

EXPLORING AFTERCARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS

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DECLARATION

I declare that **EXPLORING AFTERCARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS** is my own work and that all the sources I used as well as those quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of full references

SIGNATURE

DATE

K P RAMOKOLO

DEDICATION

THIS DISSERTATION IS DEDICATED TO OUR BELOVED LATE SON

Goitsemodimo Charis Motlhabedi

You came into our lives and passed within a short period of time. However, that borrowed time played a significant role in my life and inspired me to keep pursuing this study. Mom and dad will forever love you son, until we meet again in Glory.

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ABSTRACT

Child trafficking is a crime committed against humanity; it is punishable by the law and can be prevented by the law. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations International Emergency Fund (UNIICEF) and the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) (2009:01), 1,2 million children are trafficked, domestically and across borders worldwide, for labour and sexual exploitation, drug trade, organ removal and illegal child adoption. The trauma of this can be so inordinate, leaving victims broken and hopeless (Frederick 2005:8-12). Although numerous studies have been conducted on the subject of human/child trafficking, it was found that little research has been conducted on the aftercare of victims. As a result, this research focused mainly on exploring and assessing aftercare support provided to victims of human trafficking, specifically children.

This qualitative research found that child trafficking has serious negative effects on the victims who suffer, among others, violation of children's rights, physical pain and psychological and emotional trauma. A society cannot function optimally when such atrocities are committed against its most innocent members who are supposed to be its future. Accordingly, adequate aftercare support, which aims at enabling and empowering victims of child trafficking to regain control over every aspect of their lives, is crucial. The 30 participants who were interviewed for this study revealed that victim identification is the initial and the most vital step towards offering victims aftercare. The next step in the offering of aftercare of victims is the rescuing of victims followed by the immediate placing of victims in transitory places of safety where their basic needs are taken care of and they are provided with instant physical and specialised psychological support. Even though participants provided details of the type of programmes currently offered in South Africa, it was found that aftercare centres, in their current state, are not sufficiently resourced to offer the appropriate support to victims of child trafficking. It is for this reason that transitional housing with long term housing assistance and programmes tailor-made for victims of child trafficking be considered. It is evident from the literature and theory that the triple challenge of poverty, inequality and unemployment perpetuates the crime of child trafficking. Therefore, as a form of long-term preventative measure, it is suggested that stakeholders, such as the Department of Basic Education (DoE), Department of Social

Development (DSD) and Department of Health (DoH), focus attention on ensuring that victims of child trafficking are not denied the right to go to school and that societal norms, which propagate inequality, are discouraged. The latter can be done by teaching boy children from a young age positive masculinity, such as respecting girl children and their bodies, helping with house chores or crying when in pain. Moreover, the DoE should consider revising its curriculum and focus on teaching learners to strive to become employers and not job seekers as they are currently taught. This may have a positive impact on the current high unemployment rate in South Africa and, in turn, inequality and poverty, which are all push factors for human and child trafficking.

Key words: child, child trafficking, aftercare programmes, victimology, victim support.

KHUTSOFATŠO

Go gweba ka bana ke bosenyi bjo bo dirwago kgahlanong le batho; ke bosenyi bjo bo otlwago ke molao gomme bo ka thibelwa ke molao. Go ya ka ILO, UNICEF le UNGIFT (2009:01), go gwebjwa ka bana ba e ka bago dimilione tše 1,2, ka mo nageng le go ralala le mellwane lefaseng, go ba šomiša mabakeng a mešomo le a thobalano, go dikgwebišano tša diokobatši, go ba ntšha ditho tša mmele le go thwalwa ga bona mo go sego molaong. Bohloko bja se e ka ba bjo bogolo kudu, bo tlogela batšwasehlabele ba robegile dipelo gape ba se na le kholofelo (Frederick 2005:8-12). Le ge go dirilwe dithuto tše ntši ka hlogotaba ya go gweba ka batho/bana go hweditšwe gore go dirilwe dinyakišišo tše nnyane ka tlhokomelo ya ka morago ya batšwasehlabele. Ka lebaka la seo, nyakišišo ye e tsepeletše kudu go hlohlomišeng le go lekoleng thekgo ya tlhokomelo ya ka morago ye e fiwago batšwasehlabele ba kgwebo ka batho, kudukudu bana.

Nyakišišo ye ya *qualitative* e hweditše gore go gweba ka bana go na le ditlamorago tše šoro tše fošagetšego go batšwasehlabele bao ba itemogelago, gareng ga tše dingwe, kgatako ya ditokelo tša bana, bohloko bja mmele le tlaišego ya monagano le maikutlo. Setšhaba se ka se phele gabotse ge ditlaišo tše bjalo di dirwa kgahlanong le maloko a sona ao a lokilego ao e swanetšego go ba bokamoso bja sona. Ka lebaka leo, thekgo ya maleba ya tlhokomelo ya ka morago, yeo maikemišetšo a yona e lego go dumelela le go matlafatša batšwasehlabele ba kgwebo ka bana go ka tšea taolo gape ya karolo ye nngwe le ye nngwe ya maphelo a bona, e bohlokwa kudu. Bakgathatema ba ba 30 bao ba ilego ba botšišwa dipotšišo mabapi le thuto ye ba tšweleditše gore tšhupetšo ya batšwasehlabele ke kgato ya pele gape ye bohlokwa kudu go abeng batšwasehlabele tlhokomelo ya ka morago. Kgato ya go latela kabong ya tlhokomelo ya ka morago go batšwasehlabele ke go hlakodiša batšwasehlabele gomme gwa latela ke go bea semeetseng ga batšwasehlabele mafelong a nakwana a tšhireletšo moo dinyakwa tša bona tša motheo di kago šetšwa le go abelwa thekgo ya semeetseng ya go ikgetha ya mmele le ya monagano. Le ge bakgatha tema ba abile dintlha tša mehuta ya mananeo ao a abjwago ka Afrika Borwa, go hweditšwe gore disenthara tša tlhokomelo ya ka morago, maemong a tšona a bjale, ga di na le didirišwa tše di lekanego go ka aba thekgo ya maleba go batšwasehlabele ba kgwebo ka bana. Ke lona lebaka le le dirago gore tulo ya nakwana ka thušo ya tulo ya nako

