking has been committed.

2.2 Human Mobility and Human Trafficking in Africa

As noted by Wijers and Lap Chew (1997), the contemporary regulation of human mobility has two opposing aspects. One is prohibitive, addressing human trafficking; the other allows for the principle of free movement. Both aspects are strongly related to issues of identity, social membership and citizenship, and neither has been able to address the grey area between free and forced movement.

This inability may result from some institutions not accepting that the trafficking of people –and its embedded violence –is part of a process of globalisation which contains a central contradiction: the standards guiding economic transformation are at odds with those guiding social protection. The liberalisation of economies to facilitate the mobility of capital, goods and services has not been matched by a corresponding degree of freedom of movement for people.

This contradiction has created three distinct classes of mobile persons, governed by differentiated rules: (a) highly-skilled professionals –associated with capital and technology, (b) low or semi-skilled contract labourers, and (c) undocumented workers, refugees and asylum seekers.

Conflicting rules have created an enabling environment for the emergence of networks specialised in facilitating movement. In some instances such networks have created a new ethos by which the lack of security experienced by one person or group becomes a market opportunity for another. Thus, although the intersection between migration and human trafficking is context-specific, it is possible to discern particular corridors of movement beyond the purview of the state and where profit is derived from human vulnerability.

Control over human mobility through identity control is a fairly recent phenomenon in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), affiliated with colonialism and the creation of the modern state. In previous times borders –such as they existed at all –were fluid and permeable. Recent concern about human trafficking in the region and attempts to produce a precise definition of human trafficking as an emerging form of human mobility –often labeled as the 'New Slavery '–have provoked much controversy owing to the diversity of perspectives from which the subject may be viewed (Save the Children-Sweden, 2004), and there is tension between two key sets of concerns: the sovereignty and interests of nation-states as discrete units in international relations; and the violations of the human rights of persons in a particular process of migration labelled 'human trafficking '.

When there is insufficient grasp of the reasons for the phenomenon of human trafficking, policy tends to lurch inconsistently in different directions– often suppressing the voices of those affected. There are currently six perspectives on sex trafficking and related actions:

1. A moral problem that leads to intervention for the abolition or prohibition of prostitution or commercial sex;

2. A problem of organised crime that leads to legislative reforms, policing and the penalising of criminal networks;

3. A migration problem that leads to border controls (passport and identification papers);

4. A public order problem that leads to awareness campaigns, publicity about risks, and changing cultural practices;

5. A labour problem that leads to intervention such as improving working conditions and labour monitoring systems, and abolishing child labour;

6. A human rights problem and a gender issue that lead to intervention to address violence against women and children (Wijers and Lap Chew, 1997).

2.3   Trends and Patterns of Human Trafficking in Sub-Saharan Africa

The manifestation of human trafficking became visible to policy makers in the 1990s. Its deeper roots are becoming apparent through the process of intervention to counter the problem. Intervention measures share the following objectives:

1. To define the different forms of abuse faced by women and children in the process of trafficking for labour exploitation,

2. To locate the corresponding perpetrators or complicit agents,

3. To devise specific policy instruments to counteract the problem,

4. To establish new forms of cooperation between different agencies involved in this area.

One analytical perspective on the intersection between migration and trafficking may be offered by combining insights derived from studies on migration, which use the livelihood framework, with those gained from investigations into trafficking. De Haan *et al* (2002) offer a perspective on migration in the Sahelian region tracing the behaviour of two kinds of institutions, which have a strong impact on migration and in turn are structured by the migration experience. These are (a) networks through which migrants obtain access to resources and (b) the structure of the household and its management.

They point out that the decision-making process to enter migration networks in order to improve livelihood (or to prevent its erosion) is based on a careful assessment of household resources.

Calculations are made of assets, gains and losses within a particular livelihood system and temporal frame. The growing body of literature on human trafficking singles out the lack of access to reliable information channels regarding labour markets and living conditions as an important factor which fosters a symbiotic relationship between the trafficker and the trafficked. Control over information –or the provision of false information –by third parties can render a (potential) migrant's careful assessment of gains totally unrealistic and enhance their susceptibility to dependency on crime networks. In addition to this, both the regulation of particular segments of the labour markets and the extant structure of opportunity in a recipient country can result in migrants being switched between a variety of occupations controlled by the same networks, and this may affect their coping strategies. This process of switching constitutes another junction where migration and trafficking intersect. At each junction in the migration process vulnerability is enhanced due to migrants being constantly on the move and thus less able to consolidate social ties.

2.3.1   Human Trafficking in West and Central Africa

In West and Central Africa the different perceptions of human trafficking combined with different socio-economic and political situations in the various countries have created a mixture of policy responses (UNICEF, 2002). Guided by knowledge derived from action-oriented research initiated by a number of international, governmental and non-governmental organisations, responses have included a variety of measures. These are directed at: raising awareness among families, communities, local chiefs, government ministers and law enforcers; attempting legislative changes to protect trafficked persons and prosecute traffickers; providing training for border patrol police and social workers, and providing direct support to trafficked persons and their families. Direct support has covered interception, rescue and socio-economic reintegration often using micro- credit as the means for an alternative livelihood with economic self-sufficiency.

The implementing of anti-trafficking practices has brought to light the degree to which a given social and cultural setting is conducive to human trafficking and re-trafficking; and the subject of the latter requires analytical attention. Evidence gathered so far reveals that the links between migration and trafficking are visible at different

junctions of some broader social process that either disrupts livelihood systems (such as militarized conflict) or gradually erodes their sustainability (such as unsuccessful institutional reforms). Gender and age appear significant in determining who participates in what type of regime of migration, or at what juncture migration gets involved with practices of trafficking and for which types of work.

Truong (2006) referring to the work of Veil (1999, cited in Adepoju, 2005), identified six different processes that can result to trafficking: i) Poor parents sell their children for money –having also received promises that they will be treated well. ii) There is 'placement' for a specified period in return for a token sum or gift items. iii) 'Bonded placement' of children is the reimbursement for a debt the parents accrued. iv) There is enrolment with an agent for domestic work –the parents paying the agent a fee. v) Fees are also paid agents who purport to enroll the children in some course of schooling or training in a trade but who put them out to domestic work. And vi) there is straight forward abduction.

The trafficking of adult women –involving the payment of a fee to an agent –from West Africa to Western Europe, which became visible in the 1980s and continued through the 1990s, was often explained as an outcome of pressures to provide additional income to support their families and the children's education (Truong, 1998). But that has been followed by a cross-continental trafficking flow of minors of both sexes, to Western Europe from other sub-regions of SSA (International Organisation for Migration, 2002). It appears that the trafficking of women and children is closely related to an erosion of social protection, which has pushed them to find other options elsewhere.

Where intra-regional regimes of trafficking in children are concerned, the specificities of their vulnerability deriving from local contexts (such as belonging to marginal ethnic groups, subservient castes, or dysfunctional families affected by war or disaster) have apparently contributed to the creation of a child-specific demand for wide-ranging types of work within the region (ILO-IPEC, 2002). Children are trafficked into a variety of exploitative situations including commercial sex, domestic service, armed conflict, service industries like bars and restaurants; or into hazardous forms of work in factories, mines, construction, agriculture and fishing; also begging (ILO-IPEC, 2002). Exploitation of trafficked children can be progressive. Those trafficked to work in urban factories; domestic service or restaurants may subsequently be forced into prostitution. Those trafficked for prostitution may be subject to re-sale more than once.

Dottridge (2004) pointed out that the vulnerability of women and children to re-trafficking is due to factors such as the forms of intra-household decision-making and tacit 'tolerance' of trafficking mechanisms among the wider public, but also to an improper handling of trafficked persons, driven by social and cultural values that carry stigmatizing effects. Reports have revealed many cases where the children and women who have been intercepted and returned to their communities are soon being subject to re-trafficking.

The Anti-Slavery International's (ASI) 1999 report suggested that trafficking routes reflect the routes used by the populations themselves. These have formed intricate regional intersections that are flexible, depending on border control activity and labour market demands (Anti-Slavery International, 1999). Analysis indicates that existing protocol on handling victims of trafficking falls short in preventing re-victimization. Some anti-trafficking efforts can cause further damage by treating victims as criminals rather than identifying them as victims. The lack of effective protection mechanisms during reintegration can result in restricted freedom of movement, or in arbitrary detention and a disregard for the privacy of trafficked persons (Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe, 2004).

ILO-IPEC (2001) offered a detailed picture of the context, patterns and backgrounds of families and communities that have facilitated trafficking in West and Central Africa. It identifies three key clusters of factors, as follows:

(1) **Socio-cultural factors** such as the social acceptability of putting children to work, traditions of migrations that are centuries old in Africa, illiteracy or low education levels, and preparations for marriage (sometimes having to engage in domestic work to pay the dowry),

(2) **Economic factors** such as the imbalance between rural and urban wealth levels and a desire to escape poverty,

(3) **Juridical and political factors** such as absence of legislation and the ignorance of parents and trafficked persons of their rights under the law, or mistrust of the law; and open borders.

The traditional system of educating children to be independent and to initiate them to the world of work has been a recurring theme addressed by a variety of organisations. The tradition of 'placing', 'placement', 'confiding', or 'socialisation' has been variously portrayed as happening only during school holidays for a variety of purposes –such as to

acquire social and life skills, to pay off debts, to prepare for marriage, or to prove that children can live independently.

That the social construct of 'placement 'of children in work through migration is a tradition remains contested. National governments maintain a distinction between child placement and the traditional seasonal migration, which has linked West and Central Africa for generations. Anti-Slavery International (2003) noted that this traditional system of educating children by initiating them into work has been distorted into a commercial transaction which in turn has led to the trafficking of children from villages to the urban areas, and between countries within West and Central Africa. Recognizing the placing of children to live and work with relatives in better-off households as a long-standing practice, some analysts have noted that cross-border trafficking increased significantly during the 1980's and that in the 1990's there was an increase in movement from impoverished areas to the relatively well-off areas of Gabon, Southwest Nigeria and southern Côte d 'Ivoire, where there was a greater demand for child labour (Dottridge, 2002).

Dottridge (2002) recorded some gender-specific patterns of child trafficking with girls being placed in prostitution and other gender-based forms of work such as domestic service and street vending, where only some get paid and most do not. He also notes some gender-specific traditional practices that contribute to the aggravation of the trafficking situation of young women. For instance norms of kinship instill a custom, which requires young women to have a wedding trousseau and to leave their family and community when they get married. Gender-bias in investment in education tends to keep girls at home to help in the household chores, giving preference to the education of boys. Inheritance rules for land tend to exclude women and girls. Taken together, these gender-specific practices tend to marginalize women and girls in the community and render them vulnerable to risky 'work-placement' abroad.

He also emphasized that in many parents 'cognitive frame', 'placing' their children does not constitute the act of 'selling'; it is sending them away in the hope that they will be better off. In many cases the 'consent' of parents, and sometimes of the children, has been obtained before the designated child goes with the trafficker who may be a relative or a person who has gained the 'trust 'of the parents and family. On some occasions there is no choice other than to trust this person to take care of the child.

The findings of Riisoen *et al* (2004) shed new light on the intersection between child migration and trafficking. Their main observation regards the erosion of norms of

accountability in traditional arrangements of child fostering and placement, which can leave children vulnerable to exploitative conditions and to greater risks of being trafficked. Based on data collected in several countries in West Africa, Riisoen *et al* (2004) demonstrate some similarities and differences in the living and working conditions under a variety of placement systems.

A common feature noted in the study is the fact that children's vulnerability is often derived from the actual treatment by fosterers who command full authority over them. Economic difficulties can turn fostering within kinship systems into a burden for families leading to the withdrawal of responsibilities or the release of the fostered child to distant labour markets. Likewise, lack of means of livelihoods can shape given/traditional practices of fostering–such as, for boys, under the framework of religious education (called 'talibes' in Burkina Faso and Mali) into the undertaking of a variety of tasks for their masters which can include begging.

An intersection is emerging between traditional arrangements of child fostering and placement and new forms of trafficking, where children are more susceptible to multiple forms of vulnerability because in situations where traditional norms of accountability no longer hold there are no alternative protection network. Children may be lured to these arrangements but release themselves –if able – to pursue the goals of getting education on their own account. Under these conditions of vulnerability children often find themselves allocated to work in sectors where employers offer the worst living and working conditions.

According to the General Agricultural Workers' Union (GAWU) in Ghana the increased practice of flexible contractual work and casual treatment of norms of labour standards has allowed child labour gradually and indirectly into the formal agriculture sector. A number of studies on coastal fisheries in Ghana also pointed to the link between changing dynamics in this sector and the shift towards in-land fishing.

Competition for scarce resources may have led to an intensified use of child labour to cut costs. A recent report commissioned by the Danish Agency for Development Assistance (DANIDA) in Ghana found that about two-thirds of the trafficked children (both girls and boys) are engaged in the fishing sector: the majority of the boys as fishers and fishing assistants; the girls in the smoking and selling of the fish (Tengey and Oguaah, 2002). The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) claims that it has so far rescued more than a hundred children sold into bonded labour in one of the fishing communities.

Referring to a UNICEF study, Riison *et al* (2004) noted that in northern Ghana economic hardships can pressure foster families to encourage fostered girls to go to one of the major cities to find work; or can even result in the girls leaving on their own initiative. In a number of cases the girls left for a few months to work in market places to save money to go back to school.

In 1979 the General Agricultural Workers Union (GAWU) of Ghana used the 1972 ILO Convention on Rural Workers to expand its area of work to non-waged workers and subsistence farmers in the rural areas and to organise rural workers, including subsistence farmers. The constitution of the union was changed to cover a broader scope of "all employment in Agricultural Services or undertakings generally, including Rural Workers and self-employed Peasant Labour". Structural adjustment programmes in Ghana had a devastating effect on wage labour in the rural areas, and the membership of GAWU had dropped from 130 000 to 30 000 as a result (Horn, 2002).

Overa (2001) noted several factors causing a decline in small-scale coastal fisheries in Ghana and relocation elsewhere. These include over fishing by foreign industrial ships which makes canoe-fishing unsustainable; rising fuel prices, and falling demands due to a decrease in purchasing power.

The Anti-Slavery International Report (2001) noted that poverty is central to why parents, acting as intermediaries, have to trust –and send their children to work. The reality of one less mouth to feed for a poor household makes a significant difference while the prospect of good wages in a wealthier country can lure desperate parents to trust that earnings will contribute to the child's dowry for instance; or parents take a part or even the whole of the child's salary for the household (ASI, 2001; ILO, 2001). These include the fostering system based on extended kinship, and educational arrangements such as apprenticeship in workshops or under Muslim clerics.

Modern day slavery is not a homogenous business operating with the same tactics in every area of the world. Sex traffickers have perfected the art of coercive rhetoric based on culture, socio-economic circumstances, and context of their targeted victims. In order for the modern-day abolitionist movement to succeed, we must also be used to these differences, and keep them in the forefront when planning preventative measures and aftercare programs. Many leaders have taken steps to address cultural, circumstantial, and contextual disparities in Europe and in Asia. In Europe, commercials and radio advertisements are aired to caution women of deceptively appealing job offers as models, housekeepers, and bartenders, and to also be leery of any job offer in America. In Asia,

different strategies are at work. In Asia, corrupt governments and a very different culture makes public ads ineffective. As a result, leaders addressing sex slavery in Asia focus their attention on preventively lifting up the image of women in society and then attempt to aggressively rehabilitate their victims in the face of their forced actions that Asian culture and family may find shameful. There is still much room for improved methods of prevention, and more effective systems of aftercare. Traffickers have had much time to perfect their deceptive and coercive rhetoric to enslave millions of women and children. It is time that we do the same to come to their rescue.

2.3.2 Causes and Control of Human Trafficking in Nigeria

According to UNICEF (2003), trafficking is recognized as a problem in the greater majority of West African countries and as a severe problem in a third of them. In Eastern and Southern Africa, it is also identified as a problem in roughly one in three of the countries. The fact that trafficking is a very sensitive issue may contribute to public reluctance to acknowledge its prevalence and this itself can be an obstacle to research and data analysis.

The human and social consequences of trafficking are compelling. From the physical abuse and torture of victims to the psychological and emotional trauma, to the economic and political implications of unabated crime, the impact on individuals and society is clearly destructive and unacceptable (UNODC, 2008)

Trafficking violates the most basic rights of any person – the freedom from coercion at work, the freedom to set up associations and bargain collectively, and the freedom from discrimination at work. Trafficking of children has been defined by the ILO as one of the worst forms of labour, which seriously harms the development of the child or any person. Economic empowerment and reintegration programmes have tried to address the problem of human trafficking but they did not appear to achieve the expected results. Awareness-raising activities proved to be more vigorous. Despite these initiatives, human trafficking remains a critical problem in Nigeria.

Nigeria ratified the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children in 2001 and passed a national law against trafficking entitled "Trafficking in Persons (Prohibition) Law Enforcement and Administration Act 2003." Nigeria is one of the few African countries that passed such a law. Nigeria also passed the Child Rights Act in 2003, which deals comprehensively with the issue of child trafficking.

Although Nigeria has enormous natural and human resources (Nigeria is the 11th largest producer of oil in the world), debt burden and institutionalized corruption takes a serious toll on the country's economy. Nigeria has been rated one of the six poorest countries in the world with a per capita GNP of about US $280 Dollars for a population of about 170 Million. Nigeria is a country rich in resources but with widespread poverty. Hope of continuing education or working abroad, traditional migration patterns of labour within the country, the practice of children being loaned or sent to better-situated family members to be raised and casual border procedures all contribute to acceptance and expectations of unregulated movement. Poverty is the most visible cause of the vulnerability of women and children to trafficking in Nigeria.

Trans-national organized criminal syndicates and networks are responsible for the bulk of human trafficking, which is linked to a range of other trafficking such as drugs, firearms, consumables, and other criminal activities including money laundering, smuggling and political bribery and corruption (UNESCO, 2006).

Perhaps, bad leadership and corruption may be the cause of mass illiteracy which leads to poverty, and invariably results in persistent quest for survival by all means. This compels some people to indulge in the *modern slavery* (human trafficking) business. Corruption is said to have eroded the moral fabric of the Nigerian society - both the leadership and followership. The dangers of illiteracy, in any nation as observed by Jegede *et.al* (2011), cannot be over-emphasised. The effect of illiteracy can be felt in virtually all the facets of life ranging from education, health, politics, government, and business, awareness-raising and social to domestic life (Jegede *et.al* 2011). This submission seems to have captured human trafficking as one of the numerous problems created by illiteracy.

Nigeria is currently the most populous country in sub- Saharan Africa. Despite being the eleventh producer of petroleum in the world, its human development index is abysmal. Years of political instability, pervading corruption and mismanagement of the economy have left the country one of the poorest in the developing world. In 2003, UNDP estimated that over70% of Nigeria's 125 million people live below the poverty line, with income per-capita being a mere USD$ 800. Unemployment is high and rampart, with women being more severely affected. Thus, it is not surprising that the rate of out-migration from Nigeria has been rising steadily in the last couple of years. In the circumstance, many young Nigerians consider living abroad as their best option, even if

they have to do the most menial or degrading jobs in those countries, including prostitution. (Okonofua et al, 2004).

Using the victims to generate income could be a secondary function at the local level of human trafficking in Nigeria. Rather, the victims in most cases are meant to be paid by their employers. Trafficking in persons across borders or international level is solely meant for economic or utilitarian gains. Teenage girls and young women are trafficked within Africa, to Europe, America, Asia and other parts of the world for prostitution – commercial sex work and to provide domestic and other forms of forced labour.

From the civil society, WOTCLEF initiated an anti-trafficking bill drafting committee in June 2000. The committee has drafted a bill that, if passed into law, will help harmonize the existing laws, prevent trafficking, prosecute traffickers, and protect the trafficked. The bill is still before the National Assembly (Wallinger, 2010). A study conducted by Kristof Van Impe in 2002 on how to develop appropriate measures to tackle trafficking in women in the Philippines and Belgium indicated that there is no easy or uni-dimensional solution to human trafficking, since it is influenced by a complex set of factors, often working in combination with one another. It concludes that control measures alone cannot stop the flow of trafficking in women and that a legal approach which relies solely on one type of legislation would be too narrow. An effective strategy must combine and balance punitive measures with protection of human rights, stricter border control and the removal of the root causes of irregular movements. Measures must be agreed and coordinated between origin, transit and receiving countries.

One argument for legalizing prostitution in the Netherlands was that legalization would help end the use of desperate immigrant women trafficked for prostitution. A report done for the Governmental Budapest Group stated that 80% of the women in the brothels in the Netherlands are trafficked from other countries. As early as 1994, the International Organization of Migration (IOM) stated that in the Netherlands alone, nearly 70 percent of trafficked women were from Central and Eastern European Countries (CEEC). Another argument for legalizing prostitution in the Netherlands was that it would end child prostitution. In reality, however, child prostitution in the Netherlands has increased dramatically during the 1990s. The Amsterdam-based Child Right organization estimates that the number has gone from 4,000 children in 1996 to 15,000 in 2001. The group estimates that at least 5, 000 of the children in prostitution are from other countries, with a large segment being Nigerian girls.

In summary, poverty seems to be the major cause of human trafficking. Although, the Nigerian government has created many programmes to alleviate poverty and the results have not had a significant impact on the people, particularly women and children. Women are rarely involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of the various government programmes that address poverty. Consequently, the programmes fail to take into account the needs of women. These failures undermine the political will to reduce poverty in the country.

Other factors also impede the access of women to the programmes for economic advancement. These include large family sizes, lack of education, lack of land ownership, and various forms of institutionalized and cultural violence against women's rights. Although the Nigerian constitution technically guarantees the socio-economic rights of its citizens, it is difficult for women to challenge the infringements of their rights in the courts (UNESCO, 2006).

2.4   Concept of Poverty

The discourse on poverty has over the years produced a massive literature, which demonstrates that a consensus definition of the poverty concept still remains an unsettled business because of its multidimensional nature and dynamic properties. That notwithstanding, an appreciable effort has gone with providing operational definitions of the concept.

While Aku *et al*, (1997), Sen. (1981), Amis and Rakodi (1994), Soludo (2004) define poverty as a condition of low consumption, others have adopted broader definitions of the concept, such as a situation of being unable to meet basic material needs which include food, water, clothing, shelter, education, health, as well as environmental requirements such as air, serenity, art, and basic non-material needs such as political and community participation, identity, dignity, and so on (Blackwood and Lynch, 1994; Ajakaiye, 2001).

According to Ajakaye and Olomola (1999) poverty is as a state of involuntary deprivation to which a person, household, community or nation can be subjected. Apata (1994) also classified poverty as cyclical, which is temporary and seasonal. Collective poverty is permanent and can be generalized or concentrated, it can be transferable from one generation to another. There is also the case of poverty, which is also permanent and fatal. In this case, an individual or family will be found wanting even in the midst of abundance. Evidently, Nigeria is suffering from cyclical and

collective poverty. Baharogla (2005) stated that the multidimensional nature of poverty makes the system connected. This is because one dimension of poverty is often a cause of or a contributor to another dimension.

According to Balogun (1999) poverty in its absolute sense is a situation where a population or section of the population is able to meet only its bare subsistence essentials of food, clothing and shelter in order to maintain minimum standard of living.

Englama and Bamidele, (1997) aptly summarizes the definition of poverty as both absolute and relative term. As a state where an individual is not able to cater adequately for his or her basic needs of food, clothing and shelter… meet social and economic obligations, lacks gainful employment, skills, assets and self-esteem, and has limited access to social and economic infrastructures.

Poverty can thus be described as a situation and process of serious deprivation or lack of resources and material necessary for living within a minimum standard conducive to human dignity. It is a condition of life so degraded by disease, illiteracy, malnutrition, slum dwelling etc as to deny its victims the basic human necessities for survival of minimum standard of living. This type of deprivation may apply to a whole society even pockets of extreme affluence may exist in such society.

Oladunni (1999) viewed poverty in terms of insufficient income for securing the basic necessity of life such as food, clothing and shelter, education, health, portable water and sanitation, and as a result has limited chance of his or her welfare to the limit of his or her capacities. Ukpong (1996) defined poverty as a situation of low income and or low consumption, and people are considered as poor when their measured standard of living is below a minimum acceptable level, known as the poverty line.

Monetary measures of poverty have been used in many countries, but they do not capture the multidimensional nature of poverty. People may be poor not just because of low incomes, but their poverty may be derived from an inadequate, unstable or risky asset base needed as a cushion to carry them through hard times. They may be poor because their housing is overcrowded, of low quality or is insecure, because they do not have access to safe water, adequate sanitation, health care or schools, because they are lacking a supportive safety net or because they are not protected by laws and regulations concerning civil and political, as well as economic, social and cultural

rights, discrimination and environmental health, or because they are denied a voice within political system.

UNCHS (1998) stated that those who are chronically poor experience poverty all the time, they are vulnerable, lack assets, skills and education to improve their opportunities. Those whose poverty is transitory have some opportunities for escaping from poverty when chances present themselves. This group is made up of individuals who work but receive low wages in the formal and informal sectors and usually do not have security of tenure. Another category can be characterized as conjectural which includes people who become poor because of circumstances such as war, famine and through labour retrenchments.

According to Voluntary Service Overseas (1994) poverty is usually classified as absolute and relative. Absolute poverty described the condition in which basic needs (food, shelter, sanitation, clean water, education etc.) cannot be met while relative poverty applies to people who may not be absolutely poor but lack things which in a particular society are thought to be necessary for a reasonable life.

2.5   The Concept of Household Livelihoods Security

The contemporary discourse on livelihoods is generally framed within the definition of sustainable livelihoods developed by Chambers and Conway (1992) "a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living."

The concept of household livelihoods security allows for a more comprehensive understanding of poverty, malnutrition and the dynamic and complex strategies that the poor use for survival. Household livelihoods security is defined as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic needs, which include adequate access to food, potable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, time for community participation and social integration. The risk of livelihood failure determines the level of vulnerability of a household to income, food, health and nutritional insecurity. Therefore, livelihoods are secure when households have secure ownership of or access to, resources, including reserves and assets, and income-earning activities to offset risks, ease shocks and meet contingencies (Chambers, 1989).

A livelihood is sustainable, according to Chambers and Conway (1992), when it can cope with and recover from the stress and shocks, maintain its capability and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation. Unfortunately,

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not all households are equal in their ability to cope with stress and repeated shocks. Poor people balance competing needs for asset preservation, income generation and present and future food supplies in complex ways (Maxwell and Smith, 1992).

Sustainable livelihoods approaches are asset –based and promote a holistic rather than sectoral view of livelihood development. These assets encompass a broad range of resources including material, social, tangible and intangible capital held within and available to individuals and communities. These are elaborated as;

1. Natural capital − the natural resource base and environmental services which can be used to generate a livelihood.
2. Financial capital − available financial resources including savings, access to credit, remittances.
3. Human capital – skills, knowledge, ability to work, including good health.
4. Social capital – networks and social relations that can be tapped; and
5. Physical capital- infrastructure and production equipment

2.6   The Concept of Sustainable Livelihoods

Livelihoods can be made up of non- farm and off-farm activities that together provide a variety of procurement strategies for food and cash. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope and recover from stress and shocks maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base.

Livelihoods are sustainable when they:

1. are resilient in the face of external shocks and stress;
2. are not dependent upon external support;
3. maintain the long term productivity of natural resources; and
4. do not undermine or compromise the livelihood option open to others
   (DFID, 1999).

Sustainability can be analyzed from the perspective of three elements:

1. Environmental sustainability is achieved when the production of key natural resources is consumed or enhanced for future generations;
2. Social sustainability is achieved when social exclusion is minimized and social equity is maximized;
3. Institutional sustainability is achieved when prevailing structures and processes have the capacity to continue to perform their functions over the long term.

The livelihood strategies people adopt are greatly affected by the vulnerability context. The vulnerability context is the group of factors, operating in the external environment in which people exist, that may affect their susceptibility to poverty. There are three keys areas in which vulnerability can be assessed. These are:

1. Trends such as monetary inflation;
2. Shocks in terms of natural disasters, flood and drought, and
3. Seasonality of wealth (DFID, 2001).

2.6.1 Capital Assets for Livelihoods

Capital assets according to DFID (1998) include the following:

1. Natural capital made up of the natural resources that can be exploited to support livelihoods such as land, water, fish, wildlife, biodiversity and environmental resources;

2. Social capital that includes the network of groups, relationships of trust, access to other institutions of the society upon which they can draw in pursuit of livelihoods such as family ties and age group;

3. Physical capital which refers to the basic infrastructures (transport, roads, shelter, latrine, schools, clinics, land sites, meeting places, water, energy and communication) as well as the equipment of production and means that enable people to pursue their livelihoods; and

4. Financial capital or financial resources that are available to people such as savings, supplies of credit or regular remittances or pensions, other assets that can be converted to cash to enable them to pursue different livelihood options e.g. cash, jewelry, credit system etc.

5. Human capital consists of skills, knowledge, talents, strength and good health. These assets are very important and they all work together to ensure rural dwellers' pursuit of livelihood strategies. They serve as safety net mechanisms for meeting their needs.

Capital assets also reduce risks, access services and reduce marginalization. Furthermore, greater access to transport, urban markets, energy, good schools, electricity and water systems will improve rural dwellers standard of living and strengthen their ability to ensure sustainable livelihoods.

2.6.2 Livelihood Strategies and Outcomes

Livelihoods strategies are the range and combination of activities and choices the people undertake or make to achieve their livelihoods goals (Fregene, 2002). Tacoli

(1998) explains that a significant proportion of rural and urban dwellers rely on livelihood diversification and strategies. The capital assets described above will reduce rural dwellers vulnerability; provide effective transport systems, higher levels of educational, high nutritional status and open door to more livelihood options.

Livelihoods outcomes are what people achieve from their livelihoods and what they aspire to achieve in future (livelihood goals). The people themselves must determine livelihoods outcomes. These outcomes might include aspects of increased income and well-being, improved security and better health, better access to good education, reduced vulnerability and more sustainable use of natural resources.

2.7 Perception

Perception from the Latin word "perceptio, percipio" is the organization, identification and interpretation of information in order to represent and understand the environment. Robbins (2003) explains that perception is the impression gained by the individual through the senses. Then it is analyzed (organized), interpreted and evaluated, so that individuals acquire the meaning. Wagner and Hollenbeck (2003) review perception as a process which enables individuals to organize and interpret their sensory impressions to give meaning to their environment. A number of factors that influence the perception according to Robbins are the perpetrator's perception, object or target perceived and situations. Among the personal characteristics of the perceiver which influence perception more relevant are the attitude, motives, interests, past experience and expectations. Object or target may be a person, an object or event. The properties of an object or target usually affect the perception of the beholder. The situation is the context of the object or event, which includes elements of the surrounding environment and time.

2.7.1 Types of perception

Based on the understanding of a stimuli or stimulus human senses of perception are divided into several types, they are:

Visual perception: the perception of visual is perception gained from the sense of sight. Visual perception is the result of what we see before we see or imagine something during and after the target object. Visual perception is the main topic of discussion in general perception, while perception is usually the most often discussed in the context of daily life.

2. **Auditory Perception:** it is perception gained from the sense of hearing.

3. **Palpability perception:** it is obtained from the perception of the skin or can be touched

4. **Smell perception:** it is derived from the sense of smell from the nose.

5. **Taste perception:** it is derived from the taste in the mouth and tasted by the tongue.

2.7.2 Factors Affecting Perception

The perceptual mechanism is basically affected by two factors, namely the internal and external.

I. **Internal factors**: Amongst the internal factors are:

a. **Needs and Desires**: Basically the perception of relatively satisfied people differs significantly from those of frustrated individuals. In the words Rao and Narayana (1998) "People at different levels of needs and desires perceive the same thing differently." Furthermore, the expectations, motivations and desires of people also shape their perception of other and situations around them.

b. **Personality:** Individual characteristic behaviour is another strong influence on what you perceive about that individual. "It is a trite to say that optimistic people perceive the things in favourable terms, pessimistic beings in negative terms." According to Maslow (1972), between the optimist and the pessimist exists a category of people who are capable of perceiving others "accurately and objectively." They sum this issue in the following outline:

- Secure individuals tend to perceive others as warm, not cold.

- Thoughtful individuals do not expose by expressing extreme judgement of others.

- Persons who accept themselves and have faith in their individuality perceive things favourably.

- Self-accepting individuals perceive themselves as liked, wanted and accepted by others.

c. **Experience**: Combined with knowledge, experience has a perpetual impact on the perception of an individual. "Successful experiences enhance and boost the perception ability and lead to accuracy in perception of a person whereas failure erodes self-confidence."

II. **External Factors:** External factors affecting perception include the following:

a. **Size:** Perceptual stimulus of larger sizes has higher chances of being perceived. This is due to the fact that the factor of size is commonly associated with dominance and others to standing out for selection. A straight-forward example is that a full. Page advert catches more attention than those less than a page.

b. **Intensity:** This factor has to do with promoting the chances of a stimuli being selected. For example, some of the strategies that foster intensity are underlining or bolding or italicising words in a written text. "The greater the intensity of a stimulus, the more likely it will be noticed."

c. **Frequency:** Addresses the attention that accrues from the steady repetition of a particular stimulus. That is, the art of repetition simply attracts our alertness and provost our sensitivity to the message being sent across. The stimulus that is repeated with greater intensity is more likely to qualify for selection as it were.

d. **Status:** The status of a person being perceived exerts a lot of influences on a perception. Within an organization, highly placed officers expectedly influence employees than persons who occupy lower rings of the organizations hierarchy.

e. **Contrast:** Stimulus that share common features with the environment are less likely to quality for selection by the perceiver compared to those that contrast sharply with the environment. For example, a person that spots riotous colours or dress like father Christmas in June would certainly attract more attention that those that put up normal appearance.

2.7.3 Age and Perception of Human Trafficking

It is a truism that the number of years that a person has lived or existed influence his worldview on issues. To this end, Ezewu (1987) posited that the age of a person plays an important role in the critical appraisal of events, situations or a thing. He maintained that, experience gained as a result of one's helps a great deal in his objective assessment of the world around him. He pointed out that young people lack experience on many issues and are therefore hasty at drawing conclusions.

Pollitt (1990) on his part indicated that there is a positive relationship between age and cognition. He stated that the older the age of a person, the more cognitively developed the person is. This as he further maintained will place the person on advantage over the younger one, because as the saying goes, 'experience is the best teacher'. Therefore the older person will better appraise the effect of human trafficking than the younger one and will to this end perceive the phenomenon as modern day slavery while the younger ones will perceive it otherwise.

In a similar development, Madunagu (2002) noted that, young men and women have an incurable craze for better life. She maintained that to enjoy this better life they do anything without minding the implications. They therefore look at human trafficking as worthwhile and a poverty alleviation measure. She further pointed out that although the

young ones are more concerned about better life, parents in some instances compel their female children to engage in human trafficking in order to uplift the family economically.

2.7.4 Gender and Perception of Human Trafficking

Research findings have demonstrated that differences exist between gender and perception of human trafficking. On account of this, Madunagu (2002) posited that parents of victims (males and females) who were contacted in a focused group discussion gave different opinion as to what constitute human trafficking. Whereas the females see human trafficking as a money making venture, the males on the contrary see it as an avenue for exploitation of human labour and earnings.

In a similar development, Osakue and Okoojion (2002) maintained that there is a remarkable difference in the perception of human trafficking by men and women. They noted that girls are more easily attracted by wealth such that when they see the successes of others, they want to emulate them not minding the means. They therefore look at human trafficking as a means of making quick money rather than a means of exploitation as being looked upon by men.

Eysenck and Nias (2000) on their part observed that in virtually all cultures, there are different norms for males and females, so men and women have different worldview and by extension different perception of human trafficking. They maintained that whereas men perceive human trafficking as an instrument of exploitation, women perceive it as a worthwhile enterprise which has come to alleviate poverty in Africa.

2.7.5 Residential Location and Perception of Human Trafficking

Residential location refers to where the respondent lives, that is either rural or urban but in this case six urban cities are involved, that is, Calabar, Port Harcourt, Yenegoa, Uyo, Asaba and Benin City. To this end, Fontana (1981) asserted that one's residential location influences his/her perception generally. He noted that people in urban areas typically are exposed to a wider range of experiences. The print and electronic media, information technology and fairly stocked libraries are available to them to boost their experience. Consequent upon this experience they are more likely to perceive the realities of human trafficking better than their counterparts in rural areas.

Griffiths (1990) on his part observed that poverty, sterile environment and low standards of social services characterize rural environment to the extent that the residents' perception is jaundiced. Thus, the rural dwellers hardly see anything wrong with human trafficking since they consider it as a means through which they get exposed to the outside world. The reverse is rather the case with those who live in urban areas.

In a similar vein, Ezewu (1983) concluded that some features of the rural environment impact on the residents negatively, so much so that they influence their perception and consequently their opinion on issues. A case in point is the riverine areas where residents of such places are always involved in fishing without engaging in any other venture to broaden their horizon. This limited exposure makes them look at human trafficking as means of relieving them of the burden of fishing rather than a means of exploitation.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The following theories will be examined in order to serve as basis for a conceptual framework for the study. Human trafficking being a criminal activity and also a social vice can be observed from the perspective of social learning and social control theories. These theories will help to shed light on the process of socialization and deviance that led to human trafficking as a behaviour. Also the influence of family and peer group on victims is fully highlighted.

3.1.   Social Learning Theory

The social learning Theory or the Differential Association Theory states that crime is a learned behavior. "People learn criminal behavior through the groups with which they associate. If a person associates with more groups that define criminal behavior as acceptable, the person will probably engage in criminal behaviour". Put another way, "just as people must learn through socialization how to conform to their society's norms they must also learn how to depart from those norms. In other words, deviance, like conforming behavior is a product of socialization.

This theory shows how a person can socially learn deviant behavior from those around him or her such as family, peers, schoolmates or anyone else that he/she may come in contact with. The parents and peers are probably the most powerful agents of socialization.

To exemplify this theory, imagine a child growing up in a home where the parents routinely engaged in criminal acts, the child would grow up assuming that these acts may not be as wrong as society or the law defined them. If a child is around delinquent peers, one can also learn the activities of their peers and be much more prone to engaging in criminal activity. Many people also engage in human trafficking as result of others' success stories or peer influence. This theory explains how family, friends and peers can influence one's decision to engage in human trafficking. Parents often send their children or wards to work and support the family as a way of preparing them for future responsibilities. Placement with extended family members is also a common practice for

children to learn a trade or go to school. All these are part of a learning process that the child undergoes as he/she grows up in the family and some of these practices expose children to human trafficking.

3.2. Social Control Theory

Social control theorists start with the premise that human behavior is by nature antisocial and delinquent. Travis Hirschi states "we are all animals and thus all naturally capable of committing criminal acts", and "people commit crimes because it is in their nature to do so. The question that really needs an answer is why do most not commit crimes." Social control theorists would view delinquents as acting out of their most primal inclinations.

This perspective states that members of the society form bonds with other members of society or institutions in society such as, parents, pro social friends, churches, schools, teachers, and sports team, to name a few. The social bonds identified by Hirschi include; the ties and affection that develop between children and key people in their lives, such as parents, teachers, relatives, and friends; commitments to social norms of behavior and to success in regard to such values as getting a good education, a good job, and being successful; involvement in activities because the more activities a person is involved in the less time he or she will have to get into trouble; and finally the fact that most persons are brought up to believe in and respect the law.

By creating these bonds the individual creates higher levels of social capital and internalizes the norms of society such as being a law-abiding citizen. This perspective would address juvenile delinquency as the juvenile failing to form the same bonds and creating the same levels of social capital as law-abiding citizen. Because of this deficiency in their socialization, the juvenile is more prone to engage in criminal activity. Human trafficking can be a thing of the past if all the groups in the society in which people belong to frowns at such vice and report cases in their areas to appropriate authorities since it is a societal issue.

3.3   Sustainable Livelihoods Theory

Improved understanding of poverty in recent years has highlighted, among others, the following:

(i) Well-being is not only about increased income alone but other dimensions of poverty such as food insecurity, social inferiority, social exclusion; lack of physical assets and vulnerability needs to be addressed as well.

(ii) Household poverty is determined by many factors, including lack of access to assets, and lack of influence in policy-making institutions.

(iii) Differences in livelihood practices. (Ashley and Hussein, 2000).