ye telele le mananeo ao a diretšwego batšwasehlabelo ba kgwebo ka bana a elwe hloko. Go molaleng go tšwa go lithereitšha le teori gore ditlhohlo tše tharo tša bohloki, go se lekalekane le go se šome go gakatša bosenyi bja go gweba ka bana. Gomme, bjalo ka sebopego sa tekanyo ya thibelo ya nako ye telele, go šišinywa gore bakgathatema, bjalo ka DoE, DSD le DOH, ba lebiše tsepelelo ya bona go netefatšeng gore batšwasehlabelo ba kgwebo ka bana ga ba tingwe tokelo ya go ya sekolong le gore ditlwaedi tša setšhaba, tšeo di phatlalatšago go se lekalekane, di a fedišwa. Sa mafelelo se ka dirwa ka go ruta bana ba bašemane ge e sa le ba bannyane bonna bjo bobotse, bjalo ka go hlompha bana ba basetsana le mebele ya bona, go thuša ka mešomo ya ka gae goba go lla ge ba le bohlokong. Go feta moo, DoE e swanetše go naganišiša go ka lekola leswa lenaneothuto le go tsepelela go ruteng barutwana go ka leka go ba bengmešomo e sego banyaki ba mešomo bjale ka ge ba rutwa ga bjale. Se se ka ba le seabe se se kaone go kelo ya godimo ya bjale ya tlhokego ya mešomo ka Afrika Borwa gomme, ka lebaka leo, go se lekalekane le botlhoki, tšeo ka moka e lego mabaka a tšhušometšo go gwebeng ka batho le bana.

Mantšu a bohlokwa: go gweba ka bana, mananeo a tlhokomelo ya ka morago, thuto ya batšwasehlabelo ba bosenyi, thekgo ya batšwasehlabelo.

INGQIKITHI YOCWANINGO

Ukushushumbisa abantwana kungubugebengu obubhekiswe ebantwini; kujeziswa ngumthetho futhi kungavinjelwa ngumthetho. Ngokwe-ILO, i-UNICEF ne-UNGIFT (2009:01) kushushumbiswa abantwana abayizigidi ezingu-1,2 ngaphakathi ezweni nasemazweni angaphandle, bese beyagqilazwa noma baxhashazwe ngokocansi, basetshenziselwa izidakamizwa noma ukukhuliswa ngabazali abangasibo ababo ngokungekho emthethweni. Ubuhlungu obukhulu obudalwa yilokhu kungaba ngobunzima kakhulu, kungashiya izisulu zilimele futhi zingenathemba (Frederick 2055:8-12). Yize sekwenziwe ucwaningo oluningi esihlokweni sokushushumbiswa kwabantu noma kwabantwana, kwatholakala ukuthi luncane ucwaningo olwenziwe maqondana nokulandelelwa kwezisulu ngemva kwesigameko. Ngenxa yalokho, lolu cwaningo luqondene kakhulu nokuhlola ukulandelelwa okuhlinzekwayo ukusingatha izisulu zokushushumbiswa kwabantu, ikakhulukazi abantwana.

Lolu cwaningo oluqoqa imininingwane lwathola ukuthi ukushushumbiswa kwabantwana kunomthelela omubi ezisulwini ezihlukumezeka ngenxa yalokhu, phezu kokunye, ukungahlonishwa kwamalungelo abantwana, ubuhlungu obudaleka emzimbeni kanye nobuhlungu obukhulu obudaleka emqondweni nasemphefumulweni. Umphakathi awukwazi ukusebenza kahle uma izigameko ezibuhlungu njengalezi zenzeka emalungwini awo angenacala nafanele ukuba yikusasa lawo. Ngakho-ke, ukwesekwa ngokunakekelwa nangokwanele ngemva kwesigameko, okuyinto ehlose ukusiza izisulu zokuthunjwa kwabantwana ukuba baphinde bakwazi ukulawula konke okuqondene nezimpilo zabo, kubalulekile. Ababambiqhaza abangu-30 okwaxoxwa nabo kulolu cwaningo baveza ukuthi ukuhlonza izisulu kuyisinyathelo sokuqala nesibaluleke kakhulu ekuhlinzekeni izisulu usingatho lokunakekelwa ngemva kwesigameko. Isinyathelo esilandelayo ekunikezweni konakekelo ngemva kwesigameko ngokusiza izisulu, okulandelwa ukubekwa kwazo masisha ezindaweni zokuphepha zesikhashana nalapho kuzobhekwana nezidingongqangi zazo bese kuthi khona lapho zihlinzekwe ngosingatho oludingekayo ngokomzimba nangokomqondo. Yize ababambiqhaza banikeza imininingwane yezinhlobo zezinhlelo ezikhona eNingizimu afrika, kwatholakala ukuthi izikhungo zonakekelo lwangemva kwesigameko, zime ngenye indlela njengamanje, azihlinzekiwe ngezinsizakusebenza ezanele ukuze zikwazi

ukunikeza usingatho olufanele ekushushumbisweni kwabantwana. Yingakho kufanele kucatshangwe ngokuhlinzekwa ngosizo lwezindlu zesikhashana nezesikhathi eside kanye nezinhlelo ezakhelwe izisulu zokushushumbiswa kwabantwana. Kuvela ngokwemibhalo nangokwemibono yezinjululwazi ukuthi izinkinga ezihlangene ezintathu zobuphofu, ukungalingani kanye nokungabi khona kwemisebenzi kubhebhethekisa ubugebengu bokushushumbiswa kwabantwana. Ngakho-ke, njengendlela yokuvimba lokhu ezoqhubeka isikhathi eside, kuhlangozwa ukuthi abayingxenye yalokhu, iMinyango kahulumeni yezemfundo (DoE), ezokuthuthukiswa komphakathi (DSD) nowezempilo (DoH), igxile ekuqinisekiseni ukuthi izisulu zokushushumbiswa kwabantwana azincishwa ilungelo lokuya esikoleni nokuthi izinkambiso zomphakathi, ezidala ukungalingani azigqugquzelwa. Lokhu okuqeda kushiwo ngenhla kungenziwa ngokufundisa abafana ngenkathi besabancane ukuba ngamadoda enza kahle, njengokuhlonipha abantwana bamantombazane kanye nemizimba yabo, ukusiza ngemisebenzi yasendlini noma ukukhala uma bezwa ubuhlungu. Ngaphezu kwalokho, uMnyango Wezemfundo kufanele ubuyekeze ikharikhulamu yawo futhi ugxile ekufundiseni abafundi ukuba balwele ukuba ngabaqashi kunokuba ngabafuna imisebenzi, okuyinto abafundiswa yona njengamanje. Lokhu kungaba nomthelela omuhle ezingeni eliphezulu elikhona njengamanje eNingizimu Afrika lokungabikhona kwemisebenzi, lokungalingani nelobuphofu.

ABBREVIATIONS

CCTV:	CLOSED CIRCUIT TELEVISION
CGI:	CETNRE FOR GLOBAL IMPACT
CJS:	CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM
CSO:	CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS
CLAW:	COLLEGE OF LAW
CYCC:	CHILD AND YOUTH CARE CENTRES
DFA:	DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS
DHA:	DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS
DIRCO:	DEPARTMENT OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND COOPERATIONS
DoE:	DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION
DoH:	DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
DoJ&CD:	DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE AND CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT
DSD:	DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT
EU:	European Union
HIV:	HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS
ICD:	INDEPENDENT COMPLAINT DIRECTORATE
ILO:	INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION
INTERPOL:	INTERNATIONAL CRIMINAL POLICE ORGANISATION
IOM:	INTERNATIONAL OFFICE FOR MIGRATION
IPEC:	INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME ON THE ELIMINATION OF CHILD LABOUR
ISS:	INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICES
NCPS:	NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGY
NEET:	NOT IN EMPLOYMENT, EDUCATION OR TRAINING
NGO:	NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATION
NPA:	NATIONAL PROSECUTING AUTHORITY
OECD:	ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC COOPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT
OVCTTAC:	OFFICE FOR VICTIMS OF CRIME TRAINING AND TECHNICAL ASSSITANCE CENTER

PTSD:	POST TRAUMATIC STRESS DISORDER
QLFS:	QUARTERLY LABOUR FORCE SURVEY
SADC:	SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY
SAPS:	SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES
SAHO:	SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY ONLINE
SCVC:	SERVICE CHARTER FOR VICTIMS OF CRIME
SME:	SUBJECT MATTER EXPERT
SSA:	STATISTICS SOUTH AFRICA
STI:	SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTION
TiP:	TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS
TRC:	TRUTH AND RECONCILIATION COMMISSION
UNISA:	UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
UNICEF:	UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN'S FUND
UN.GIFT:	UNITED NATIONS GLOBAL INITIATIVE TO FIGHT HUMAN TRAFFICKING
UNODC:	UNITED NATIONS OFFICE ON DRUGS AND CRIME
VAWC:	VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND CHILDREN
VEP:	VICTIMP EMPOWERMENT PROGRAMME
WEF:	WORLD ECONOMIC FORUM
WHO:	WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
WSV:	WORLD SOCIETY OF VICTIMOLOGY

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Chapter 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Child trafficking is a crime committed against humanity; it is punishable by the law and can be prevented by the law. Child trafficking is a type of crime that occurs when children are abducted and recruited from the streets, their homes or any place where traffickers and pimps prey upon their vulnerability (United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) 2015:np). The vulnerability of children is also escalated by technological advances which facilitate child pornography and sex tourism (UN.GIFT 2015:np). Victims are, by virtue of being children, vulnerable to harmful treatment that leaves them psychologically, emotionally and physically broken which, in turn, has a negative impact on their lives, families, communities and society at large (Warria, Nel & Triegaardt 2015:529). A study conducted by Mollema (2013:19) found that traffickers look for people who are vulnerable for a variety of reasons including economic hardships, natural disasters or political instability.

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) (2009:01), 1.2 million children are trafficked domestically and across borders worldwide for labour, sexual exploitation, drug trades, organ removal and illegal adoption. The trauma caused to these children leaves them with a bleak and hopeless future. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2012:17-19) classifies South Africa (SA) as one of the potential sources, transit areas and also destinations for human trafficking where victims, including children, are used for forced labour and sexual exploitation. Crime syndicates recruit, mobilise and exploit girls between the ages of eight and 16 years for sexual exploitation and boys to be used for forced labour, drug trafficking or farm work without a salary or proper food, while children with disabilities are exploited as beggars (Emser 2015:20). Warria et al (2015:532) indicate that victims of child trafficking are exposed to traumatic and harmful experiences. Victims further suffer the violation of children's rights, physical pain and psychological and emotional trauma. As a result, it is vital for victims to be provided with appropriate aftercare support after

their escape or release from their captors. Safety is crucial and should take priority in the aftercare programmes for child trafficking victims (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) 2006:141).