The livelihood approach to development and poverty reduction tries to incorporate all these concerns. Under this approach not only the economic benefits from tourism are examined but also their contribution towards the improvement of the livelihood of the people. A simplified version of this approach will be used in this study. It is postulated that for poverty reduction, a livelihood encompasses the capabilities, assets (both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. When it comes to its impact on poverty alleviation, it means that changes in measurable indicators (such as cash, yield) must be assessed not in their own right, but in terms of their contribution to the improved livelihood. The contribution may be direct (for instance, adding to income, health, food) or indirect (affecting their assets, activities and options). The model is people centered and attempts to assess impact based on people's own perspectives. Specifically, the model articulates the ownership of assets used for certain strategies and activities in order to generate outcomes that contribute towards poverty alleviation. To arrive at this end, three key themes need to be explored, namely livelihood strategies, livelihood changes due to tourism and differences between stakeholders. A simplified version of the livelihood framework is presented in Figure 3.1
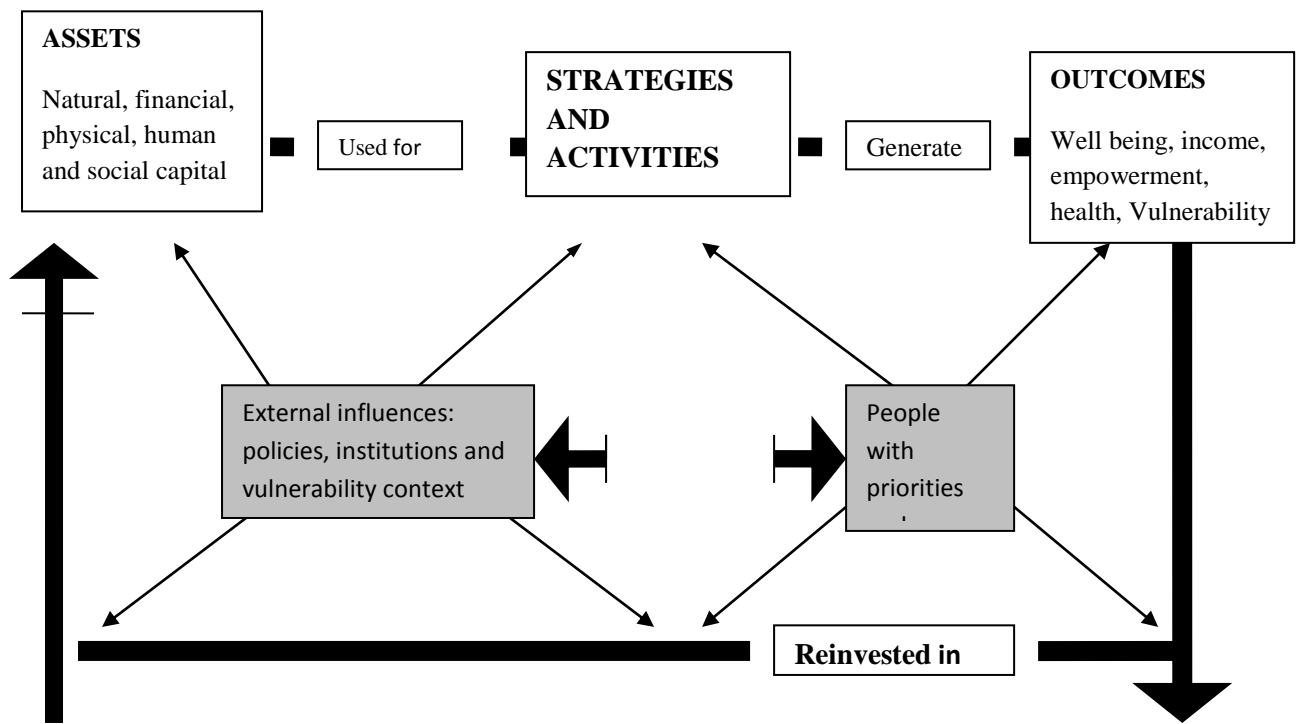
Figure 3.1 A Simplified Livelihoods Framework

Source: C. Ashley, adapted from DFID (1999) Guidance Sheet and Carney (1998)

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Study Area:

The study area is Southwestern Nigeria which consists of Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, Osun, Ondo and Ekiti states. The area lies between longitude 2^0 31^1 and 6^0 00^1 East and Latitude 6^0 21^1 and 8^0 37^1N with a total land area of 77,818 km^2 and a projected population of 28, 767, 752 (National Population Commission, 2006). The study area is bounded in the East by Edo and Delta states, in the North by Kwara and Kogi states, in the West by the Republic of Benin and in the south by the Gulf of Guinea.

The climate of Southwestern Nigeria is tropical in nature and it is characterize by wet and dry seasons. The temperature ranges between 21^oCand 34^oC while the annual rainfall ranges between 1500mm and 3000mm. The wet season is associated with the Southwest monsoon wind from the Atlantic Ocean while the dry season is associated with the Northeast trade wind from the Sahara desert. The vegetation is Southwestern Nigeria is made up of fresh water swamp and mangrove forest at the belt, the low land in forest stretches inland to Ogun and part of Ondo state while secondary forest is towards the northern boundary where derived and southern Savannah exist

Southwestern Nigeria is predominantly an agrarian society with rainforest and derived savanna vegetation. Agriculture is the major source of livelihoods of the inhabitants of the zone. Common tree crops grown in the area include cocoa, oil palm and cashew while arable crops such as yam, cassava, maize and rice also thrive well in the zone.
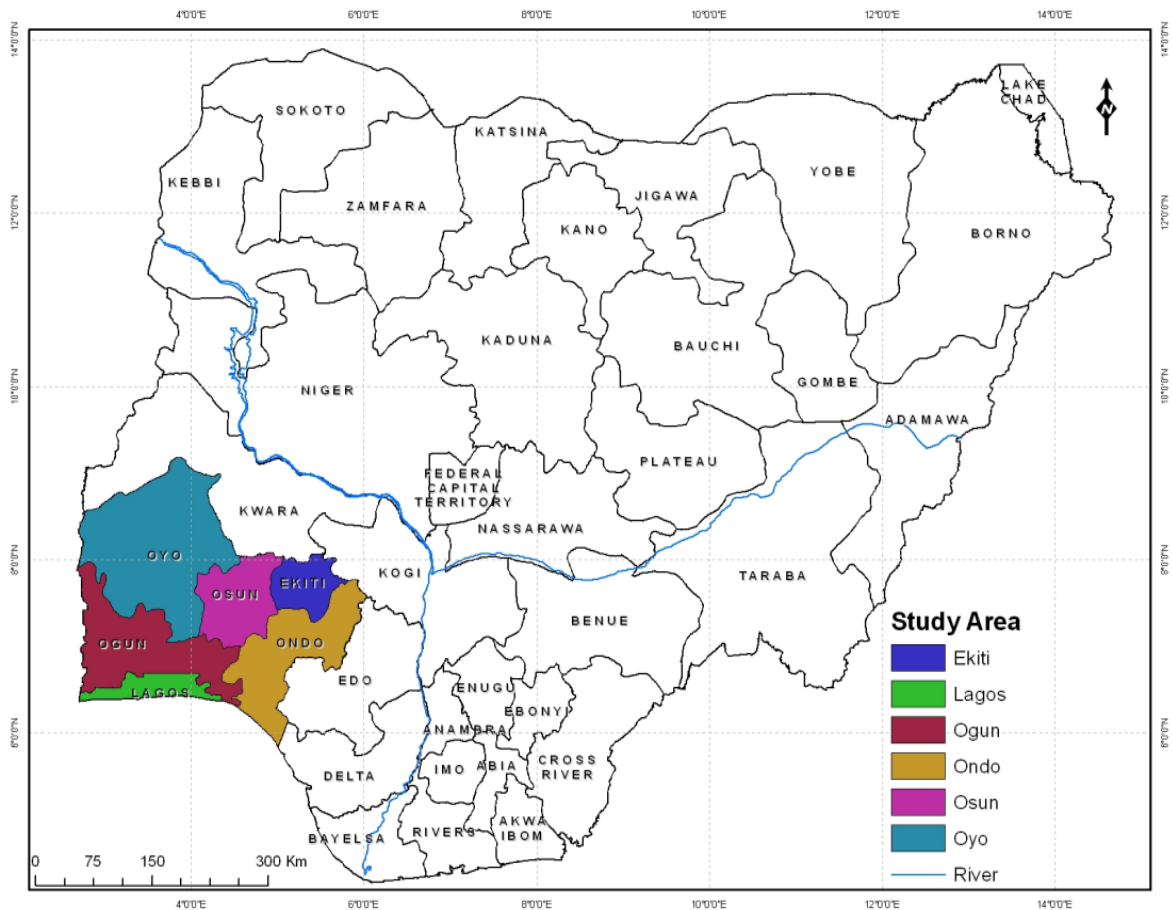
Figure 4.1 Map of Nigeria showing the Southwestern states

4.2. Population:

The population for the study includes the victims of human trafficking identified in the study area and these include trafficked people working as house helps, shop keepers, labourers at construction sites and doing other menial jobs.

4.3. Sampling Technique and Sample Size:

Three states were randomly selected out of the six states in southwest Nigeria; these were Oyo, Ogun and Lagos states. Snowballing technique was used to identify and obtain a list of trafficked people working as house helps, shop keepers and laborers in the study area. Nine hundred and twenty- six victims were identified through snowball technique and twenty-seven percent of the victims were randomly sampled from Oyo (100), Ogun (80) and Lagos (70) to give a total of 250 respondents.

4.4. Instrument for Data Collection:

Data for the study was obtained using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative data was obtained through the use of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with trafficked victims and in-depth interview with one key informant. Quantitative data was obtained through the use of structured interview schedule with both open and close-ended questions. Qualitative data involve voice recording of interviews and discussions which were later interpreted and used as basis for developing the instrument for quantitative data collection. Quantitative data collection involves the use of structured questions and statements with assigned scores that allowed the data to be subjected to analysis.

4.5. Validation of Instrument:

The interview schedule was subjected to face validity involving experts in Agricultural Extension and rural development and experts in the Departments of Sociology and Psychology of the Faculty of Social Sciences University of Ibadan.

4.6. Reliability of the instrument:

The interview schedule was pre-tested by administering it to 35 respondents from Ekiti State that were not part of the actual sample size before the actual data collection exercise. This helped to remove ambiguity and to test for the reliability of the instrument. A correlation coefficient of 0.71 was obtained and the instrument was thus confirmed to be reliable.

4.7. Measurement of Variables

4.7.1. Independent Variables: these include the personal characteristics of respondents such as age, sex, level of education, religion, marital status and occupation.

(a) Age: Respondents were asked to indicate their actual age when they were trafficked

(b) Sex: Respondents were asked to indicate whether they are Male (1) or Female (2)

(c) Marital status: Respondents were be asked to indicate whether they were

      (a) Married (1) or (b) Single (2)

(d) Highest level of education before trafficked:

(e) Highest level of income before trafficked:

(f) Method of Recruitment: Respondents were asked to indicate how they got into the hands of traffickers from the following options

a) Family arrangement/parents (1) b) Friends or Peers (2) c) Forced/coerced (3)

d) Kidnapped and sold (4) e) Personal decision (5)

(g) Pattern of trafficking: Respondents were be asked to state whether they were trafficked outside (2) or within (1) the country

(h) Family Type: a) Nuclear (1)   b) Extended (2)

(i) Marriage Type of Parents: a) Monogamy (1) b) Polygamy (2) c) Single parent (3)

(j) Position in the Family: a) First born (1) b) Last born (2) c) Others (3)

(k) Number of siblings: Respondents were asked to state how many children are in the family

(l) Parental Status: a) Alive (1) b) Dead (2)   If dead, who are you living with?

(m) Awareness about purpose of Trafficking: this was measured by asking respondents to indicate whether they knew the purpose for which they were being trafficked. Yes (1) No (0) If yes, what was the purpose?

(n) Type of job engaged in: Respondents were asked to state the type of job they were doing during the trafficking period

    a) house help (1) b) plantation worker (2) c) factory worker (3) d) pornography (4) e) prostitution (5) f) construction site worker (6) g) others (specify) (7)

    Is this job different from what you were expected to engage in? Yes (1)   No (0)

(o) Form and Extent of abuse suffered: Respondents were asked to state whether they were exposed to any form of abuse during the period they were being trafficked and the extent of abuse suffered

Form of abuse	Yes	No	Extent of abuse				
			Everyday (4)	At least twice a week (3)	At least once a week (2)	Occasionally (1)	Not at all (0)
Beatings							
Rape							
Overwork							
Hard labour							
Isolation							
Hunger							
Sent out in the night							
Starvation							
Confinement							
Torture							
Others (specify)							

(p) Accessibility to household/family members: Respondents were asked to indicate whether they have access to their parents or household members and how often

Accessibility	Yes	No	Frequency			
			Weekly (3)	Monthly (2)	Once in year (1)	Not at all (0)
Visits						
Phone Calls						
Letter writing						
Oral Messages						

(q) Average Monthly/Annual Income: Respondents were asked to state their average Monthly/Annual income during the trafficking period

Monthly: a. N2, 000- N4, 000 (1) b. N5, 000-N7, 000 (2) c. N8, 000-N10, 000 (3)

d. Above N10, 000 (4)

Yearly: a. Less than N20, 000 (1) b. N20, 000-N25, 000 (2) c.N26, 000-N30, 000 (3)

d. N31, 000- N40, 000 (4) e. Above N40, 000 (5)

(r) Remittances: Respondents were asked whether they make any remittance to their family during the trafficking period type of remittance and how often

Type of Remittance	Yes	No	Frequency		
			Monthly (3)	Twice a year (2)	Yearly (1)
Cash					
Kind (materials)					
Both					

(s) Average Monthly/Annual Remittance: Respondents were asked to state their average monthly/annual remittance

Monthly a. N2, 000- N4, 000 (1) b. N5, 000-N7, 000 (2) c. N8, 000-N10, 000 (3)

d. Above N10, 000 (4)

Annually a. Less than N20, 000 (1) b. N20, 000-N25, 000 (2) c.N26, 000-N30, 000 (3)

d. N31, 000- N40, 000 (4) e. Above N40, 000 (5)

If in kind, what type of materials? a) clothes (1) b) shoes (2) c) bags (3) d) jewelries (4)

e) all of the above (5)

(t) Purpose: Respondents were asked to state what the money was intended to be used for (a) to start a business (1) (b) to build a house (2) (c) to pay siblings school fees (3) (d) to feed the family (4) (e) saved for victim's education/future career (5) Was the money used for the intended purpose? a) Yes (1) b) No (0)

If yes, how? If no, why?

4.7.2: The dependent variable for the study is change in wellbeing of victims' households. This was measured by assessing the change in some identified welfare indicators; also the victims' perception of the changes in the socio-economic status of their households was examined.

(a) Implications for Household Wellbeing: Respondents were asked to indicate what perceived influence the trafficking experience has on their household wellbeing. This was measured by assessing the change in the following personal and household welfare indicators

Implication	Improved (3)	Unchanged (2)	Worse-off (1)
Education: None Primary incomplete Primary complete Secondary incomplete			

Tertiary			
Health care: Primary health care General hospital Private hospital Traditional doctors Local herbs			
Financial (income): Monthly income Annual income			
Social status:			
Feeding: Once a day Twice daily Three times daily More than thrice **Source of energy for cooking:** Gas Electricity Charcoal Firewood **Source of water:** Rain Well Borehole Pipe-borne water Stream/river			
Type of House: Mud Brick/block Duplex Bungalow Storey building **Type of roofing:** Thatched roof Aluminium sheets Asbestos **Source of power supply:** PHCN Generator			

None			
Type of toilet facility:			
Pit latrine			
Water closet			
Bush/stream			

(b)Socio-economic status: Respondents were asked to state which of the following household items were acquired as a result of their involvement in human trafficking i.e. improvement in household socio-economic status

Household accessories	Yes (1)	No (0)
Radio		
Television		
Video/VCD		
Refrigerator		
Ceiling/table fan		
Satellite		
Bicycle		
Generator		
Motorcycle		
Hand set		
Furniture		
Wall clock		
Washing machine		
Stabilizer		
Deep freezer		
Gas cooker		
Electric stove		
Electric iron		
Electric kettle		
Computer		

(c) Perceived change in household socio-economic status: This was measured by asking victims to respond to some perception statements relating to their households socio-economic status.

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD
My family feeds better than before					
There is no television in my house					
My siblings are going to better school					
I have worked in many places					
My mother uses kerosene stove					
I got vocational training where I went work					
Our house is built of mud					
My family goes to the hospital instead of using local herbs					
I have never been to school					
We have a refrigerator in the house					
We are still using pit latrine					
I bought a radio set for my parents					
My mistress sent me to school					
My mother bought a grinding machine					
There is no electricity in our house					
I was forced to follow my mistress/master					
We have a gas cooker					
My family/parents supported my going out to work					
I was told I will be going to school					
We don't have a generator					
I enjoyed staying with my mistress/master					
My mother still uses firewood for cooking					
I don't like the people I have worked with					
I am now computer literate					
I decided to go on my own					

A perception score was generated and the mean score was determined. Scores above the mean show positive perception which indicates an improvement in household socio-economic status, while scores below the mean show unfavourable perception which indicates little or no change in household socio-economic status.

4.8. Data Analysis: Data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation. Chi-square, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), linear regression and ANOVA were used to test relationship between variables in the stated hypotheses. Hypothesis one was tested using Chi-square, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and linear regression. Hypotheses two and four were tested using Chi-square while hypotheses three and five were tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. Research hypothesis six was tested using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results, interpretation and discussion of the data collected for this study. Section 5.1 describes the socioeconomic characteristics of human trafficking victims such as tribe, age, sex, educational qualification and income before trafficking. The section further describes family characteristics of the victims such as family size, family type and marriage type of parents. Trafficking characteristics of respondents were discussed in Section 5.2 these include; Method of recruitment of victims, pattern of trafficking and number of years spent at trafficking destination. Victims' awareness about trafficking purpose, type of job engaged in at trafficking destination and level of exploitative experiences of trafficking victims were discussed in sections 5.3, 5.4and 5.5 respectively. Sections 5.6, 5.7and 5.9 described victims' frequency of contact with households, awareness of average income and percentage remittance respectively. Types and regularity of remittance, the intended purpose and actual use of remittances was later discussed in sections 5.10, 5.12 and 5.13 respectively. Then other benefits and negative effects of trafficking, perception of respondents on contributions of human trafficking to their household wellbeing, impact of human trafficking on victims' wellbeing and change in household socio-economic status, and finally results of tested hypotheses.

5.1 Socioeconomic characteristics of human trafficking victims

5.1.1 Tribe of trafficking victims:

The tribes of the respondents as presented in Table 5.1 shows that Yoruba tribe ranked highest (51.6%) among the victims of trafficking. It can also be observed that the victims were from various parts of the country and even outside Nigeria from countries like Cameroun, Benin Republic and Togo in particular. This confirms the assertion that Nigeria is a source, transition and destination country for human trafficking victims in West Africa (USDS, 2008). In the Benin Republic, there are about 1.5million Yoruba people living in the central and southeastern parts of the country. Some of the main Yoruba cities in Benin Republic include Kétu, Cotouno Sábëê (also spelt Sabe), and Porto Novo (also known as

Àjàsê, which is the original Yoruba name). Port Novo and Cotonuo are Benin republic's major and commercial capital. In Togo, the Yoruba occupy the south central regions of the country. Togo's second largest city, Atakpame (also known as Ifĕ-Aáná) is a Yoruba city. Ife-Aáná or Atakpame is Togo's commercial capital. Okojie, (2004) observed that foreign children trafficked to Nigeria come mainly from Republic of Benin, Togo, Côte d'Ivoire and Niger Republic. This also corroborates the findings of the Focus Group Discussion that trafficking victims were mostly from rural communities. The rural communities they mentioned include places like Bikua, Bolita, Karie all in Togo, while some said they are from Ikare in Ondo state. The implication of this is that respondents who could have been involved in farm production in their different areas/communities have been trafficked. Therefore there will be scarcity of labour force that could have helped in farm production. This could result in high cost of labour and low agricultural production.

Table 5.1 Frequency distribution of tribe/country of origin of trafficked victims (n-250)

Tribe	Frequency	Percentage
Baruba	8	3.2
Yoruba	129	51.6
Fulani	10	4.0
French	36	14.4
Togo	59	23.6
Igbo	6	2.4
Egun	2	0.8

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.1.2 Age of victims before trafficking:

Figure 3 shows that 46.4% of the respondents were between ages 5-15years before they were trafficked, 30.8% were between ages 16-20years while only few (0.8%) were 31years and above. Mean age of respondents is 17years this is an indication that majority of trafficked victims were young children. Majority of victims who participated during the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) were between ages 14 and 18years. This indicates that victims of human trafficking were young and in their productive years that should be actively involved in agriculture and community development activities in their various communities. Thus human trafficking leads to depletion of farm labour which can result in low agricultural production. This may negatively impact agriculture in a way. Children that were supposed to help their parents have been trafficked from their farming communities.