Warria et al (2015:532) further report that aftercare is crucial because, after release or escape, the severity and range of symptoms exhibited by victims of trafficking require immediate and rapid intervention. Immediate assistance after victims are released includes emergency assessment, medical assistance and the meeting of immediate basic physical as well as psychosocial needs (Warria et al 2015:532). Moreover, Frederick (2005:12) posits that aftercare services should provide safe shelters and homes, physical and mental health care, legal and immigration advocacy and substance abuse services. Frederick (2005:8-12) further states that aftercare support is vital and, to ensure that it is effective and in order to mitigate the trauma experienced by victims, caregivers and the community should be the core of all the elements aftercare support provides. Equally important, aftercare programme administration and regulation should be understood by both care givers and recipients (Frederick 2005:8-12). Due to the emotional brokenness and pain of betrayal, aftercare programmes should be aimed at helping victims regain their emotional strength and reuniting them with their parents, families and communities.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Trafficked children suffer unbearable pain because, while trafficked, they become victims of sexual exploitation, forced labour, drug dependence, street vending and various criminal activities (Molo Songololo 2005:16). They are also denied access to schooling which causes their normal development processes to be distorted. Victims are removed from social support networks, such as their families and communities, and they lose control over their lives. They are ill-treated, assaulted, raped and subjected to inhumane conditions by their captors. Furthermore, they work in dangerous places that put their health at risk and they are deprived of health facilities which escalates their traumatic experience (Aransiola & Zariwoski 2014:519-520).

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, it is evident that aftercare support for victims of child trafficking is pivotal in that it may enable victims to regain ownership of and give them back control over their lives. Moreover, although numerous studies

have been conducted on the subject of human and child trafficking, it was found that little research has been conducted on aftercare support for victims. It is for this reason that the researcher decided to embark on this study, to *explore* aftercare support provided to victims of child trafficking.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The section that follows focuses on the significance, aims and objectives of this research.

1.3.1 Purpose and significance of the study

As indicated before, literature shows that more studies have been done on human and child trafficking in general but not specifically on aftercare support offered to victims, particularly victims of child trafficking. In this way, this study is significant as it focused mainly on the aftercare support provided to victims of child trafficking and thus may contribute to literature on the subject. The affected families of the victims and the community at large may also gain knowledge and information on how to support their children who have been victimised through this type of crime. This research might also encourage other researchers to do further and more in-depth research on the topic of aftercare support for victims of child trafficking. Additionally, government departments¹ together with intergovernmental as well as non-governmental organisations (NGO) may also benefit from the results of this research. Subsequently, through the recommendations of this study, current aftercare programmes being offered to victims of child trafficking may be improved. This study might also motivate an improvement of current policy and legislation where the aftercare of victims of trafficking, particularly children, is concerned.

1.3.2 Objectives of the study

The primary aim of this study was to *explore* the phenomenon of child trafficking where victim aftercare support is concerned. Based on the above-mentioned aim, the objectives of this study were the following:

¹ i.e., the South African Police Service (SAPS); Department of Social Development (DSD); the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA); Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DoJ&CD); Department of Home Affairs (DHA) and the Department of Health (DoH).

- To gain an understanding of the phenomenon of child trafficking;
- To explore the impact the crime of child trafficking has on its victims;
- To explore and gain more in-depth information on aftercare support for victims of child trafficking;
- To evaluate current aftercare programmes offered to victims of child trafficking; and
- To provide recommendations on how to care for victims of child trafficking.

1.3.3 Research questions

Based on the above objectives, research questions were as follows:

- What is the nature and extent of human trafficking in South Africa?
- What impact does child trafficking have on the victim?
- What aftercare support is currently offered to victims of child trafficking in South Africa?
- How effective are the current support programmes being offered to victims of child trafficking?

1.4 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Key concepts used throughout this study are defined in this section.

1.4.1 Child

A child is anyone under the age of 18 years and, in some circumstances, it may be a person who is 18 years or older but under the age of 21 (Department of Social Development (DSD) 2008:12).

For the purpose of this research, a child is any individual younger than 18 years of age.

1.4.2 Human trafficking

Human trafficking is modern-day slavery and a crime against the world's most vulnerable individuals (Mollema 2013:378). The Trafficking in Persons Act 7 of 2013,

hereinafter referred as “TiP”, defines human trafficking as a criminal offence where the recruitment, transportation, delivery and receipt of a person takes place by means of:

- deception
- threat
- use of force
- fraud
- abuse of power
- coercion
- abduction
- position of vulnerability
- giving or receiving of payments or
- benefits to achieve consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery, servitude and the removal of organs (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DoJ and CD) 2013:12).

Child trafficking is defined by DoJ and CD (2013:12) as a crime that is committed when a person adopts, recruits, transports, delivers and/or receives a child for the purpose of the exploitation of the child through child labour, organ trade, domestic servitude and sexual exploitation. Dottridge (2006:13) defines child trafficking as a movement that someone has organised to migrate a child with the immediate or ultimate aim of the child’s exploitation. This could involve a transaction where someone receives payment or a benefit to agree to the exploitation of a child. According to DoJ and CD (2013:12), the definition of child trafficking only includes the act and the purpose, the means does not apply as it does with the definition of adult trafficking because children under 18 years cannot consent.

A victim of child trafficking is defined by Odera and Malinowski (2011:19) as an individual who was moved away from his/her country, community or family through coercion, deception or threat to another country or any location within the same

country with the intention of exploitation.

Based on the preceding definitions, child trafficking is slavery where children are bought and sold as property to be exploited either sexually, through cheap or unpaid labour, street begging, organ harvesting and smuggling of drugs within their country of origin or across borders.

1.4.3 Internal child trafficking

Internal trafficking takes place when children are trafficked within the same country, as they are, for example, moved from a rural area to the city or from one province to another (Dottridge 2006:22). Traffickers make sure that wherever they take the child she/he is in an unfamiliar environment surrounded by strangers which puts the victim in a position of vulnerability and, in turn, makes it easier for him/her to be subjected to abuse (Dottridge 2006:18).

1.4.4 Transnational trafficking

Transnational trafficking, also known as “cross-border” trafficking, takes place when a child is moved from one country to another for the purpose of being exploited (Dottridge 2006:22).

1.4.5 Victim support

Victim support is defined by Nel and Van Wyk (2013:78) as an empathetic assistance that is individual-based which is offered by an individual or an organisation following a victimisation incident.