This finding is further corroborated by the report of United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2006). The studies indicated that majority of children exploited in the labour market are under the age of 14years. Nineteen (19) children were interviewed by the Nigerian research team; all were under the age of 15years. Two of the victims were under the age of five, while 11 others were between the ages of six and ten. Six more children were between the ages of 11 and 15years. With respect to the women trafficked abroad for commercial sexual exploitation, the majority were between the ages of 17 and 30.
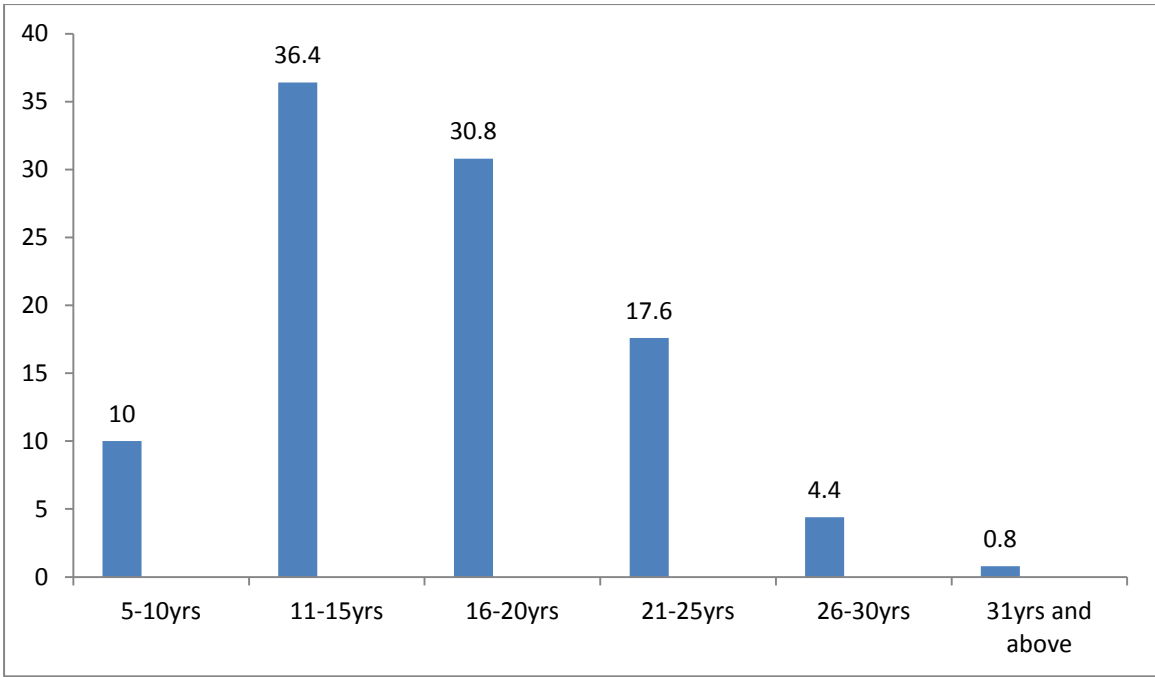
Figure 5.1 Age of victims before trafficking

Plate 1: A cross section of trafficking victims during the Focus Group Discussion

5.1.3 Sex of trafficking victims:

The frequency distribution of trafficking victims by sex as shown in Table 5.2 indicated that more than half of the respondents (55.2%) were female. This finding corroborates the statement by USAID (2006) that women constitute a large percentage of trafficked victims. West African women and children predominantly from Nigeria, Benin, Togo and Ghana are trafficked within their countries and to other countries such as Gabon, Cameroun, and Cote D` ivoire, Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo and Equatorial Guinea. Bohl (2010) in a study in Nepal found that majority of trafficked persons were females that are in great demand in Indian brothels and circuses. According to US Department of State, recent estimates revealed that 80 percent of trafficking victims worldwide are female and 50 percent are children (USDS, 2004). The vast majority of those trafficked under 18 years of age were girls. Male minors account for only 2% of trafficking cases. Women are known to contribute a large percentage to agricultural production in Nigeria particularly harvest and post-harvest handling of farm products. The implication of trafficking women from farming communities is that their role in agricultural production will be negatively affected which could result in low production and wastage of farm products.

There are push factors, which place girls and young women at a higher risk of being trafficked than boys or young men. Girls in many societies are less valued than boys they are thus expected to sacrifice their education and assume domestic responsibilities taking care of their parents and siblings. Knowing fully well that they will leave the family upon marriage, they are regarded as poor investment and this makes it easier for the parent(s) to send them out to work. Additionally, domestic work is regarded as a preparation for marriage (Okojie *et al*, 1996; ILO-IPEC, 2002, Human Rights Watch, 2003). It was also found out during the FGD that females are mostly involved in trafficking. A girl among the discussants said

> *"Boys are mostly involved in farm work while girls are sent to do house helps and*
> *learn house work or a trade in preparation for marriage".*

The interview with key informant also revealed the fact that human trafficking victims are mostly young females.

A study by a Nigerian NGO, Girls Power Initiative attributed the reason why girls are more susceptible to trafficking abroad than boys or young men to the followings; firstly there is a demand for their sexual services, parents preferred to send daughters abroad because they could be relied upon to assist the family and help lift them out of poverty; girls were more willing to sacrifice themselves for their families (Osimen, *et al* 2014). The success stories of

other girls, who had been trafficked and had made it, also encouraged others to try their luck. High rates of unemployment among girls due to relatively low levels of female education because of unwillingness of their parents to send them to school provided a pool of girls to be trafficked abroad.

5.1.4 Trafficking victims' marital status:

Frequency distribution of trafficking victims' marital status as shown in Table 5.2 revealed that majority of the respondents were single (82.8%) which is an indication of their age and youthfulness. This is further corroborated by the assertion that gender and age appear significant in determining who participates in what type of regime of migration, or at what juncture migration translates into trafficking and for which types of work (IOM, 2010).During the FGD, a girl among the discussants said

> "*Boys are mostly involved in farm work while girls are sent to do house helps and learn house work or a trade in preparation for marriage*".

The interview with key informant also revealed that human trafficking victims' remittances are sometimes used to buy household items such as cooking utensils for the girls in preparation for marriage.

5.1.5 Educational qualification of trafficking victims:

Table 5.2 further shows the distribution of respondents' educational status at the point of being trafficked. Over forty percent of the victims (42.8%) had only primary education while 31.2% had adult literacy. Most of the participants during the FGD stated that they have low educational level. One girl among the group said

> "*I was in primary four when I was sent out to do the work*".

Insufficient or inaccessible educational opportunities expose people to the risk of being trafficked. According to Rima Salah (2001), the motive for moving children from the protective envelope of the family is often the search for education rather than the search for work. Traditional practices of placement and child movement within the extended family circle for educational purposes contributed to this factor. It is a common practice for a child to live with an uncle or other relatives with the intention of acquiring educational skill, but sometimes these children ended up as victims of trafficking.

Heyzer (2002) confirmed that most trafficked workers have low levels of education and may be illiterate in the national language, so they are unaware of the existence of minimum standards or of the means of enforcing them. Similarly, they are unaware of their

human rights or of any means by which they might claim those rights. Their status as illegal workers deprives them of the means of enforcing minimum wages and working conditions. Women and children are especially vulnerable because they are most likely to be illiterate and uninformed, and have been conditioned by gender relations in their home culture to passively accept whatever conditions they are faced with. According to Cherti *et al*, (2013) educational levels among respondents were generally low mostly innocent girl children who have no means of physically defending themselves and who have been given few or no educational opportunities resulting in high vulnerability to trafficking.

5.1.6 Income distribution of trafficking victims:

Table 5.2 shows the income distribution of victims of trafficking. Majority (90.8%) of the respondents indicated monthly income less than ₦5,000 which is an indication of their poverty status. Discussants during the FGD said they do not have work before being trafficked; most of them have no source of income before leaving their various communities. In a vast majority of trafficking cases, the victims are from vulnerable population. Traffickers prey on those they deemed easier targets; those with little or no financial means who might easily be lured by promises of food, money and shelter (Abdulkadir, 2011).

Poverty is the principal driving force behind this trade, propelling vulnerable people into the hands of traffickers. Poverty is the most visible cause of the vulnerability of women and children to trafficking in Nigeria. Nigeria has been rated one of the six poorest countries in the world with a per capita GNP of about US $280 Dollars for a population of about 133 Million. Nigeria is a country rich in resources but with widespread poverty. The incidence of poverty and poverty rate in Nigeria increased from 27% in 1980, to 47% in 1986, 65% in 1993, 66% in 1996, 67% in 1999 and 70% in 2002 (Jega, 2003; Yesufu,2000; *NEEDS*, 2005). In 1999, an estimated 70% of Nigerians lived in poverty, whilst life expectancy was 54 years. In 2008, 69 million Nigerians live below poverty line and 70% below poverty level (*Daily Trust*, 2008). Equally, between 1980 and 1996, the population in poverty has increased by 48.8% from 18.3% in 1980 to 67.1% in 1996 (Ajakaiye, 2002). Impoverishment in the supply countries appears the major push factor that forces the victims and their families to seek ways to improve their economic situation. The spread of global culture serves as a pull factor, raising expectations of a better life elsewhere, (Abdulkadir, 2011).

5.1.7 Distribution of respondents' household size:

Result in table 5.2 also presents the frequency distribution of respondents' household size. It can be observed that quite a number of the respondents are from large families. Over forty percent (40.4%) of the respondents had about 6-10 siblings and mean family size is seven. Due to bigger family size and lack of care and protection, abject poverty sometimes forces parents to release their children to traffickers (Sukhwinder, 2013). During the FGD it was discovered that virtually all the trafficked victims are from extended and polygamous families where they were from large family sizes of between 7-10 siblings. This finding is in line with Okojie (2004) who reported that trafficked victims often come from large families.

This implies that large and polygamous families could afford to send one or more children out to work to support the family while monogamous families are few and more closely knitted.

Table 5.2 Socio-economic characteristics of trafficking victims (n-250)

Sex	Frequency	Percentage	Mean/Mode
Male	112	44.8	
Female	138	55.2	Female
Marital status			
Single	207	82.8	
Married	43	17.2	Single
Educational status			
No formal education	5	2.0	
Adult literacy	78	31.2	Primary education
Primary education	107	42.8	
Secondary education	38	15.2	
Koranic school	22	8.8	
Income before trafficking (₦)			
Less than 5,000	227	90.8	
≥5,000-10,000	18	7.2	**₦2,762**
Above 10,000	5	2.0	
Household size			
1-5	120	48.0	
6-10	101	40.4	**7.0**
11 and above	29	11.6	

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.2 Family characteristics of trafficking victims

5.2.1 Family type of trafficked victims:

Results in Table 5.3 described the family characteristics of victims of human trafficking. More than half (55.2%) of the respondents have extended family background which is common in Nigeria and other African countries. It is expected that the education and upbringing of a child is the responsibility of the extended family. In farming communities, extended family members assist in clearing large farms and during harvesting. It is not uncommon for children to grow up in the family of relatives, or third persons, if these persons are having better conditions and can thus provide the child with better educational and work opportunities (Veil 2000; Verbeet, 2000). The voluntary placement of children (which may lead to their trafficking) is driven in part by poverty, in part by the desire to provide a better life for their children (Verbeet, 2000). The practice of "child fosterage", sending children to live with extended family or friends to be educated, trained or to work, is a culturally accepted practice in West Africa and is done to foster extended family solidarity and to further the educational and vocational training of the child (Bazzi-Veil, 2000).

Difficult financial situations within the family are often the basis for the placement of children with extended family members. This "strategic fostering out of children" according to Verbeet, (2000) is said to be a stronger causal factor in child trafficking than poverty. The traffickers most often are part of the extended family, have links with the family nucleus, or is someone known within the local community. As reported by Cherti *et al* (2013), victims of domestic servitude were typically recruited by an 'uncle' or 'aunty' of the family, though this did not necessarily indicate an actual blood tie, with promises of education and a better life. One girl during the FGD said

> *"I was brought to town by my elder sister who later sent me to work with a family and from there I was transferred to another family without the knowledge of my sister".*

These 'relatives' either recruited them directly or remotely, usually with or without the involvement of the parents. For example, here is the experience of a child accompanied by her mother to visit a friend and was then left there;

'My mother told me that we would be going on a holiday to the UK to visit my father's sister. I was surprised by this as I had never heard of this aunt and my mother had never spoken about going on a trip before ... Some days after we arrived in London, my mother told me

that she was going to visit an old friend and would be back in a few days. I did not think

anything of this and stayed with my aunt. My mother never returned.'

Female victim, (Cherti et al, 2013)

5.2.2 Marriage type of victims' parents:

Results in Table 5.3 further showed that more than half (51.6%) of victims' parents are polygamous. This is a common feature of Nigeria/African families, large families (wives and children) are expected to work on the farm to feed the family and increase production for more income. Majority of trafficked children come from polygamous, large and poorly educated families where the children have limited (if any) opportunities for training and education. Children are often withdrawn from school and forced to help support the family. Parents, who may not even be able to feed their children, are often willing to give them to traffickers who promise to provide the child with a job, an education or training (ILO, 2001; UNICEF, 2002).

5.2.3 Respondents' position in the family:

Trafficked victims' position in the family is also reported in Table 5.3. Almost half (46.4%) were neither firstborns nor lastborn, 36.0% were firstborns while 17.6% were lastborn. Firstborns are expected to take up responsibilities in the family to assist parents in taking care of their siblings. Other children are also assigned duties based on their ages and abilities. Desertion by one or the other parent, uncared for or abandoned children are often trafficked due to their vulnerable conditions.

5.2.4 Respondents' parental status:

Parental status of respondents is as presented in Table 5.3. Majority (76.8%) still had both parents alive, 15.6% reported that their Fathers are dead; Mother dead (5.6%) while 2.0% had both parents dead. It could be noted that more than half (56.4%) of the victims indicated that they were sent by their parents (Table 5.4). Interview with the key informant also revealed that most trafficking victims are not orphans, many were sent by their parents. This could be as a result of financial difficulties, large families or lack of employment opportunities particularly in rural communities. Large families often find it difficult to adequately provide for the children thereby exposing them to the risk of trafficking.

Table 5.3 Family characteristics of trafficking victims (n=250)

Family type of victims	Frequency	Percentage
Nuclear	112	44.8
Extended	138	55.2
Marriage type of parents		
Monogamy	107	42.8
Polygamy	129	51.6
Single parent	14	5.6
Position of victim in the family		
First born	90	36.0
Last born	44	17.6
Others	116	46.4
Parental status		
Both parents are alive	192	76.8
Father dead	39	15.6
Mother dead	14	5.6
Both parents are dead	5	2.0

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.3 Trafficking characteristics of respondents

5.3.1 Recruitment method of trafficked victims:

Results of the trafficking characteristics of victims is presented in Table 5.4; it can be seen from the table that more than half of the respondents (56.4%) were sent by their parents while 29.2%decided to go by themselves. Very few (5.6%) were influenced by friends. This may be as a result of success stories of other people that have gone in search of greener pastures that entice others making them to believe that going out to work will be better than farming in their communities.

According to a study carried out in Nigeria in 1992 among children living in five states, it was found that 54% to 70% of children living in the streets were migrants and that 40% of the children in domestic service came to town with a third party or non-family member (Bazzi-Veil, 2000). In another survey carried out on 173 children living in the streets in four Nigerian cities, it was discovered that 15% came with their parents, whereas 67% came in the company of other adults (friends of the family or strangers); 43% said that they had been victims of trafficking (Veil, 2000). In a study of 400 trafficked children, 147 children (37%) were recruited by a family member. In the case of 30 other children or 8% of the sample, a friend of the family was involved in the recruitment. In the case of 190 children (48%), a person unknown to the family was involved in the recruitment. The Togo study reports that the number of children recruited by family members or friends was slightly less than the number of children who were recruited by an unknown person (Veil, 2000). In the Nigeria study, there are also cases of family members bringing the traffickers into contact with the parents of the child (7 of the 19 child victims) (Veil, 2000).

5.3.2 Nationality of trafficked victims:

Results in Table 5.4 further revealed that a higher percentage (55.2%) of the trafficking victims are from outside the country. This includes countries like Togo, Republic of Benin and Cameroun being close neighbors to Nigeria and with Nigerian porous borders which makes it easy to traffic people. Some of the participants during the FGD stated that they are from Togo, Ghana and Benin Republic. This confirms that Nigeria is both a source and destination country for trafficked victims in Africa (USDS, 2008).

5.3.3 Years spent at trafficking destination:

As seen from Table 5.4, more than half (58%) of the victims have spent between 1-4years in their trafficking destination, others have spent 5-7years (15.2%) while some have spent close to 10years (4.4%) and a few (2%) have spent above 10years in the trafficking destination. This is an indication that a victim can remain in the trafficking destination for as long as possible particularly if the traffickers or the parents are still getting their remittances and as long as the victim continued to cooperate with his or her masters/mistresses. Many of the trafficked victims who participated during the FGD said that they have been at trafficking destination for an average of 3-5years.

Table 5.4 Trafficking characteristics of respondents (n= 250)

Method of recruitment of victims	Frequency	Percentage
My parents sent me	141	56.4
My friends influenced me	14	5.6
I was forced into it	18	7.2
I was kidnapped and sold	4	1.6
I decided to go myself	73	29.2
Nationality of trafficked victims		
Within the country	112	44.8
Outside the country	138	55.2
Years spent in trafficking destination (at the time of data collection)		
less than 1year	51	20.4
>1-4years	145	58.0
>4-7years	38	15.2
>7-10years	11	4.4
Above 10years	5	2.0

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.3.4 Awareness of the purpose of trafficking:

The result presented in figure 4 showed the awareness of victims about trafficking purpose. Majority (82.4%) of the respondents indicated that they were aware of the purpose for which they were being trafficked. Often, human trafficking can be a voluntary process in which people willingly pay traffickers to move them across international borders (Cherti *et al*, 2013). At a recent meeting of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe's (OSCE) Economic and Environmental Forum in Prague, it was noted that global awareness to the problem of trafficking was increasing, but instances of trafficking were also on the rise (Radio Free Europe, 2014). Women are therefore brought into conditions in which their basic human rights are violated, for example, forced labour. Many women therefore know they are likely to work as prostitutes if they agree to travel to Europe. This could be due to the fact that in many rural communities women do not have access to land and other farm inputs, therefore they have to struggle to provide for household needs. However, they may have little understanding of the conditions under which they will work and of the size of the debt they will incur. One of the girls during FGD said

> *"My parents sent me to do house help but my mistress is using me to hawk/sell goods on the streets. This was not the agreement when I was brought here to work."*

The Key informant during the interview stated that though many of the victims are aware of the reason for being trafficked but they are not aware of how tedious the jobs are, and the type of people they are going to work with. In anticipation of leaving Nigeria and helping one's family out of poverty, it is tempting for these women to believe in promises about good jobs (Cherti *et al,* 2013).
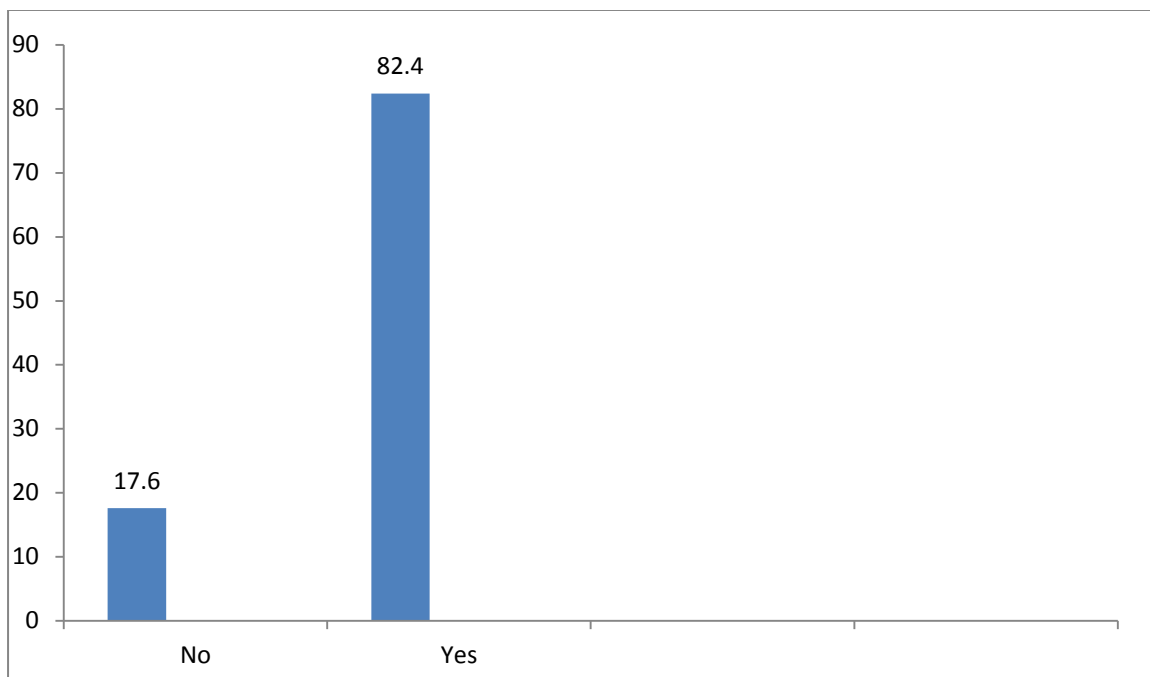
Figure 5.2 Victims' awareness of trafficking purpose