According to Victim Support (2018:np), aftercare is a concept that is used to describe various services and support offered to crime victims whose rights are violated sexually, psychologically, physically, emotionally and/or socially. The services differ from one institution to another depending on the kind of harm victims have suffered (Victim Support 2018:np). Where child trafficking victims are concerned, aftercare services may include assistance on finding basic necessities such as bathing, accommodation and food, education, health services and legal advice, advice on how to cope and deal with the painful experience encountered and information on agencies that may help with family reunifications (UNODC 2006:142; Odera & Malinowski

2011:29).

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this section, the research methodology and research design, in terms of sampling, data analysis and collection methods, will be discussed. Measures taken to ensure that the study was ethically conducted and ways of ensuring reliability and trustworthiness of research results are also elaborated.

There are different approaches of research methods, namely, qualitative, quantitative and mixed method however the chosen method of research for this study is the qualitative approach which is discussed below.

- **Qualitative research method**

The qualitative research approach is defined by Bachman and Schutt (2014:16) as a method that includes techniques such as participant observation, intensive interviewing and focus group interviews designed to capture social life as participants experience it. This research method is used to describe, understand and answer questions about the complex nature of the phenomenon (Delpont & Fouché 2011:64; Leedy & Ormrod 2013:146). Researchers who apply the qualitative method provide answers to complex questions by starting with general research questions used to collect an extensive amount of verbal data from a number of participants (Delpont & Fouché 2011:64; Leedy & Ormrod 2013:146). The collected data is thereafter organised in ways which provide coherent verbal descriptions to portray the studied phenomenon (Delpont & Fouché 2011:64; Leedy & Ormrod 2013:146). As indicated above, qualitative data is mostly presented in written or spoken words or observations that do not have a numerical interpretation (Bachman & Schutt 2014:16).

This method was deemed suitable for this study mainly because the primary goal of this study was to *explore* and gain in-depth information on the topic at hand. Furthermore, the qualitative research method was appropriate for this study because it provided a greater in-depth evaluation and detailed examination of aftercare support for victims of child trafficking which would not have been possible through numerical analysis. Additionally, Maxfield and Babbie (2005:24) explain that this method depends on human experiences and it creates openness to participants as well as

encourages them to expand on their responses. Dantzker and Hunter (2012:56) also agree that this method focuses on collecting in-depth data through the use of open-ended questions where participants are encouraged to expand on their undertakings and the researcher is given an opportunity to probe for clarity. Qualitative research provides a greater in-depth evaluation of information (Creswell 2014:184).

Furthermore, this research utilised the deductive research approach which is defined by Delpont and De Vos (2011:48) as a deductive reasoning in which a researcher logically moves from general theoretical understanding to abstracting concepts that outline the logical connection between concepts towards concrete empirical evidence. This research approach was evident in the discussions, especially in the foundation of this chapter as well as in the first two literature reviews in Chapters 2 and 3, where groundwork is laid by dealing with human trafficking in general. After this, discussions are narrowed down to child trafficking. In addition, existing theories are also utilised to explain the crime of child trafficking (refer to Chapter 4). Moreover, this study was multi- or inter-disciplinary in that the theories used are derived from disciplines such as economics (i.e. demand theory), politics and economics (i.e. Marxist theory) and sociology (i.e. feminist theories). The reason for embarking on the journey of an interdisciplinary study, where the theoretical framework is concerned, was driven by the fact that child trafficking is a complex phenomenon and thus requires information from various fields of study. Moreover, the available criminological theories were not suitable to meet the primary objectives of the study (i.e. aftercare support for victims of child trafficking). Lifestyle theories, for example, focus on how the victim's lifestyle perpetuates his/her victimisation which, in the context of this study, may have suggested victim blaming. Consequently, the researcher had to explore theories from other fields in order to achieve the main goal of this research.

It is without a doubt that the qualitative research method has its own weaknesses. Firstly, the researcher studies only a few subjects and thus, unlike the quantitative method where large numbers of subjects are studied, results cannot be generalised to the entire population (Creswell 2014:186). Nonetheless, the qualitative method is suitable for this research because it was not the aim of this study to generalise findings, but to explore the phenomenon under question in this context.

Secondly, the presence of the researcher in the process of data gathering is unavoidable, therefore, it can influence or affect the responses of the subjects (Babbie 2007:24). To avoid the researcher's influence on the responses in this study, care was taken to maintain a position of objectivity.

Thirdly, using the qualitative approach requires the researcher to have extensive experience in preventing bias and maintaining objectivity (Babbie 2007:24). To avoid being biased in this study, reflexivity was applied. Reflexivity is defined by Oliver (2010:115) as the explicit recognition of possible influence(s) (i.e. preconceived ideas) on the research process. Reflexivity helped the researcher to acknowledge underlying threats of inaccuracy that would affect the outcome of the research (Oliver 2010:115-116).

Additionally, a process of bracketing was embarked on in order to lessen the negative impact of preconceptions on the research process (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:146). Bracketing takes place when the researcher puts aside his/her beliefs about the phenomenon under investigation (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:146). This means that, throughout the data collection process, any preconceived, personal beliefs, values or personal experiences which may have negatively influenced the research process were acknowledged and then suspended.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is defined as a set of guidelines and instructions that need to be followed by the researcher when addressing a research problem (Creswell 2014:12). The main function of the research design is to provide guidelines on how professional and unbiased research decisions should be made throughout the research study in order to produce accurate results (Creswell 2014:12).

The two types of qualitative research designs applicable to this study are discussed.

1.6.1 Phenomenology

Phenomenological research design is the approach that is used to describe an event or phenomenon with a combination of reading documents, conducting interviews and visiting places. The intention of phenomenological research is to understand the

phenomenon studied in order to give the exact experience as the subjects experienced it (Fouché & Schurink 2011:316-318).

1.6.2 Case study

Case study is a design that is employed to give a deep understanding of events through immersing oneself in the activities of a single subject or a small number of subjects in order to obtain an in-depth intimate familiarity with their social worlds (Fouché & Schurink 2011:320-322).