5.3.5 Type of job engaged in by trafficking victims:

The responses of victims about the type of jobs they engage in at trafficking destination are presented in figure 5. House help (domestic servitude) has the highest percentage (54.8%), considering the fact that trafficking victims are mostly females; findings of Oludayo and Aderinto (2013) corroborate this that, girls were preferred for performing domestic chores. Employers see the female as more helpful, functional, effective, and receptive than the male, who are perceived and considered to be foul, repulsive and revolting. Other types of job victims do include; plantation workers (18.8%) and prostitution (12.4%). According to Dawson, (2014); anti-slavery groups estimate that there are more than 14,000 trafficking victims in the United States. They include U.S. citizens and foreign nationals working in the sex industry, hotels, agriculture, construction, health care and domestic servitude. People are trafficked for various purposes ranging from domestic servitude, forced labour, prostitution, plantation workers and a host of others. Youthful population that should be engaged in farming and community development are being exploited in various odd jobs as human trafficking victims. This could have a negative impact on the future of farming and agricultural production in Nigeria.
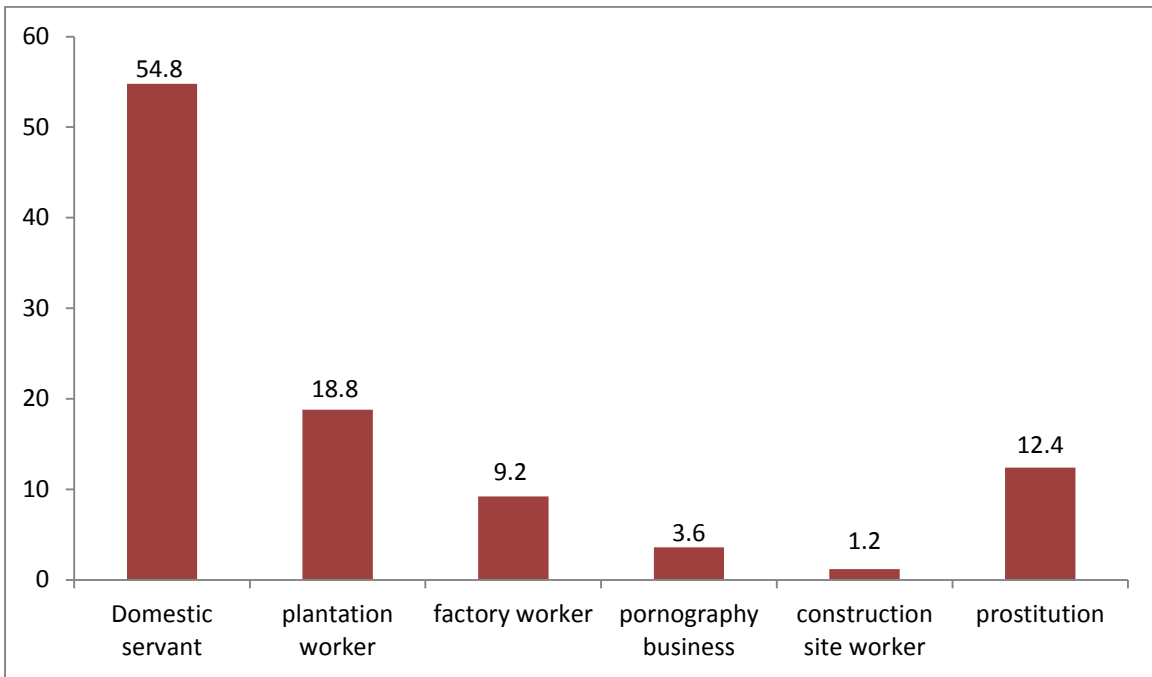
Figure 5.3 Type of job engaged in by trafficking victims

Plate 2: The researcher with a cross section of trafficking victims during the Focus Group Discussion

5.4 Level of trafficking victims' exposure to exploitative experiences

It can be observed from Table 5.5 that human trafficking victims are exposed to various degrees of exploitation and harsh treatments. Beatings (27.2%), overworked (31.6%), hard labour (17.6%) and torture (16.8%) were the most commonly reported harsh treatments experienced by the respondents. This could be because majority of them are working in domestic servitude where masters or mistresses could be difficult or harsh. During the FGD, many of the trafficked victims had different stories of exploitation by their mistresses/masters such as being given too much work to do, working long hours, being beaten mercilessly for offenses not committed by the victims. For instance, a girl among the group of discussants said

> *"Sometimes when there are too many customers for me to attend to at the shop, someone may take goods without paying and my mistress will punish me for the missing goods."*

This confirms the report of Sahadi (2014) that every stage of the trafficking process involves physical, sexual and psychological abuse and violence, deprivation and torture, the forced use of substances, manipulation, economic exploitation and abusive working and living conditions. Some of the most common abuses reported include; being paid less than promised or having their pay withheld; being threatened with violence or otherwise demoralized; being forced to work long hours; and having their movements to and from work controlled - that is, if they aren't forced to live at the work site (Sahadi, 2014).

According to Okojie (2004), victims reported varying degrees of hardship during their travels and of exploitation upon arrival at their destination. Children are at times exposed to uncomfortable and dangerous situations during the transport phase. The children had stories of physical and psychological violence occurring during the journey. They were subjected to harsh treatment and intimidation. Children are often transported without documents across national borders and forced to walk long distances. Children transported by boat have reported that other child victims have succumbed to thirst or have drowned. In the Nigeria study, Okojie (2004) reported that adult women travelling across the Sahara desert on their way to Northern Africa are being forced into prostitution while en route to their destination. Child victims in Nigeria reported hardship conditions (lack of food, inadequate housing, and exposure to harsh chemicals (pesticides) and insects). Children reported being beaten; however, the children were not forced into prostitution with the exception of one child victim.

This does not mean that children were not sexually abused; female children forced to work on a plantation in Akwa Ibom State reported having been sexually violated by other male trafficked victims and supervisors. Young girls forced to work as domestic servants also reported being sexually abused by male members of the families in which they worked (Okojie, 2004).

The same pattern repeats itself in Benin and Togo. In Togo, victims reported being forced to work (73% of the sample of child victims and 69% of adult victims), were forced into sexual contacts (13% of child victims and 81% of adult victims) and did not feel safe (60% child victims and 87% adult victims). Slightly more than 80% of adult victims experienced restricted freedom of movement (UNODC, 2006). Physical restraint, violence and threats had a significant role in many trafficking situations. Many respondents reported regular beatings, assaults, sexual assaults, humiliation and rape by their exploiters, even to the point of hospitalization. The threat of violence was even more common. Importantly, these are often directed not only at the victims but also at their families, who may even have been part of the decision to go with the trafficker, have subsidized the victim's journey, and be in close contact with the trafficker. In some cases, these threats were actualized with relatives of respondents being murdered. Physical control could also be achieved through restricted movement or isolation. Others had their movement heavily restricted, being locked in rooms and not allowed out without strict chaperoning. In other cases, victims appeared to be a 'secret' and had to hide when visitors come to the house. Many victims also had their passport confiscated and were unable to communicate even with their families. Public services such as healthcare were in general either restricted or entirely absent (Cherti *et al,* 2013).

Table 5.5 Frequency of trafficking victims exposure to harsh treatment (n=250)

Harsh Treatment	Everyday	Twice a week	Once a week	Occasionally	Not at all	Mean
Beatings	-	-	19 (7.6)	68 (27.2)	163 (65.2)	1.42
Rape	-	2 (0.8)	5 (2.0)	16 (6.4)	227 (90.8)	1.13
Overworked	19 (7.6)	18 (7.2)	9 (3.6)	79 (31.6)	125 (50.0)	1.91
Hard labour	24 (9.6)	13 (5.2)	-	44 (17.6)	169 (67.6)	1.72
Isolation	7 (2.8)	7 (2.8)	2 (0.8)	29 (11.6)	205 (82.0)	1.33
Hunger	2 (0.8)	7 (2.8)		25 (10.0)	216 (86.4)	1.22
Starvation	2 (0.8)	7 (2.8)	5 (2.0)	33 (13.2)	203 (81.2)	1.29
Sent out at night	2 (0.8)	-	-	25 (10.0)	223 (89.2)	1.13
Confinement	2 (0.8)	2 (0.8)	-	28 (11.2)	218 (87.2)	1.17
Torture	2 (0.8)	4 (1.6)	-	42 (16.8)	202 (80.8)	1.25

Percentages in parenthesis   Overall mean=1.374

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.5 Trafficking victims' frequency of contact with their households

Results in table 5.6 indicate that the major common means of contact with victims' households were weekly phone calls (Mean=1.44), yearly visits (Mean=1.12) and co-workers (Mean=0.81). This is an indication that victims of trafficking do not have regular contact with their households and some may not even have any contact at all throughout their stay in the trafficking destination. The key informant while buttressing this said,

> *"Trafficked victims are usually brought to the city at the beginning of the year and returned at the end of the year. Though many may not go home to their parents but they will return to the contractors who may now send them to a new place of work."*

This could affect their level of contribution to household welfare except for situations where their wages go directly to the parents.

Table 5.6 Distribution of trafficking victims' means of contact and frequency of contact with households (n=250)

Contact	Yes	No	Weekly	Monthly	Once in a year	Mean
Visits	152 (60.8)	98(39.3)	31 (20.4)	59 (38.8)	62 (40.8)	1.12
Phone calls	140 (56.0)	110 (44.0)	85 (60.7)	49 (35.0)	6 (4.3)	1.44
Letter writing	38 (15.2)	212 (84.8)	6 (15.8)	17 (44.7)	15 (39.5)	0.27
Oral messages	59 (23.6)	191 (76.4)	5 (8.5)	13 (22.0)	41 (69.5)	0.33
Through Friends	86 (34.4)	164 (65.6)	11 (12.8)	46 (53.5)	29 (33.7)	0.67
Through Relatives	124 (49.6)	126 (50.4)	7 (5.7)	22 (17.7)	95 (76.6)	0.64
Co-workers	89 (35.6)	161 (64.4)	31 (34.8)	51 (57.3)	7 (7.9)	0.81

Percentages in parenthesis   Overall mean=0.754

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.6 Trafficking victims' awareness of average income

Respondents' awareness about their average income during the trafficking period is presented in figure 6. More than half (61.2%) of the respondents claimed they are aware of their average income. Many of the victims were hired as house helps, their masters and mistresses would agree on the amount to be paid monthly or annually either to the parents or contractors. This result is an indication that some respondents were informed about the amount they were being paid. Others who went on their own may also know the amount of their wages or those engaged in prostitution can have an idea of their average income.

During the FGD, many of the trafficked victims stated that they do not know how much they are being paid. Only one of the participants said that she was being paid ₦5,000 monthly and ₦4,000 was being sent to her parents while ₦1000 was kept for her. She said

"I will use the money to buy things for myself when returning home."

Knowledge of their income will affect their remittance level and contribution to household wellbeing and subsequently the development of their communities.
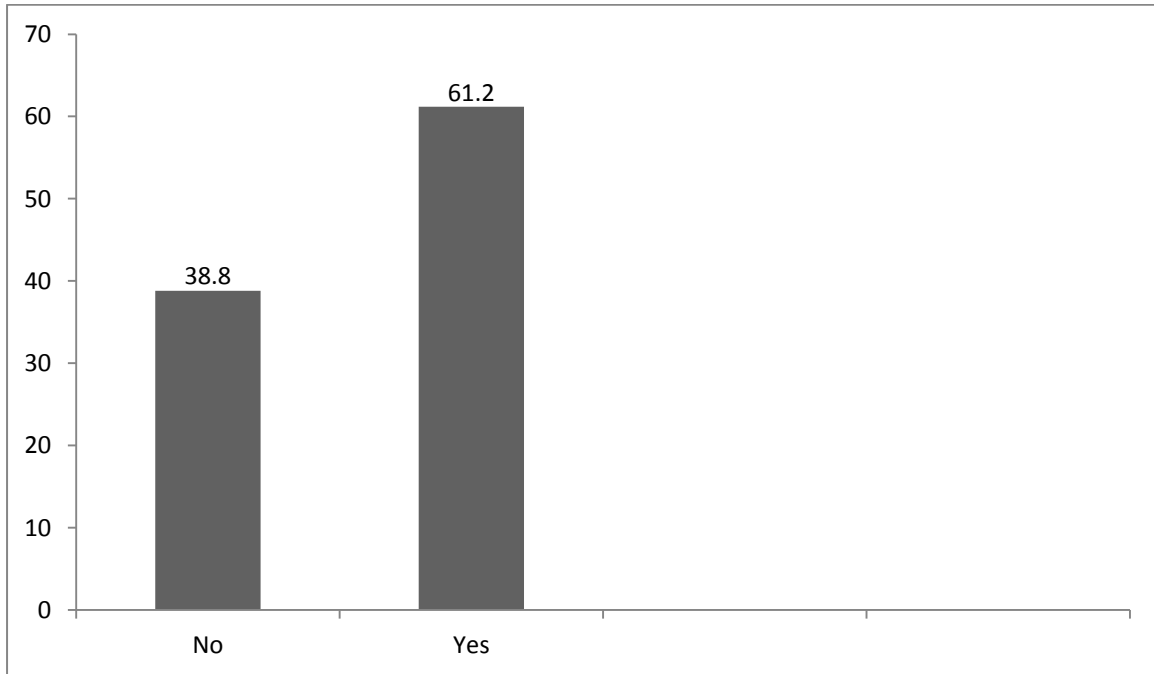
Figure 5.4 Victims' awareness of average income during trafficking period

5.7 Victims' average income per month during trafficking period

The average monthly income of victims during the trafficking period is as presented in Table 5.7. Almost half (46.8%) of the respondents indicated an average monthly income of between ₦4,000- ₦7,000. Few (4.8%) received between ₦10,000- ₦12,000 while 5.6% were paid above ₦12,000. The above result indicates that the respondents have better income than when they were in their respective communities. The initial income of majority (90.8%) was less than ₦5,000 while only 2% of them earned above ₦10,000 as reported in Table 5.2.

This is an indication that the respondents' average income may be higher when compared with working in farms in their respective communities. This confirms that people involve in trafficking due to the fact that they are expecting a better life than what is available for them at home.

Table 5.7 Trafficking victims average monthly income (n=250)

Average monthly income during trafficking period (₦)	Frequency	Percentage	Mean ((₦)
2,000-4,000	99	39.6	
>4,000-7,000	117	46.8	
>7,000-10,000	8	3.2	**6,000.00**
>10,000 -12,000	12	4.8	
Above 12,000	14	5.6	

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.8 Keeping of trafficking victims' wages

As seen in Figure 7, 39.2% indicated that their wages were collected by the mistress, 31.6% indicated that the contractor collects their wages while 29.2% of respondents indicated that their wages are being collected by their parents. Since majority (70.8%) of victims' wages were collected and kept by either the mistress or the contractor, it indicates that their wages may not get to their households. In cases where the household get the victims' wages, some of the money might have been deducted by the contractors/mistresses. Some can be sent away when they misbehave and they leave without their savings. This will have an impact on their level of contribution to household wellbeing.

During the FGD, some of the trafficked victims claimed that their parents collect their wages, that is; their income gets to their households. The interview with key informant also revealed that the only benefit parents derive from the trafficking of their children is the advance remittance/payment they collect from their mistresses/masters which most times is occasional. Therefore while some parents get these remittances, others do not and this left such households worse-off.
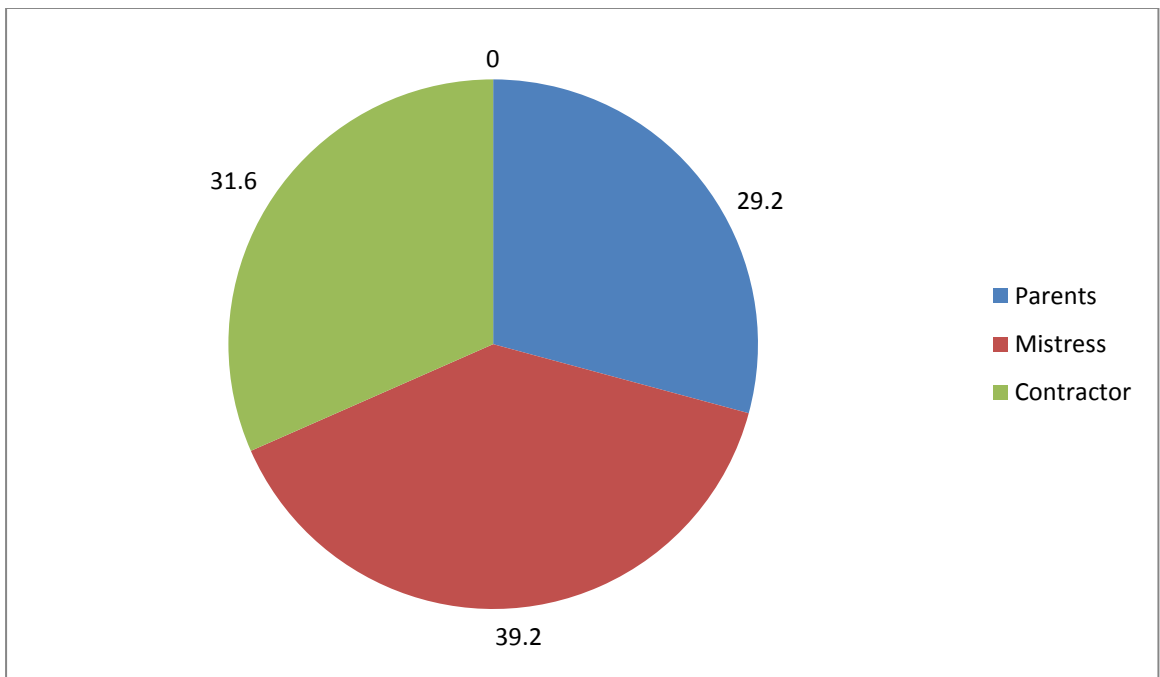
Figure 5.5 Keeping of trafficking victims' wages

5.9 Percentage remittance of trafficking victims' income

Result of analysis in Table 5.8 shows the percentage remittance of victims' income, it can be seen from the table that 64% of the victims remitted up to 15% of their income 11% remitted 20-40%, 10% remitted 50-70% while 16% remitted above 70% of their income. This money is being sent to their households for various uses such as feeding, building houses, for business and general wellbeing of the family. This remittance is very important to their households as stated by the key informant during In-depth interview that

"The advance payment received by the parents is the major benefit that the households get from trafficking of their children and the money is usually used to support the family."

Table 5.8 Percentage Remittance of Trafficking Victims' Income (n=250)

Percentage Remittance	Frequency	Percentage
≥ 15%	160	64.0
20-40%	27	10.8
50-70%	24	9.6
Above 70%	39	15.6

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.10 Types and Regularity of Respondents' Remittance to their households

Remittances can be in form of cash (money), materials (clothing, shoes and jewelry) or both (cash and kind). Figure 8 shows that victims remitted both kind and cash on regular basis to their households. This is commonly done once in a year (90.4%) though 4.8% indicated twice in a year and 4.8% monthly remittances. Based on the findings of this research, regularity of remittance could be a function of victims' contact with households that is; monthly, twice a year or once in a year. Visiting households once a year was the commonest means of contact with households as indicated by respondents (Table 5.6). This means that if victims have the opportunity to visit/contact their family more often their remittance level could be higher.