The three types of case study research designs are as follows:

1.6.2.1 Descriptive case study

This type of case study focuses on one instance or a small number of instances in order to produce detailed descriptions of the cases studied (Fouché & Schurink 2011:320). This type of study strives to describe, analyse and interpret the particular phenomenon (Fouché & Schurink 2011:320). The purpose is not to understand the broad issue but to describe the case that is being studied (Fouché & Schurink 2011:320).

1.6.2.2 Instrumental case study

According to Fouché and Schurink (2011:322), this case study is normally used for explanatory purposes which are aimed at building theories, producing new knowledge and testing them through a detailed investigation. This research design also focuses on generating theoretical insight that is closely grounded to the real experience which may inform new policy development (Fouché & Schurink 2011:322).

1.6.2.3 Multiple case study

Creswell (2014:14) defines multiple case studies as a qualitative design that focuses on an in-depth exploration of more than one situation, event or individual with an aim to collect detailed information on the phenomena being studied. Considering the primary goal of this study, which is to explore the topic at hand and to collect in-depth information on the phenomenon through qualitative research, the multiple case study design was deemed more suitable than the descriptive and instrumental case studies. As a result, the research designs followed in this study were phenomenology and the

multiple case study. This is attributed to the fact that, through the use of phenomenological research, the researcher sought to understand the phenomenon of aftercare support for victims of child trafficking by interviewing experts who deal with victims on a daily/regular basis and allowing them to provide their own personal experiences of the issue at hand. Multiple case studies (i.e. interviewing experts from the different government and inter-governmental departments) allowed for the examination, analysis and comparison of different expert views on dealing with child trafficking victims. The comparison of different cases also assisted in ensuring trustworthiness of the data collected, as discussed later in this chapter under section 1.8.

1.7 SAMPLING

A sample is defined as a group chosen to provide information from within a targeted population considered for actual inclusion in the study (Dantzker & Hunter 2012:52). The sample from that population is taken in order to study and understand the population from which it was drawn (Strydom 2011:223-224).

1.7.1 Sampling design and size

In this section, different types of sampling methods as well as the method that was used in this study are discussed.

1.7.1.1 Probability sampling

Probability sampling, also known as random sampling, is the method in which participants from the targeted population to be studied have an equal probability to represent the whole group and participants are selected based on random procedures (Strydom 2011:228). The sub-types of probability sampling are simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling and panel sampling (Strydom 2011:228).

1.7.1.2 Non probability sampling

In contrast to probability sampling, the non-probability sampling method does not give all members of the population an equal chance of being part of a study (Strydom & Delport 2011:391). The different sub-types of non-probability sampling are theoretical sampling, deviant case sampling, sequential sampling, key informant sampling,

volunteer sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling. The method of choice employed in this study was purposive sampling, also known as judgmental or subjective sampling (Strydom & Delpont 2011:391-392).

1.7.1.2.1 Purposive sampling

This is a type of nonprobability sampling in which the researcher selects the units to be observed on the basis of his/her own judgment of who is best suited for the study in order to achieve its purpose (Maxfield & Babbie 2008:438; Strydom 2011:232). Through the use of purposive sampling, specific participants, who are knowledgeable in the subject of aftercare support offered to victims of child trafficking, were intentionally selected to take part in the study. The sample comprised 30 officials from the following government and inter-governmental departments: DSD (n=17), DHA (n=2), NPA (n=1), DoJ&CD (n=1), SAPS (n=7), IOM (n=1) and UNODC (n=1). The number of participants per organisation was dependent on the availability and willingness of participants to take part in the study. Unlike the quantitative method, where large numbers of subjects are studied in order to generalise results, this study included only 30 participants because the primary aim was to *explore* the phenomenon under question and not to generalise results. The sample size was also determined by data saturation. As a result, the sample size was deemed suitable.

1.7.1.3 Unit of analysis

As already indicated in the previous section, the sample comprised officials (from various South African government and inter-governmental departments) who have knowledge on aftercare of victims of child trafficking.

1.7.1.4 Geographical delineation

The study was based only in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. As a result, all the interviewees were, at the time of the research, based in Gauteng. The reason for choosing to conduct the research in this province was based on the fact that, as an economic hub of South Africa, Gauteng is one of the destinations for victims of human trafficking (refer to section 2.2.1). In addition, Gauteng was chosen as a matter of convenience as the researcher works and resides in Pretoria.

1.7.1.5 Pilot study

A pilot study is defined by Strydom and Delpont (2011:394) as an informal pre-study research conducted by the researcher which gives an opportunity to test the research instrument on a few participants who have the same characteristics as the potential participants who will be involved in the main study. A pilot study proves the feasibility of the study by undertaking a comprehensive and accurate assessment as close as possible to the real situation to be investigated (Strydom & Delpont 2011:395). Strydom and Delpont (2011:395) further indicate that the administration of a pilot study helps the researcher to test certain questions relevant to the study so that he/she is able to modify questions asked during the main interviews, if necessary. Furthermore, the pilot study may assist in estimating time and costs and managing the problems the researcher might encounter when conducting the main investigation.

A pilot study was conducted to determine whether the relevant data would be obtained from the potential participants. The two participants who took part in the pilot study did not form part of the actual study.

1.7.2 Data collection

To collect data, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were utilised. Dantzker and Hunter (2012:59) posit that semi-structured interviews give the researcher an opportunity to collect in-depth data and to go beyond the responses for a broader understanding of the answers given by the subjects. Semi-structured interviews further grant the researcher an opportunity to ask the participants follow-up questions (Dantzker & Hunter 2012:59). Unlike structured quantitative interviews, qualitative interviews are not rigid nor do they follow a particular order of questioning (Creswell 2014:184). This encourages subjects to expand on their responses and opens up opportunities for new topics that were initially not considered by the researcher (Creswell 2014:184). The nature of this data collection method therefore awarded the researcher in this study an opportunity to probe participants as they were asked to elaborate more on their responses. This method additionally permitted both the researcher and the participants to ask questions where clarity was needed to avoid any misunderstandings. Interviews were conducted in English which was the language understood by both the interviewer and interviewees. In addition, interviews took place

at places where both the researcher and the respondents were comfortable (i.e. at the respondent's work place). The interviews commenced after obtaining ethical clearance from the University of South Africa (UNISA) College of Law (CLAW) Ethics Committee (refer to section 1.9). Although the researcher wrote notes during the interviews, in addition, permission was obtained from the respondents to use a voice recording device (see section 1.9). This allowed for a flow in conversation and for the researcher to pay closer attention as there was no need to concentrate on writing everything participants said.

To avoid the researcher's influence on participants' responses, care was taken in this study to do whatever possible to maintain a position of objectivity as previously discussed in section 1.5.

1.7.3 Data analysis and presentation

Data were analysed via a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is defined as a researcher's written report that shows how various themes of a data set work together (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Kelly 2006:323). It includes details of the research process, description of participants, methodological explanation and interpretation of research findings (Bryman 2012:13). Through this method, data are analysed for similar themes and recorded in a manner that interprets research findings (refer to Chapter 5 for findings) (Terre Blanche et al 2006:323). Data were analysed manually through the use of Microsoft Word, where interview schedules were first transcribed and, after having thoroughly worked through the transcripts, similar themes and codes were highlighted with the same colours and then grouped together.

Below are the steps which were followed during the process of data analysis and interpretation as outlined by Terre Blanche et al (2006:323) and Bryman (2012:13):

Step one: Managing data

During this stage, the researcher started transcribing the interviews verbatim.

Step two: Reading and writing memos

Once the transcripts were transcribed verbatim, they were read through several times in order to become familiar with and to allow immersion in the data to get a sense of

the interviews (Terre Blanche et al 2006:323; Bryman 2012:13). After the above was done, the researcher started the process of open coding or writing notes through the use of “track changes”. Short phrases were used to provide summaries of the text in the margin of each transcript. Data were also organised in the form of quotes, descriptions of particular events or experiences from the respondents.

Step three: Inducing themes

During this step, the researcher identified themes from the data. This part of the process, according to Terre Blanche et al (2006:323), is a top-down approach where the researcher uses the developed categories for instances that fit into the categories.

Step four: Coding

According to Bryman (2012:13), one of the important elements of identifying themes is through coding which is defined as a process where data is broken into various components that are given labels. For this study, this process involved noting regularities and commonalities in answers provided by the research participants. Main and repeated responses were sought during this phase. The ideas were then labelled with a single word or phrase.

Step five: Presenting the results

In the final stage, results and findings from the investigation are presented in a discussion form and in relation to the literature review (see Chapter 5). In some instances, verbatim responses are used for the sake of emphasis (refer to Chapter 5). Furthermore, the key findings are summarised in Chapter 6. Recommendations based on literature and the research results from this study are also offered in Chapter 6.

1.8 RELIABILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS OF DATA

Reliability and trustworthiness are the central aspects in all measurements that are aimed at proving truthfulness in qualitative data.

1.8.1 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results based on true and accurate data. Therefore, reliability refers to the stability and dependability of the data whereby if the same questions are repeated under identical

conditions, they must produce the same results (Creswell 2014:201). Reliability, in this research, was ensured in the following ways:

- The interview schedule contained unambiguous questions as only one thought was presented in each question.
- The interviews were conducted by the researcher. This ensured that any questions that could have been potentially misunderstood by the interviewees were clarified.
- Research participants were assured that their responses would be kept confidential. In this way, truthfulness of the information provided was ensured and that, in turn, facilitated reliability.
- The collection of first-hand information from those who are knowledgeable in the phenomenon of aftercare support for victims of child trafficking also advanced reliability.

1.8.2 Trustworthiness

According to Yin (2016:86), trustworthiness, through the establishment of five principles, namely, credibility, dependability, conformability, transferability and authenticity, is a professional way of convincing readers that the study was really conducted.

1.8.2.1 Credibility

Credibility tests the congruency of the research findings with reality (Edmonds & Kennedy 2017:324; Gray 2014:185-186). The following provisions were made by the researcher in this study to facilitate credibility and accuracy of findings:

- The adoption of the qualitative method in this study allowed for an in-depth evaluation of information on the topic at hand from the research participants' perspectives.
- Prior to conducting the empirical research, the researcher familiarised herself with the concept of child trafficking and aftercare support from various literature sources.
- Participants were given opportunities to agree or refuse to participate in the

study as a way of ensuring that participation was voluntarily and that information was offered freely and willingly. In addition, participants were given the interview questions before the interview to enable them to prepare thoroughly. Research participants were further encouraged to be honest in their answers.

- In order to provide detailed and deeper information on the phenomenon, participants were constantly probed. As a way of detecting false statements, the researcher kept returning to matters previously raised by the participants and extracted data through the rephrasing of questions.

1.8.2.2 Dependability

Dependability of a study is similar to reliability (Edmonds & Kennedy 2017:324; Gray 2014:185-186). Dependability of a study is granted from the evaluation and interpretation of the results as well as the recommendations to ensure that they are supported by the data collected from the participants (Edmonds & Kennedy 2017:324; Gray 2014:185-186). In order to ensure dependability in this study, the research methods, research design and data gathering techniques were firstly scrutinised by the study supervisor who thoroughly followed and evaluated both the research and analysis processes to ensure that the findings accurately match the collected data.

1.8.2.3 Confirmability

Confirmability is the degree to which data collection outcomes could be confirmed by other researchers (Edmonds & Kennedy 2017:324; Gray 2014:185-186). The researcher ensured that objectivity in the study was not compromised and that the results can be confirmed by other researchers. The concept of reflexivity, as mentioned in sections 1.5 and 1.6.2, also helped the researcher to acknowledge and scrutinise the underlying possibility of inaccuracy of research findings and was beneficial to the designing of questions (Oliver 2010:115-116). Also, the audit performed by the supervisor, as explained in the previous section, further strengthened confirmability of the results. Lastly, interviewing participants from various departments allowed for triangulation of data which is another way of ensuring confirmability. Triangulation in this study means the collection of data from multiple participants.