Trafficked victims at the FGD stated that their remittances are mostly done in cash once in a year. Some of them said that sometimes the mistresses/masters may agree to buy a motorcycle, generator or sewing machine for the victim's parents.
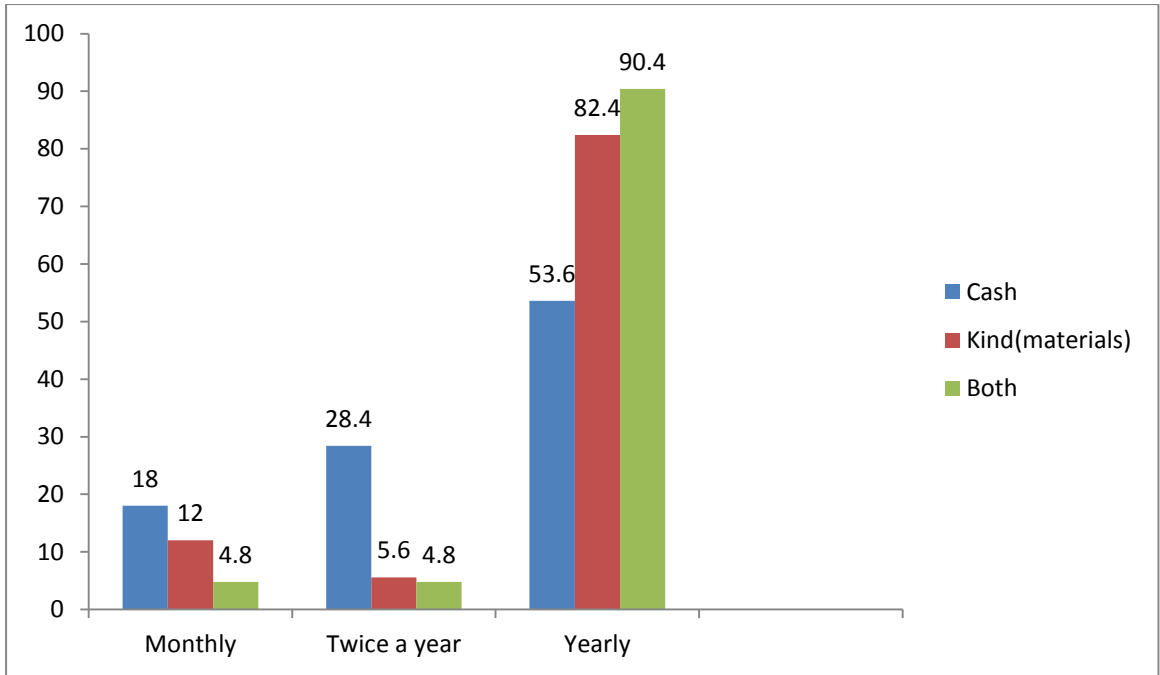
Figure 5.6 Regularity of Trafficking Victims' Remittance to their households

5.11 Trafficking Victims' Average Monthly Remittance

According to Table 5.9, almost half (46.4%) of respondents sent an average monthly remittance of ₦4,000-₦6,000 to their households. 31.6% remit ₦1,000-₦3,000, 11.6% remit ₦7,000-₦9,000 while 4.4% remit above ₦10,000. Remittance being a means of victims' contribution to household wellbeing is a very important issue in considering trafficking activities. This is also a function of victims' income at trafficking destination. People engage in trafficking with the hope of better income than what is available in their communities so that they will be able to send remittances to their households for improved wellbeing. This corroborates the finding of Osezua, (2011) that women who have been successful in trans-border sexual transaction, despite their sex or age in the family, are now the centre of authority and pivot of important family decisions. This is as a result of the huge sum of money they remit to their families.

Table 5.9 Trafficking Victims' Average Monthly Remittance (n=250)

Average Monthly Remittance (₦)	Frequency	Percentage
1,000-3,000	79	31.6
4,000-6,000	116	46.4
7,000-9,000	29	11.6
9,000-10,000	15	6.0
Above 10,000	11	4.4

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.12 Intended Purpose of Trafficking Victims' Remittances

Respondents indicated various reasons for sending remittances to their households, their responses is as shown in Table 5.10. The intended purpose of remittances include; starting a family business (22.4%), building a house for the family (16.8%), payment of siblings school fees (12.8%), feeding the family (28.8%) and to save for victims' future career or education (19.2%).This result shows that majority of respondents sent remittance home so as to assist in feeding the family while appreciable numbers sent remittance home in order to start a business; to further their education and also to build a house. Many of the participants at the FGD said that their family used the money for feeding; one of them said her mother used the money to start petty trading; others said they use remittance to buy household items such as cooking pots, china plates, radio etc. One of the discussants said

> *"My parents used my money to buy food for the family and my father bought radio and phone".*

As reported by Bohl, (2010) remittance could be invested in productive activities to improve their household livelihoods and overall socio-economic well-being. Migration then becomes a livelihood strategy that both can be seen as investment in access to higher earnings/wages in which remittance provides insurance for families, households or communities, and a risk spreading activity in times of failed agricultural production and natural disasters. Furthermore, findings from a study in Benin (Osezua, 2011), showed that women who are direct beneficiaries of transnational remittances from their daughters' sexual transaction overseas, can now access critical resources which were previously inaccessible due to the traditional inheritance system rule of primogeniture. Consequently, most of the women in this category have become the shadow bread winners in their families by providing for the daily upkeep of family members. Many of such women have erected edifices for themselves, parents or husbands, while others have provided adequate financial resources for their family members to open up businesses (Osezua, 2011).

Table 5.10 Intended Purpose of Trafficking Victims' Remittances (n=250)

Purpose of remittance	Frequency	Percentage
to start a business	56	22.4
to build a house	42	16.8
to pay siblings school fees	32	12.8
to feed the family	72	28.8
saved for victim's education/future career	48	19.2

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Plate 3: The researcher with a cross section of trafficking victims during the Focus Group Discussion

5.13 Actual Use of Respondents' Remittances

Table 5.11 revealed what victims' remittances were actually used for. The table indicates that more than half (53.6%) of the households used the money to build houses and for other family needs (24.0%). Though remittances were used for some intended purposes the percentage of remittance used for educational purpose is low compared to the initial intention of victims. It also indicated that victims' remittances result in improvement of household wellbeing and contributed in part to the development of their communities.

Table 5.11 Actual Use of Trafficking Victims' Remittances (n=250)

What remittance was used for	Frequency	Percentage
Building house	134	53.6
Schooling	45	18.0
Business	11	4.4
Family needs (clothing, feeding)	60	24.0

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.14 Household Items Acquired From Respondents' Remittance

Household items acquired through victims' remittances are presented in Table 5.12 Radio (50.8%), handset (mobile phone) (55.6%), wall clock (50.4%), television (38.0%), video (33.6%) and motorcycle (32.4%) were among the commonest items that households usually acquire from victims' remittances. These are items considered necessary for the wellbeing of the family particularly at the community level. Households that possess these items are rated as high in socioeconomic status. As reported earlier, many of the participants at the FGD said that their family used their remittances for feeding while others bought household items such as cooking pots, china plates, radio etc. One of the discussants said

> *"My parents used my money to buy food for the family and my father bought radio and phone."*

This finding is in support of Diptee, (2006) who noted that;

> "Not only would these parents be putting newly enslaved children into a circumstance that guaranteed them food and shelter, but the money obtained from the sale of their children also enabled the purchase of provisions for the rest of the family."

Table 5.12 Household items acquired from Trafficking victims' Income

Household items	Yes	No
Television	95(38.0)	155(62.0)
Video/VCD	84 (33.6)	166 (66.4)
Refrigerator	44 (17.6)	206 (82.4)
Ceiling/table fan	81 (32.4)	169 (67.6)
Satellite	10 (4.0)	240 (96.0)
Bicycle	40 (16.0)	210 (84.0)
Generator	65 (26.0)	185 (74.0)
Motorcycle	81 (32.4)	169 (67.6)
Hand set	139 (55.6)	111 (44.4)
Furniture	64 (25.6)	186 (74.4)
Wall clock	126 (50.4)	124 (49.6)
Washing machine	17 (6.8)	233 (93.2)
Stabilizer	32 (12.8)	218 (87.2)
Deep freezer	22 (8.8)	228 (91.2)
Gas cooker	4 (1.6)	246 (98.4)
Electric stove	20 (8.0)	230 (92.0)
Electric iron	52 (20.8)	198 (79.2)
Electric kettle	29 (11.6)	221 (88.4)
Computer	34 (13.6)	216 (86.4)
Radio	127 (50.8)	123 (49.2)

Percentages in parenthesis

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.15 Benefits Derived from Involvement in Trafficking

The respondents were asked to state if there are benefits they derived from the trafficking experience. According to Figure 9, 50.2% of the respondents had better income and so were able to contribute to the wellbeing of their households while 10.4% have opportunity for schooling. On a general note, victims indicated improved financial status which enabled them to meet both personal and household needs.

Some of the benefits mentioned by victims during the FGD include; feeding the family, improved income of household, acquiring household items that improved their socioeconomic status, some victims also had opportunity to learn a trade or go to school which gives them better chances in future.
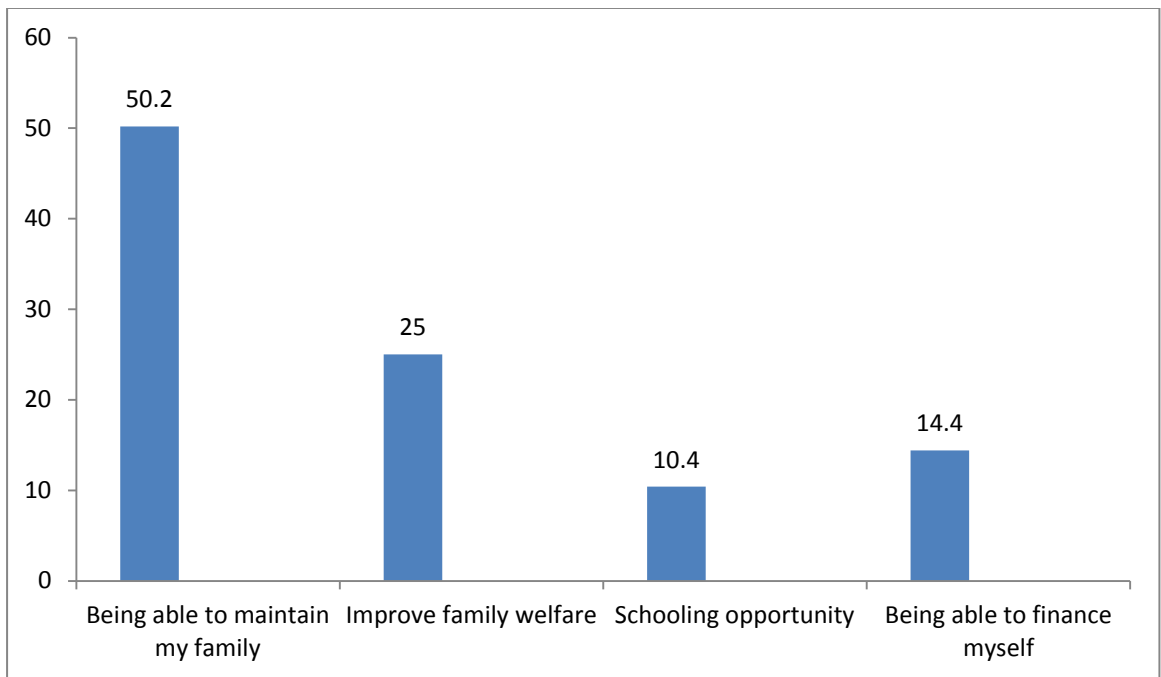
Figure 5.7 Benefits derived from Involvement in Human Trafficking

5.16 Negative Effects of Respondents' Trafficking Experience

Figure 10 shows the negative effects of trafficking on the lives of the victims. It is revealed that 38.4% of the respondents are lonely, 23.0% have low self-esteem, and 11.0% were permanently separated from their families while 14.0% lack opportunity to continue their education. This means that many victims of human trafficking experience harsh conditions that affect them physically and emotionally. Discussants during the FGD mentioned negative effects such as; separation from home, being maltreated by mistresses and masters, hunger, loneliness, fearful/not being able to express oneself, while many said they do not have opportunity of schooling.
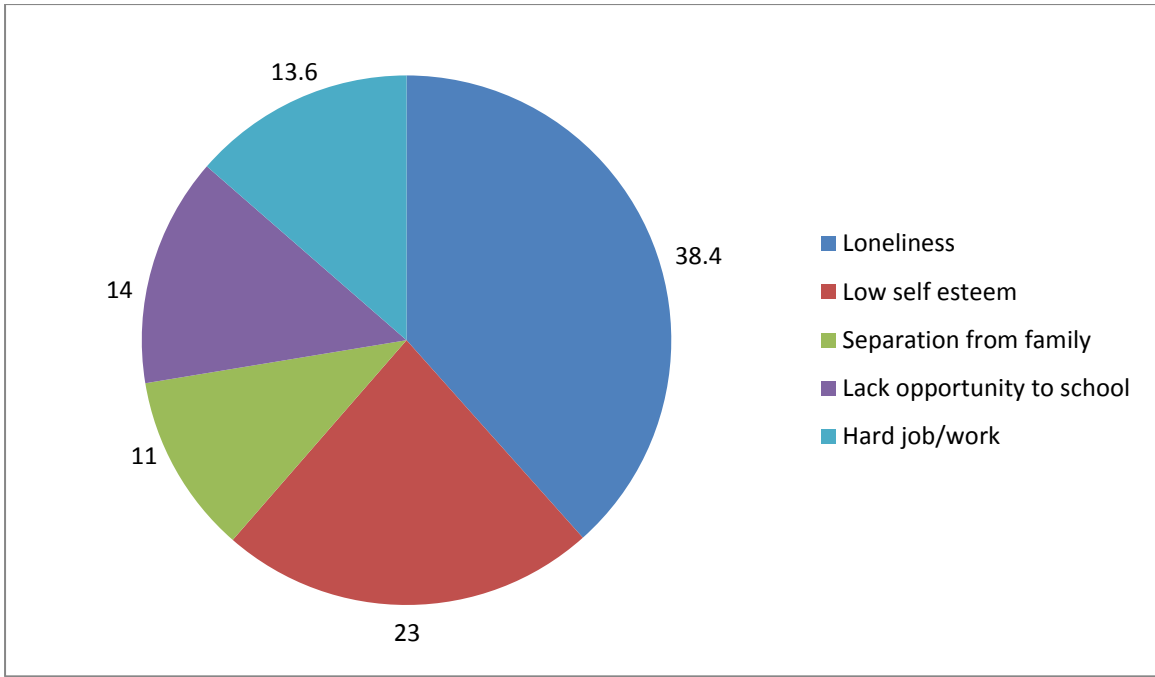
Figure 5.8 Negative Influence of Involvement in Human Trafficking

Plate 4: A cross section of trafficking victims during the Focus Group Discussion

5:17 Perception of victims on contribution to their Household Wellbeing.

Table 5.13 presents the perception of respondents on the contribution of human trafficking to their household wellbeing with an overall mean of 2.53. Statements with means above 2.53 indicate favourable perception while statements with means below 2.53 indicate unfavourable perception about the contribution of human trafficking to the wellbeing of their households. Ten out of the twenty-five statements presented had means above 2.53. This shows an overall respondents' low perception about the contribution of human trafficking to the wellbeing of their households. This could be due to the fact that many of these respondents as reported earlier have less frequent contact with their households during the trafficking period (Table 5.6). Majority (70.8%) of the victims also indicated that their wages are either collected by the mistress or the contractor (Figure 10).

Table 5.13: Victims' Perception on contribution to their Household Wellbeing (n=250)

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean
1. My family feeds better than before	76 (30.4)	83 (33.2)	9 (3.6)	38 (15.2)	44 (17.6)	3.44
2. My community do not have regard for trafficked people	29 (11.6)	60 (24.0)	69 (27.6)	51 (20.4)	41 (16.4)	2.94
3. My siblings are going to better school now than before	7 (2.8)	43 (17.2)	16 (6.4)	106 (42.4)	78 (31.2)	2.18
4. A victim of trafficking carries a stigma in my locality	15 (6.0)	19 (7.6)	86 (34.4)	95 (38.0)	35 (14.0)	2.54
5. My mother uses kerosene stove in place of firewood	14 (5.6)	27 (10.8)	6 (2.4)	69 (27.6)	134 (53.6)	1.87
6. I got vocational training where I went to work	13 (5.2)	39 (15.6)	9 (3.6)	81 (32.4)	108 (43.2)	2.07
7. Involvement in trafficking make people to look down on me	32 (12.8)	41 (16.4)	47 (18.8)	70 (28.0)	60 (24.0)	2.66
8. My family goes to the hospital instead of using local herbs	12 (4.8)	43 (17.2)	17 (6.8)	62 (24.8)	116 (46.4)	2.09
9. Members of my family always eat the food of their choice at any time	16 (6.4)	87 (34.8)	18 (7.2)	53 (21.2)	76 (30.4)	2.66
10. We cannot afford a refrigerator in the house as a result of low financial status	103 (41.2)	64 (25.6)	10 (4.0)	33 (13.2)	40 (16.0)	3.63
11. Remittances from trafficking is not sufficient to improve my household facilities	94 (37.6)	78 (31.2)	16 (6.4)	26 (10.4)	36 (14.4)	3.67
12. I can afford modern gadgets as a result of improvement in my economic status due to involvement in trafficking	18 (7.2)	24 (9.6)	9 (3.6)	78 (31.2)	121 (48.4)	1.96
13. My mother bought a grinding machine this improved our household income	13 (5.2)	24 (9.6)	21 (8.4)	105 (42.0)	87 (34.8)	2.08
14. There is no electricity in our house because my household cannot afford to pay the bills	24 (9.6)	51 (20.4)	17 (6.8)	65 (26.0)	93 (37.2)	2.39
15. Involvement in trafficking has brought prestige to my family	20 (8.0)	26 (10.4)	18 (7.2)	97 (38.8)	89 (35.6)	2.16
16. My family is still one of the poorest in the community	12 (4.8)	21 (8.4)	25 (10.0)	79 (31.6)	113 (45.2)	1.96
17. I have not improved on my academic qualification	50 (20.0)	97 (38.8)	16 (6.4)	21 (8.4)	66 (26.4)	3.18
18. My family is better off than most household in my community	22 (8.8)	86 (34.4)	58 (23.2)	33 (13.2)	51 (20.4)	2.98
19. I am now well accepted among my people because trafficking has improved my status	15 (6.0)	39 (15 .6)	51 (20.4)	63 (25.2)	82 (32.8)	2.37
20. My mother often uses firewood for cooking because she could not afford kerosene at all times	68 (27.2)	96 (38.4)	24 (9.6)	29 (11.6)	33 (13 .2)	3.55
21. My going out to work brought hardship to my family	27 (10.8)	13 (5.2)	18 (7.2)	77 (30.8)	115 (46.0)	2.04
22. I improved in computer application during my stay in trafficking destination	22 (4.8)	20 (8.0)	10 (4.0)	66 (26.4)	132 (52.8)	1.94
23. My family is well recognized in the community	7 (2.8)	44 (17.6)	65 (26.0)	74 (29,6)	60 (24.0)	2.46
24. Trafficking experience has a negative impact on my health status	8 (3.2)	17 (6.8)	20 (8.0)	92 (36.8)	113 (45.2)	1.86
25. My present economic status has enabled me contribute to community development	11 (4.4)	65 (26.0)	31 (12.4)	76 (30.4)	67 (26.8)	2.51

Percentages in Parentheses   Overall mean=2.53

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Level of Victims' Perception of the contribution of involvement in human trafficking to their household wellbeing is presented in Table 5.14. It could be observed that more than half (52.0%) of the respondents had low perception of their contribution to household wellbeing. This could be as a result of inadequate contact with household during trafficking period. This implies that trafficked victims were denied access to their households during the trafficking period which prevents them from having regular contact and thus result in low perception of their households' socioeconomic status.

Table 5.14: Level of victims' perception of contribution to their Household Wellbeing

Levels of Perception	F	%	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Low	130	52.0	36.70	24.62	0.00	130.00
high	120	48.0				

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.18 Implications of human trafficking on victims' wellbeing

It can be seen from Table 5.15 that few of the respondents indicated that human trafficking had an impact on their wellbeing. As reported earlier, this could be as a result of victims' wages being collected by parents directly or by mistresses and contractors. This means that victims have little or no access to their income and so they are not able to use it to improve themselves. Major areas of improvement as indicated by the victims are monthly income (63.0%) and annual income (85.4%), cosmopoliteness (69.6%) and feeding (78.6%).

Table 5.15: Implications of trafficking on victims' wellbeing (n=250)

Welfare indicators	Impact		Change		
	Yes	**No**	**Improved**	**Unchanged**	**Worse-off**
Educational attainment					
Primary	52 (20.8)	198 (79.2)	30 (57.7)	9 (17.3)	13 (25.0)
Secondary	20 (8.0)	230 (92.0)	8 (40.0)	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)
Health care					
Primary health	21 (8.4)	229 (91.6)	5 (23.8)	13 (61.9)	3 (14.3)
General hospital	13 (5.2)	237 (94.8)	5 (38.5)	7 (53.8)	1 (7.7)
Private hospital	39 (15.6)	211 (84.4)	7 (17.9)	23 (59.0)	9 (23.1)
Traditional medicine	26 (10.4)	224 (89.6)	12 (46.1)	10 (38.5)	4 (15.4)
Local herbs	38 (15.2)	212 (84.8)	25 (65.8)	9 (23.7)	4 (10.5)
Income (₦)					
Monthly income	54 (21.6)	196 (78.4)	34 (63.0)	14 (25.9)	6 (11.1)
Annual income	89 (35.6)	161 (64.4)	76 (85.4)	8 (9.0)	5 (5.6)
Social status					
Acceptance among group members	50 (20.0)	200 (80.0)	19 (38.0)	13 (26.0)	18 (36.0)
Public image	17 (6.8)	233 (93.2)	7 (41.2)	6 (35.3)	4 (23.5)
Cosmopoliteness	23 (9.2)	227 (90.8)	16 (69.6)	4 (17.4)	3 (13.0)
Physical appearance	17 (6.8)	233 (93.2)	7 (41.2)	6 (35.3)	4 (23.5)
Feeding					
Once a day	12 (4.8)	238 (95.2)	8 (66.7)	3 (25.0)	1 (8.3)
Twice daily	72 (28.8)	178 (71.2)	55 (76.3)	13 (18.1)	4 (5.6)
Three times daily	89 (35.6)	161 (64.4)	70 (78.6)	12 (13.5)	7 (7.9)
More than thrice	24 (9.6)	226 (90.4)	12 (50.0)	6 (25.0)	6 (25.0)

Percentages in Parentheses

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Results in Table 5.16 shows that 63.6% of the victims' wellbeing became worse-off as a result of the trafficking experience while 18.8% experienced improved wellbeing and 17.6% of the victims remain unchanged. This could be due to the fact that victims have little or no access to their income and so they are not able to use it to improve themselves. As reported earlier, victims' wages were being collected by parents directly or by mistresses and contractors.

Table 5.16: Change in wellbeing of trafficking victims

Victims' personal wellbeing	F	%	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Improved	47	18.8				
Unchanged	44	17.6	4.50	3.67	0.00	16.00
Worse-off	159	63.6				

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.19 Perceived Change in victims' household socioeconomic status

As shown in Table 5.17, involvement in human trafficking brought about some improvements in victims' household socioeconomic status. This can be observed particularly in areas of monthly (80.6%) and annual (70.2%) income, acceptance among group members (64.3%) and feeding (65.2%). This shows that victims of human trafficking are able to contribute to the improvement of their households' wellbeing which in turn can lead to an improvement in the community.

As reported earlier, remittances from trafficked victims were perceived to be spent in acquiring household items such as radio, handset (mobile phone), wall clock, television, video and motorcycle. These are items considered necessary for the wellbeing of the family particularly at the community level. Households that possess these items are rated as high in socioeconomic status.

Table 5.17: Perceived change in trafficking victims' household socio-economic status (n=250)

Welfare indicators				Change	
	Yes	No	Improved	Unhanged	Worse off
Education					
Primary	188 (75.2)	62 (24.8)	31 (16.5)	151 (80.3)	6 (3.2)
Secondary	199 (79.6)	51 (20.4)	28 (14.1)	154 (77.4)	17 (8.5)
Health care					
Primary health	220 (88.0)	30 (12.0)	72 (32.7)	123 (55.9)	25 (11.4)
General hospital	206 (82.4)	44 (17.6)	12 (5.8)	134 (65.1)	60 (29.1)
Private hospital	201 (80.4)	49 (19.6)	58 (28.9)	122 (60.7)	21 (10.4)
Traditional medicine	193 (77.2)	57 (22.8)	48 (24.9)	92 (47.7)	53 (27.4)
Local herbs	207 (82.8)	43 (17.2)	98 (47.3)	65 (31.4)	44 (21.3)
Income (₦)					
Monthly income	211 (84.4)	39 (15.6)	170 (80.6)	29 (13.7)	12(5.7)
Annual income	225 (90.0)	25 (10.0)	158 (70.2)	55 (24.4)	12 (5.3)
Social status					
Acceptance among group members	210 (84.0)	40 (16.0)	135 (64.3)	22 (10.5)	53 (25.2)
Public image	230 (92.0)	20 (8.0)	55 (23.9)	135 (56.7)	40 (17.4)
Chieftaincy title	218 (87.2)	32 (12.8)	46 (21.1)	138 (63.3)	34 (15.6)
Cosmopoliteness	210 (84.0)	40 (16.0)	35 (16.7)	150 (71.4)	25 (11.9)
Feeding					
Once a day	237 (94.8)	13 (5.2)	87 (36.7)	85 (35.9)	65 (27.4)
Twice daily	225 (90.0)	25 (10.0)	143 (63.6)	47 (20.9)	35 (15.5)
Three times daily	230 (92.0)	20 (8.0)	150 (65.2)	50 (21.7)	30 (13.0)
More than thrice	239 (95.6)	11 (4.4)	121 (50.6)	68 (28.5)	50 (20.9)
Source of energy for cooking					
Gas	228 (91.2)	22 (8.8)	118 (51.8)	65 (28.5)	45 (19.7)
Electricity	209 (83.6)	41 (16.4)	35 (16.7)	79 (37.8)	95 (45.5)
Charcoal	234 (93.6)	16 (6.4)	32 (13.7)	132 (56.4)	70 (29.9)
Firewood	237 (94.8)	13 (5.2)	76 (32.1)	129 (54.4)	32 (13.5)
Source of water					
Rain	241 (96.4)	9 (3.6)	65 (27.0)	124 (51.5)	52 (21.5)
Well	224 (89.6)	26 (10.4)	52 (23.2)	122 (54.5)	50 (22.3)
Borehole	227 (90.8)	23 (9.2)	52 (22.9)	140 (61.7)	35 (15.4)
Pipe borne water	236 (94.4)	14 (5.6)	67 (28.4)	129 (54.7)	40 (16.9)
Stream/river	218 (87.2)	32 (12.8)	65 (29.8)	118 (54.1)	35 (16.1)
Type of house					
Mud house	225 (90.0)	25 (10.0)	27 (12.0)	133 (59.1)	65 (28.9)
Brick/block house	221 (88.4)	29 (11.6)	24 (10.9)	137 (62.0)	60 (27.1)
Bungalow	234 (93.6)	16 (6.4)	30 (12.8)	129 (55.1)	75 (32.1)
Storey building	227 (90.8)	23 (9.2)	45 (19.8)	115 (50.7)	67 (29.5)
Type of roofing					
Thatched roof	232 (92.8)	18 (7.2)	36 (15.5)	125 (53.9)	71 (30.6)
Aluminium sheets	220 (88.0)	30 (12.0)	37 (16.8)	138 (62.7)	45 (20.5)
Asbestos	220 (88.0)	30 (12.0)	47 (21.4)	140 (63.6)	33 (15.0)
Source of power					
None	205 (82.0)	45 (18.0)	51 (24.9)	132 (64.4)	22 (10.7)
IBEDC	230 (92.0)	20 (8.0)	57 (24.8)	136 (59.1)	37 (16.1)
Generator	230 (92.0)	20 (8.0)	54 (23.5)	119 (51.7)	57 (24.8)
Inverter	211 (84.4)	39 (15.6)	25 (11.8)	150 (71.1)	36 (17.1)
IBEDC & generator	230 (92.0)	20 (8.0)	62 (27.0)	127 (55.2)	41 (17.8)
IBEDC, generator & inverter	210 (84.0)	40 (16.0)	54 (25.7)	120 (57.1)	36 (17.1)
Toilet facility					
Pit latrine	211 (84.4)	39 (15.6)	53 (25.1)	126 (59.7)	32 (15.2)
Water closet	210 (84.0)	40 (16.0)	71 (33.8)	114 (54.3)	25 (11.9)
Bush/stream	231 (92.4)	19 (7.6)	57 (24.7)	144 (62.3)	30 (13.0)

Percentages in Parentheses

Source: Field Survey, 2014

It can be seen from Table 5.18 that 67.2% of trafficked victims' household wellbeing remained unchanged while 16.4% had improved wellbeing and 16.4% were worse-off. Though some households experience improvement in their wellbeing the change seems little compared to their expectations before embarking on trafficking. The interview with key informant also revealed that the only benefit parents derive from the trafficking of their children is the advance remittance/payment they collect from their mistresses/masters which most times is occasional. Therefore while some parents get these remittances, others do not and this left such households worse-off.

Table 5.18: Change in household wellbeing of trafficking victims

Victims' Household Wellbeing	F	%	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Improved	41	16.4				
Unchanged	168	67.2	36.70	24.62	0.00	130.00
Worse-off	41	16.4				

Source: Field Survey (2014)

As seen from Table 5.19, 64.0% of victims indicated a high level of change in household socio-economic status. This means that there is an improvement in the wellbeing of the victims' household as a result of their involvement in human trafficking. Most people involved in trafficking do so in view of a better life for themselves and their households. The families expect remittances from their wards to assist in improving their standard of living. This result is an indication that involvement in human trafficking has led to change in the socioeconomic status of victims' households. Improvement in household socioeconomic status and standard of living will further result in improvement of the community leading to development.

Table 5.19: Level of change in household socioeconomic status

Levels of change	F	%	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Low	90	36.0	71.09	9.41	37.00	106.00
High	160	64.0				

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.20 HYPOTHESES TESTING:

5.20.1 Research hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between human trafficking victims' socio-economic characteristics and change in their household wellbeing.

Chi-square analysis of relationship between victims' selected socio-economic characteristics and change in household wellbeing is shown in Table 5.20. Sex and marital status are not significantly related to change in household wellbeing (Chi-square=1.165; p=0.280 and Chi-square=2.139; p=0.144) respectively. However, Level of education (Chi-square=33.308; p=0.000), Family type (Chi-square=6.173; p=0.013), Marriage type of parents (Chi-square=9.397; p=0.009), Position in the family (Chi-square=8.651; p=0.013) and Parental status (Chi-square=19.165; p=0.000) are all significantly related to change in household wellbeing.

Table 5.20: Chi-square analysis of relationship between victims' selected socio-economic characteristics and change in household wellbeing

Variables	Chi-square value	Df	P	Contingency Coefficient	Decision
Sex	1.165	1	0.280	0.068	NS
Marital status	2.139	1	0.144	0.092	NS
Level of education	33.308	4	0.000*	0 .343	S
Family type	6.173	1	0.013*	0 .343	S
Marriage type of parents	9.397	2	0.009*	0.190	S
Position in the family	8.651	2	0.013*	0.183	S
Parental status	19.165	3	0.000*	0.267	S

*Significant at p<0.05

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 5.21 shows the Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis of relationship between victims' other socio-economic characteristics and change in household wellbeing. The results revealed that age of victims [Age before trafficking (r=0.095; p=0.133), Present age (r=0.107; p=0.091)] have no significant relationship with change in household wellbeing. However, Number of siblings which is an indication of their household size (r=-0.156; p=0.013) and Income (r=0.292; p=0.000) are significantly related to change in household wellbeing. It can also be seen from the table that the relationship with household size is negative (r= -0.156) which means, the larger the household the lower the level of change in household wellbeing. Large families will find little improvement from the remittances of their wards because a large percentage of the money usually goes into feeding the family.

Table 5.21: PPMC table showing analysis of relationship between victims' other socio-economic characteristics and change in household wellbeing

Variables	r-value	p-value	Decision
Age before trafficking	0.095	0.133	NS
Present age	0.107	0.091	NS
No. of siblings	-0.156	0.013*	S
Income	0.292	0.000*	S

*Significant at p<0.05

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 5.22 presents the results from the linear regression on hypothesis 1 carried out using Sex, Marital Status, Family Size, Age, Level of Education and Income as the independent variables and change in Household Wellbeing (HW) as the dependent variable. This is done to determine the linear relationship of the constructs for predicting change in Household Wellbeing.

From table 5.22, it can be seen that the R Square value for the model showed that 12.4% of the variance in the model can be predicted from the independent variable. For the general significance of the model, p value is lesser than 0.05 ($p<0.05$), the model is significant. Thus, the variables such asincome, family size, sex, marital status, level of education and Age do significantly predict the dependent variable ($F=5.747$; $P<0.05$). Table 5.22 further shows the standardized Beta coefficients that present the contributions of income, family size, sex, marital status, level of education and age to the model. The highest predictors of change in household wellbeing were Income ($\beta=0.293$) and Family size ($\beta=-0.170$). The results show that, while there is a positive (direct) relationship between monthly income and change in household wellbeing, family size was inversely related to change in household wellbeing. The p-value showed the impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Therefore, since the p-value for income and family size, as seen in table 5.22 is lesser than 0.05 alpha level of significance, there is significant relationship between human trafficking victims' income, family size and change in their household wellbeing (HW) while there is no significant relationship between human trafficking victims' sex, marital status, age and change in their household wellbeing because their respective p values are higher than 0.05 alpha level of significance.

Table 5.22: Contribution of victims' socio-economic characteristics to change in household wellbeing

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	30.190	16.093		1.876	.062
Sex	-.272	2.949	-.006	-.092	.927
Marital status	.496	4.458	.008	.111	.911
Family Size	-1.017	.367	-.170	-2.768	.006[*]
Age	.237	.333	.052	.713	.477
Level of Edu.	.363	1.581	.015	.230	.818
Income	.002	.001	.293	4.451	.000[*]

R=0.353, R^2=0.124, Adjusted R^2=0.103, S.E. of the Estimate=22.029

*Significant at p<0.05

Source: Field Survey, 2014

5.20.2 Research hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between human trafficking victim's method of recruitment and change in their household wellbeing.

The Chi-square analysis of relationship between victims' method of recruitment and change in household wellbeing as presented in Table 5.23 revealed a significant relationship between human trafficking victim's method of recruitment and change in their household wellbeing (p=0.001).This is an indication that method of victims' recruitment has a significant implication on their household wellbeing. For instance a victim that was kidnapped and sold may not have opportunity to contribute to household wellbeing as someone sent by his or her parents.

Table 5.23: Chi-square analysis of relationship between victims' method of recruitment and change in household wellbeing

Variable	Chi-square value	Df	P	Contingency Coefficient	Decision
Method of recruitment	19.244	4	0.001[*]	0.267	S

*Significant at p<0.05
Source: Field Survey (2014)

5.20.3 Research hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between length of time victims spent in trafficking destination and change in their household wellbeing.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis of relationship between length of time victims spent in trafficking destination and change in their household wellbeing shows a significant relationship (r=0.127; p=0.045). This indicates that the longer a victim stays at the trafficking destination, the more the victims' contribution to household wellbeing. This is because he/she will be able to send more remittances to the household for the improvement of their wellbeing.

Table 5.24: PPMC table showing analysis of relationship between victims' length of time spent at trafficking destination and change in household wellbeing

Variable	r	P	Decision
Length of time	0.127	0.045[*]	S

*Significant at p<0.05

Source: Field Survey (2014)

5.20.4 Research hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between the nature of job trafficking victims engage in and change in their household wellbeing.

The result shows that the type of job a victim engaged in has significant implications on their household wellbeing (Chi-square=34.83; p=0.000). This is an indication that some jobs are better paid than others which results to higher income for the victims engaged in such jobs thereby being able to bring higher remittances to their households.

Table 5.25: Chi-square analysis of relationship between the nature of job victims engage in and change in household wellbeing.

Variables	Chi-square	Df	P	Contingency Coefficient	Decision
Nature of job	34.83	5	0.000*	0.350	S

*Significant at p<0.05

Source: Field Survey (2014)

5.20.5 Research hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between trafficking victims' frequency of contact with parents and change in their household wellbeing.

The result shows a significant relationship between victims' frequency of contact with parents and change in household wellbeing (r=0.520; p=0.000). This could mean that victims that have opportunity to visit their household more frequently will likely bring more remittance to their household thereby leading to improved household wellbeing.

Table 5.26: PPMC table showing analysis of relationship between victims' frequency of contact with parents and change in household wellbeing

Variable	r	p	Decision
Frequency of contact	0.520	0.000[*]	S

*Significant at $p < 0.05$

Source: Field Survey (2014)

5.20.6 Research Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between Oyo, Ogun and Lagos States in perception of trafficking victims about change in their households' socio-economic status.

Table 5.27 reveals that the calculated f-value is 4.565 while the critical f-value is 3.00. Since the calculated f-value of 4.565 is higher than the critical f-value of 3.00 at 0.05 alpha level, thus the hypothesis is rejected. This implies there is significant difference between Oyo, Ogun and Lagos states in perception of victims on change in their households' socio-economic status.

Since there is significant difference in the perception between the three states, Ducan Multiple Range Test (DMTR) was used as a post hoc-test to determine the state that is responsible for the significant difference. The result of DMTR revealed that the mean score of victims in Oyo state is statistically greater than those of Ogun and Lagos states (Table 5.28)

Table 5.27: Analysis of Variance of respondents across Oyo, Ogun and Lagos States on perception of victims about change in the households' socio-economic status

Socio-economic Status Perception	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Calculated F-value	Critical F-value	Sig-2-tailed	Decision
Between Groups	817.948	2	408.974	4.565	3.00*		Reject H_{07}
Within Groups	22130.676	247	89.598				
Total	22948.624	249					

*Significant, P<0.05

Source: Field Survey (2014)

The result of Duncan test presented in Table 5.28 shows the mean score of victims in Oyo state as 70.8600 which is statistically greater than the mean score of Ogun and Lagos which are 66.6750 and 68.1148 respectively. Oyo state thus, contributed more to the significant difference that is noticed in the DMRT table below with 70.8600 while Ogun state has the least significant difference with 66.6750.

This result indicates that respondents from Oyo state had better perception about change in their households' socioeconomic status than their counterparts from Ogun and Lagos states. This could mean that respondents from Oyo State had more frequent contact with their households or they earn better income which enables them contribute more to the improvement of their households.

Table 5.28: DUNCAN Multiple Range Test (DMTR) on perception of victims about change in households' socio-economic status

States	Frequency	Mean	Duncan	Group
Oyo	100	70.8600	A	1
Ogun	80	66.6750	B	2
Lagos	70	68.1143	C	3

Source: Field Survey (2014)

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

The study was carried out to investigate victims' perception of socioeconomic implications of human trafficking on rural households in Southwestern Nigeria. Specific objectives of the study include; to identify the socio-economic characteristics of trafficked victims in the study area, describe the role of family members in the recruitment of persons being trafficked and assess the awareness of respondents on the purpose for which they were being trafficked. The study also ascertained the duration of exposure of victims to trafficking, examined the nature of job trafficked victims engage in at trafficking destination and determined the frequency of contact between victims and their households. Other objectives of the study are; to ascertain the socio-economic status of human trafficking victims, assess the contribution of human trafficking to the wellbeing of affected households and to assess the perception of victims about the changes in the socio-economic status of their households.

Findings revealed that Yoruba tribe ranked highest (52%) among the respondents. Some victims are from various parts of the country, while others are from outside the country particularly Togo. More than half of the respondents are below the age of twenty. More than half (55.2%) of the victims are female and majority (83%) of them are single. Educational status of respondents revealed that most of them have only primary education while others had adult literacy. Income levels of respondents show that 75.2% of them earn between ₦1,000 and ₦5,000 monthly. This is an indication of their low level of income and poverty status which make them vulnerable to trafficking

More than half of the respondents are from extended family background which is common in Nigeria. A high percentage of victims' parents are polygamous this is also a common feature of Nigeria/African families. Over forty percent of the respondents have about 6-10 siblings which shows that the respondents are from large families. This according to Sukhwinder, 2013 sometimes forces parents to sell their children to traffickers. Majority of the respondents (56.4%) were sent by their parents while a lot of them decided to go by themselves (29.2%).

Eighty-two percent (82%) of the respondents indicated that they were aware of the purpose of trafficking. Often, human trafficking can be a voluntary process in which people willingly pay smugglers to move them across international borders. People are trafficked for various purposes ranging from domestic servitude, forced labor, prostitution, plantation workers, organ harvesting and a host of others. More than half (54.8%) of the respondents indicated that they were engaged as domestic workers (house helps) while others were plantation workers (18.8%), some were also involved in prostitution (12.4%).

Respondents also indicated various degrees of harsh treatment experienced in their trafficking destination. These include beatings, overworked, rape, isolation, hunger, torture and confinement. Most respondents lack contact with their families throughout their stay in trafficking destination. Others however indicated occasional visits (once a year), phone calls and oral messages through friends and relatives. A high percentage (61.2%) of the respondents indicated that they are aware of their average monthly income while others do not know how much they are being paid. Findings also revealed that respondents' wages were not paid to them directly; they are either received by parents (29%), the mistress (39%) or the contractor (32%).

Remittances are often in form of cash while sometimes materials such as clothing, shoes and jewelry are sent to their parents. The highest average monthly remittance ranges between ₦4000 to ₦6000 though most respondents (53.6%) indicated that remittance is often done on yearly basis. These remittances are sent for various purposes such as to start a business, to build a house, to pay siblings school fees, to feed the family or saved for victim's education/future career. More than half (53.6%) of respondents indicated that their remittances were used to build houses, 24.0% said remittances were used for other household needs while only 18.0% indicated that remittances were used for schooling/educational purposes.

Major household items commonly acquired from victims' remittances include; radio (50.8%), wall clock (50.4%), handset (55.6%), motorcycle (32.4%), generator (26.0%), ceiling/table fan (32.4%), video/VCD (33.6%) and television (38.0%). Few of the respondents (10.4%) indicated that they have opportunity to go to school during the trafficking period. This is usually arranged with the mistress such that all or a percentage of the victim's wages will be used for schooling purpose. The experience of trafficking usually has negative impacts on the victims such as loneliness, low self-esteem and lack of educational and career opportunities.

Test of hypotheses show significant relationship between victims' selected socioeconomic

characteristics and change in their household wellbeing. The highest predictors of change in household wellbeing were Income (β=0.293), Family size (β=-0.170) and Age (β=0.052).

Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis of relationship between length of time victims spent in trafficking destination and change in their household wellbeing shows a significant relationship (r= 0.127 p= 0.045). Also, nature of jobs respondents' engaged in during the trafficking period has significant relationship with change in household wellbeing (p = 0.000). There is also a significant relationship between respondents' frequency of contact with parents and change in household wellbeing (r = 0.520, p = 0.000). The result also shows a significant difference between Oyo, Ogun and Lagos states in perception of victims on change in the households' socio-economic status.

6.2 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, victims are mostly from poor educational and financial backgrounds who are forced or deceived to seek better life outside their families and communities. This is usually done with the hope of helping to improve the wellbeing of their households by sending all or a percentage of their income (wages) for their families' upkeep. Some households get these remittances and used them for their intended purposes while some masters/mistresses and contractors withheld victims' wages. More than half of the victims are female and majority of them are single. A high percentage of victims' parents are polygamous with large families of about 6-10 siblings. More than half of the respondents were engaged as domestic servants (house helps) where they experience various degrees of harsh treatments such as; beatings, overworked, rape, isolation, hunger, torture and confinement. Most respondents lack contact with their families throughout their stay in trafficking destination. Some victims have opportunity of schooling which help to improve their academic qualification. On the whole, it can be concluded that human trafficking has both positive and negative implications on the wellbeing of affected victims and their households.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are therefore suggested:

1. A social assistance/security system should be established to cater for vulnerable members of the society especially women.
2. Creative ways of funding these social protection mechanisms such as social insurance,

social assistance, and employment protection should be put in place to make it sustainable

3. Consciousness-raising efforts aimed at stressing the illegality of human trafficking must be combined with efforts that promote economic stability and offer solutions for families mostly 'at-risk' or vulnerable groups (women and girls in particular)

4. Policies and incentives that will encourage monogamous and small family units should be put in place to discourage people from raising large families they cannot cater for.

5. Emphasis should be placed on the implementation of "education for all" policy of the federal government and particularly the girl child education.

6. There should also be increased efforts towards the arrest and prosecution of human traffickers in order to curb their activities in exploiting the young and active members of the community that should be contributing positively to nation building.

6.4 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

1. The research established the prevalence of human trafficking in the study area.

2. It was also found that victims' remittances are mostly used for feeding by household members.

3. Household items (radio, wall clock, handset, motorcycle, generator, ceiling/table fan, video/VCD and television) believed to improve the socioeconomic status of the households were also acquired.

4. It was also found that contact between victims and their households was less frequent during the trafficking period.

5. Victims are usually from rural households seeking better income opportunities than what is available in their communities

6. Trafficking is seen by households as a means of economic diversification to assist the household in coping with risks and shocks of income and food insecurity.

6.5 AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Other researchers can explore implications of human trafficking on agricultural production.

2. The same study could be replicated in other geopolitical regions (Northeastern, Southeastern and Northwestern) of Nigeria.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION & RURAL DEVELOPMENT

FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE & FORESTRY

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DATA COLLECTION ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING ON RURAL HOUSEHOLD WELLBEING IN SOUTHWESTERN NIGERIA.

Dear Respondent,

I am a Ph.D. student from the Department of Agricultural Extension & Rural Development, University of Ibadan, conducting a survey on the "Socio-economic implications of human trafficking on rural household wellbeing in Southwestern Nigeria."

The information obtained will be used mainly for academic purpose. Therefore, responses provided will be treated with utmost confidence. Your honest response will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you.

Personal Characteristics:

Please tick ( ) or fill in where appropriate

Town/village --------------------------

State ------------------------------------

L.G.A. --------------------------------

Ethnic group or Tribe -----------------

Age: a) ---------------(in years) when first trafficked

b) ------------- (in years) present age

   4) Sex: Male ( ) Female ( )

   5) Marital status: (a) Married ( )   (b) Single ( ) (c) Divorcee ( ) (d) Widow ( )

 6) Highest level of education before trafficked: a) Adult literacy ( ) b) No formal education ( ) c) Primary education d) Secondary education ( ) e) Tertiary education ( ) f) Koranic School g) Others (specify) --------

   7) Highest income before trafficked: N -----------------------

   8) Family Type: a) Nuclear ( ) b) Extended ( )

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9) Marriage Type of Parents: a) Monogamy ( ) b) Polygamy ( ) c) Single parent ( )

d) Others (specify) ------------------------

10) Position in the Family: a) First born ( ) b) Last born ( ) c) Others (specify) ---------

11) Number of siblings: ----------------------- (Give the actual number)

12) Parental Status: a) Both parents are alive ( ) b) Father dead ( ) c) Mother dead

d) Both parents are dead. If dead, who are you living with? ---------------------

Trafficking Characteristics:

1) Method of Recruitment: Please indicate how you were trafficked from the following options:

a. My parents agreed to send me ( ) b. My friends influenced me ( ) c. I was forced into it ( )

d. I was kidnapped and sold ( ) e. I decided to go myself ( ) f. Others (specify) ----------

2) Pattern of trafficking: Were you trafficked outside ( ) or within ( ) the country?

If within the country, were you trafficked within ( ) or outside ( ) your state/ community?

3) How were you transported from your community to the trafficking destination?

a. by land ( ) b. by air ( ) c. by water/sea ( ) d. land and sea ( ) e. land and air ( )   f. sea and air ( ) g. all of the above ( )

If by land, which of the following means of transportation was used?

a. bus ( ) b. car/taxi ( ) c. train ( ) d. motorcycle ( ) e. others (specify) ---------------

If by air, which of the following means of transportation was used?

a. helicopter ( ) b. aeroplane ( ) c. others (specify) -------------------------------

If by water/sea, which of the following means of transportation was used?

a. canoe ( ) b. motorized boat ( ) c. ferry ( ) d. ship ( ) e. others (specify) -----------

4) How many years have you spent in the traffic destination? a. less than 1year ( )

b. 2-4years ( ) c. 5-7years ( ) d. 8-10years ( ) e. Above 10years

5) Awareness about purpose of Trafficking:

Did you know the purpose for which you were being trafficked? Yes ( )   No ( ) If yes, what was the purpose? a) domestic servitude ( ) b) marriage bond ( ) c) farm labour ( )

d) job opportunity ( ) e) to learn a trade ( ) f) educational purpose ( )

f) others (specify) -------------------------

If no, at what point did you realized you were being trafficked and for what purpose? Please explain in details --

----

6) Type of job engaged in: What type of job were you engaged in during the trafficking period? a. house help ( ) b. plantation worker ( ) c. factory worker ( ) d. pornography business ( ) e. prostitution ( ) f. construction site worker ( ) g. others (specify) --------------

Is this job different from what you were told you will engage in? Yes ( )   No ( )

Unpleasant experience at trafficking destination: Please indicate which of the following experiences you were exposed to during the period you were being trafficked and how often you were exposed to such experiences.

Unpleasant experience	Yes	No	Frequency of exposure to these experiences				
			Everyday	At least twice a week	At least once a week	Occasionally	Not at all
Beatings							
Rape							
Overworked							
Hard labour							
Isolation							
Hunger							
Starvation							
Sent out at night							
Confinement							
Torture							
Others (specify)							

8) Accessibility to household/family members: Do you have access to your parents or household members and how often?

Accessibility	Yes	No	Frequency of contact			
			Weekly	Monthly	Once in year	Not at all
Visits						
Phone Calls						
Letter writing						
Oral Messages						
Friends						
Relatives						

Co-workers						

INCOME AND REMITTANCES:

1) Average monthly/annual income: Do you know your average monthly/annual income during the trafficking period? Yes ( ) No ( ) If yes, how much?

Amount (N)	Monthly	Amount (N)	Annual
2,000-4,000		Less than 20,000	
5,000-7,000		20,000-25,000	
8,000-10,000		26,000-30,000	
10,000 -12,000		31,000-40,000	
Above 12,000		Above 40,000	

If no, who collects or keeps your wages/ salary?

 a. Parents ( ) b. Mistress ( ) c. Contractor ( )

Does your income get to your family/household Yes ( )   No ( ) If yes, what percentage of your income gets to your family/household? If no, why? ------------------------------------

2) Remittances: In what form and how often did your family gets remittances from your income during the trafficking period?

Type of Remittance	Yes	No	Frequency		
			Monthly	Twice a year	Yearly
Cash					
Kind (materials)					
Both					

3) Average monthly/annual remittance: What was the average monthly/annual remittance?

Amount (N)	Monthly	Amount (N)	Annually
1,000-3,000		Less than 10,000	
4,000-6,000		10,000-15,000	
7,000-9,000		16,000-20,000	
9,000-10,000		21,000-30,000	
Above 10,000		Above 30,000	

If in kind, what type of materials? a. clothes ( ) b. shoes ( ) c. bags ( ) d. jewelries ( )

 e. food stuffs( ) f. all of the above ( )

4) Purpose: What were the money/materials intended to be used for? a. to start a business ( )

b. to build a house ( ) c. to pay siblings school fees ( ) d. to feed the family ( ) e. saved for victim's education/future career ( )

Was the money used for the intended purpose? a. Yes ( )   b. No ( )

If yes, how? --

--If   no,

why? Please explain --

IMPLICATIONS FOR PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD WELLBEING:

1) Did the trafficking experience have any effect on your personal or family wellbeing?

Yes ( )   No ( )

2) Assess the effect on the following personal and household welfare indicators

WELFARE INDICATORS	CHANGE		PERSONAL			HOUSEHOLD		
	No	Yes	Improved	Unchanged	Worse-off	Improved	Unchanged	Worse-off
Education: Primary education Secondary Tertiary education								
Health care: Primary health care General hospital Private hospital Traditional medicine Local herbs								
Financial (income): Monthly income Annual income								

Social status: Acceptance among group members Public image Chieftaincy title Cosmopoliteness Physical appearance							
Feeding: Not at all Once a day Twice daily Three times daily More than thrice Source of energy for cooking: Gas Electricity Charcoal Firewood Source of water: Rain Well Borehole Pipe-borne water Stream/river							
Type of House: Mud house Brick/block house Bungalow Storey building Type of roofing: Thatched roof Aluminium sheets							

Asbestos								
Source of power supply: None PHCN Generator Inverter PHCN & Generator PHCN, Generator & Inverter								
Type of toilet facility: Pit latrine Water closet Bush/stream								

3) Which of the following household items were acquired as a result of your involvement in human trafficking?

Household accessories	Yes	No	If yes, how many?
1. Television			
2. Video/VCD			
3. Refrigerator			
4. Ceiling/table fan			
5. Satellite			
6. Bicycle			
7. Generator			
8. Motorcycle			
9. Hand set			
10. Furniture			
11. Wall clock			
12. Washing machine			
13. Stabilizer			

14. Deep freezer			
15. Gas cooker			
16. Electric stove			
17. Electric iron			
18. Electric kettle			
19. Computer			
20. Radio			
21. Others			

4) Please assess changes in your household's socio-economic status by responding to these perception statements.

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. My family feeds better than before					
2. My community do not have regard for trafficked people					
3. My siblings are going to better school now than before					
4. A victim of trafficking carries a stigma in my locality					
5. My mother uses kerosene stove in place of firewood					
6. I got vocational training where I went to work					
7. Involvement in trafficking make people to look down on me					
8. My family goes to the hospital instead of using local herbs					
9. Members of my family always eat the food of their choice at any time					
10. We can not afford a refrigerator in the house as a result of low financial status					
11. Remittances from trafficking is not sufficient to improve my household facilities					
12. I can afford modern gadgets as a result of improvement in my economic status due to involvement in trafficking					
13. My mother bought a grinding machine this improved our household income					
14. There is no electricity in our house because my household cannot afford to pay the bills					
15. Involvement in trafficking has brought prestige to my family					

16. My family is still one of the poorest in the community					
17. I have not improved on my academic qualification					
18. My family is better off than most household in my community					
19. I am now well accepted among my people because trafficking has improved my status					
20. My mother often uses firewood for cooking because she could not afford kerosene at all times					
21. My going out to work brought hardship to my family					
22. I improved in computer application during my stay in trafficking destination					
23. My family is well recognized in the community					
24. Trafficking experience has a negative impact on my health status					
25. My present economic status has enabled me contribute to community development					

5) List other benefits your household has derived from your involvement in human trafficking.

----

6) Are there any negative influences this trafficking experience has on your personal or household wellbeing?

APPENDIX B

Focus Group Discussion Topic Guide

State: _____ LGA's _____ Name of institution _____

Type of Group: _____ Number of participants in the FGD: _____

Name of Moderator:_____ Name of Note-taker _____

Date:_____ _____

Introduction to inform participants of the purpose of the FGD

We would like to explain to you why we have gathered you together today. We are conducting a study on "Socio-economic implications of human trafficking on rural household wellbeing in southwestern Nigeria". We are particularly interested in the contributions of your working here to the wellbeing of your families.

It is very important that you tell us exactly what you feel and know about the present condition of your households so that the information we help us in our research. Please understand that we are not government officials. (Here you will introduce yourselves)

We are very grateful for your time to participate in the discussion. Please discuss the questions freely among yourselves. Everyone should participate in this discussion. Also, understand that there are no wrong answers. We only want to know what you think. We will like to take some notes and record the discussion so that we don't forget what you tell us.

Personal Characteristics:

Are you from rural or urban communities? Give the answers in ratio: Rural: ¼ ½ ¾ all

Urban: ¼ ½ ¾ all

State -----------------------------------

L.G.A. ---------------------------------

Ethnic group or Tribe of each participant -----------------

What is the age group (in years) when first trafficked

What is the age group (in years) now

Sex: what is the ratio of Male (%) to Female (%) in the group

What sex is mostly involved in trafficking and why?

9)   What percentage are married? What percentage are Single ( )

10) What is the education level of the trafficked: Do they have opportunity to go to school in the trafficking destination?

11) Are you occupationally engaged before trafficked? If yes what was the income level

12) Family Type: a) Nuclear ( ) b) Extended ( )

13) Marriage Type of Parents: a) Monogamy ( ) b) Polygamy ( ) c) Single parent ( )

d) Others (specify) -----------------------

    14)   Number of siblings: ----------------------- (Give the actual number)

    15)   Parental Status: a) Both parents are alive ( ) b) Father dead ( ) c) Mother dead

d) Both parents are dead. If dead, who are you living with? ---------------------

Trafficking Characteristics:

Are your parents aware of your being trafficked?

Are your parents aware of your trafficking destination?

Are your parents aware of the type of job you will do at the trafficking destination?

4) How many years have you spent in the traffic destination? a. less than 1year ( )

b. 2-4years ( ) c. 5-7years ( ) d. 8-10years ( ) e. Above 10years

5) Awareness about purpose of Trafficking:

Did you know the purpose for which you were being trafficked? Yes ( )   No ( ) If yes, what

was the purpose? a) domestic servitude ( ) b) marriage bond ( ) c) farm labour ( )

d) job opportunity ( ) e) to learn a trade ( ) f) educational purpose ( )

f) others (specify) -------------------------

If no, at what point did you realized you were being trafficked and for what purpose? Please

explain in details --

----

6) Type of job engaged in: What type of job were you engaged in during the trafficking

period? a. house help ( ) b. plantation worker ( ) c. factory worker ( ) d. pornography business

( ) e. prostitution ( ) f. construction site worker ( ) g. others (specify) --------------

Is this job different from what you were told you will engage in? Yes ( )   No ( )

Unpleasant experience at trafficking destination: Were you exposed to any unpleasant

experience during the period you were being trafficked and how often you were exposed to

such experiences?

Accessibility to household/family members: How often do you visit your family or parents?

Average monthly/annual income: Do you know your average monthly/annual income during

the trafficking period? Yes ( )No ( ) If yes, how much?

If no, who collects or keeps your wages/ salary?

 a. Parents ( ) b. Mistress ( ) c. Contractor ( )

Does your income get to your family/household Yes ( )   No ( ) If yes, what percentage of

your income gets to your family/household? If no, why? ------------------------------------

Remittances: In what form and how often did your family gets remittances from your income

during the trafficking period?

Average monthly/annual remittance: What was the average monthly/annual remittance?

If in kind, what type of materials? a. clothes ( ) b. shoes ( ) c. bags ( ) d. jewelries ( )

 e. food stuffs( ) f. all of the above ( )

Purpose: What were the money/materials intended to be used for? a. to start a business ( ) b. to build a house ( ) c. to pay siblings school fees ( ) d. to feed the family ( ) e. saved for victim's education/future career ( )

Was the money used for the intended purpose? a. Yes ( )   b. No ( )

If yes, how? ---

If no, why? Please explain --

IMPLICATIONS FOR PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD WELLBEING:

Did the trafficking experience have any impact on your personal or family wellbeing?

Yes ( ) No ( )

Which of the following household items were acquired as a result of your involvement in human trafficking?

Does trafficking have any negative or positive effects to your life? Explain your answer ------
----

Did trafficking make your family to be better off or worse off? Explain your response --------
----

What are your views about trafficking experience?

APPENDIX C

In-depth Interview (IDI) Schedule for Officers of the Institution

Type of Informant: _____ State_____

Date of Interview _____ Name of Interviewer:_____

A.   Information on the key informant

1.   Name of the Officer _____

2.   Position in the institution: _____

3.   Age _____   (in years)

4.   Sex: _____ Male _____ Female

5.   Religion: Christianity_____Islam _____Traditional _____ Others _____ (Specify)

6.   Ethnic Group: _____ Yoruba _____ Hausa _____ Igbo _____ Others (specify)

7.   Educational qualification: _____ Primary _____ Secondary _____

OND/HND_____NCE_____B.Sc.,_____M.Sc.,_____Others(S pecify)_____

8.   How long have you been in this leadership position? _____ (in years)

B.   Characteristics of the Group.

9.   When was this institution established? ....

10.   How many children do you have in this institution presently? ………………………….

11.   Are they mostly females or males? What are the age categories: Youth, Adolescents, Children

12. What is the average number of children that passes through this institution every year?

13. From where did you usually get them from?   ————————————————

14. Most of the trafficked victims are they from rural or urban areas?

15. What were the reasons why these children were brought here?   ——————————

_____

16. Are you aware of Agents of trafficking?

17. (a) What are the duties and responsibilities of your position?_____

_____

_____

(b)   What benefits do the children derive from the institution?

_____

_____

_____

(c) What are the problems facing this institution in catering for these children? List them.

_____

_____

_____

(d)   What efforts have you put in place to mitigate these problems?

_____

_____

_____

16.   What have been the activities of your group in ensuring that activities of human trafficking are curbed in this area?

_____

_____

17. What is the general attitude of people in the state towards human trafficking and your work in this institution?   _____

_____

18. Do you think the parents of these children derive any benefits from their trafficking experience? If yes, in what ways? If no, please explain. ---

----

----

19. Are you aware that the trafficking victims send remittances home or not and if not who collect their money?

20. Are trafficking victims experience at destination point favourable or unfavourable?

21. Do the trafficking of someone from a particular household make the household to be better off or worse off?

22. What are the likely reasons for trafficking?

Thanks for your assistance and God bless you.