1.8.2.4 Transferability

Transferability can also be referred to as external validity (Edmonds & Kennedy 2017:324; Gray 2014:185-186). It is the demonstration that the findings of the conducted study are applicable to other contexts with similar phenomena (Yin 2016:106). It involves a slight claim of what may occur with analytic generalisation, however accepts a degree of generalisation on how similar the findings are with other circumstances (Yin 2016:106). The fact that a qualitative method was used where only 30 participants took part in the study, as previously discussed under section 1.7, means that the findings are not applicable to the entire population. Nevertheless the clear and detailed description of the unit of analysis, strengthened the transferability of results in that, should another researcher use participants of the same calibre (as described in section 1.7) in a different setting, that study may possibly yield similar results and, as explained under section 1.7, results presented in Chapter 5 are detailed and are further supported with verbatim responses.

1.8.2.5 Authenticity

Authenticity refers to the soundness of data sources (Yin 2016:86). In this research, participants were given an opportunity to make presentations of information that is authentic and reliable. Authenticity further presents experiences and meanings of a phenomenon as attached to them by research participants. As explained under section 1.6.1, the research made use of a phenomenological design which allowed for the in-depth collection of data based on experiences and world views of research participants. In this way, the collected data may be said to be authentic.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is often used interchangeably with the concept of morality which encompasses the acceptance of what is right and wrong in society (Kaliski 2006:357). This research was guided by the UNISA 2016 Research Ethics Policy which provides guidelines for research involving human participants. Ethical considerations highlighted in the UNISA policy are basic principles of research; relationship between researchers and participants; informed consent, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality; and collaborative research involving human participants (UNISA 2016 11-17). As a result, the following ethical values were upheld in this study:

1.9.1 Permission to conduct the research

As mentioned under section 1.7.2, before commencing with the study, an application for ethical clearance from the UNISA CLAW Ethics Committee was submitted. After an ethical clearance certificate was obtained from UNISA, further permission to conduct the study with officials dealing with the aftercare of child trafficking was sought from DSD, DHA, NPA, DoJ&CD, SAPS, IOM, and UNODC (refer to section 1.7.1 on sampling). In addition, after getting permission from the above-mentioned organisations, consent was obtained from the research participants as explained in more detail in the following section.

1.9.2 Informed consent

The principle of informed consent is at the heart of research ethics as it ensures that all participation is truly voluntary. The researcher provided sufficient information about the study, which allowed potential participants to decide for or against their participation (also refer to Annexure A – the informed consent form).

As indicated by Bachman and Schutt (2011:63), the consent form covers the following:

- The purpose of the research, procedures followed and estimated amount of time needed;
- The possible risks or discomfort participants might experience;
- A description of any benefits to the participants and to the society that may result from the research;
- Description of procedures used to ensure that participation and responses are kept confidential and identities are kept anonymous;
- Information on how the session will be recorded;
- Information on how the results of the study will be recorded, used or disseminated;
- Information about whom to contact if a participant has questions or concerns about the study;

- A promise that their participation is voluntary;
- An assurance that they are permitted to withdraw from the study at any time; and
- An assurance that, after the data is analysed, their information will be destroyed or kept in a safe place for future use by the researcher.

To attain consent from the participants, the above-mentioned guidelines were used to create an informed consent letter which was signed and dated by both the researcher and the participant and kept by the researcher (see Annexure A). To ensure anonymity of participants, signed forms, together with the hardcopy interview schedules, were stored in a lockable cupboard to which only the researcher has access (see section 1.9.5).

1.9.3 Respect for persons

Participants were treated autonomously and with respect. Bachman and Schutt (2011:56) emphasise that participants must be informed that their participation is voluntary and they should not be coerced into taking part in the research. This was done through obtaining informed consent as previously explained under section 1.9.2.

1.9.4 Beneficence

Beneficence means constantly striving for the best interest of the client (Kaliski 2006:358). Therefore, researchers have an ethical obligation to cause no harm to participants. To ensure that no harm was caused during the interviews, participants were debriefed. This was done through informing participants of the purpose of and methods used in the study. As advised by Bachman and Schutt (2014:59), using this technique reduces the possibility for psychological harm being inflicted on participants during interviews. Care was also taken to guard against making interviewees feel uncomfortable. Conducting interviews in the participants' places of work, as already alluded to in section 1.7.3, was one way of ensuring their comfort. Moreover, in cases where interviewees showed signs of discomfort, the sessions were paused and they were asked if they would like to take a break or discontinue.

1.9.5 Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality means that the collected data (especially participants' personal information) should not be discussed with anyone outside the research (Bachman & Schutt 2011:65). Anonymity compels the researcher not to report research results in a way that will reveal the identity of respondents (Bachman & Schutt 2011:65).

Confidentiality and anonymity of information includes:

- Keeping all information about participants confidential at all costs unless participants have given permission to reveal information.
- Soliciting and recording only personal information that is necessary for the study to achieve its purpose.
- Presenting the findings in a manner in which will not reveal the identity of the participant such as real names and any description.
- Ensuring that questionnaires, interviews, tests and observational recordings do not contain participants' names or identifying information attached to them (Bachman & Schutt 2011:65).

The researcher ensured that the above-mentioned guidelines were followed to ensure that confidentiality and anonymity were maintained. Important to note is that in order to maintain confidentiality further, the completed interview schedules were stored in a locked cupboard to which only the researcher has access. Moreover, the transcribed information was/is kept in a password protected computer. Both the hardcopy and electronic information will be kept for five years after which it will be destroyed. The electronic information will be permanently deleted from the researcher's computer whereas the hardcopy information will be shredded (also refer to ANNEXURE A - consent form).

1.10 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

Below is the organisation of the dissertation:

LITERATURE REVIEW SECTION

The literature review in this study is divided into three chapters, namely, Chapters 2,

3 and 4.

Chapter 2: This chapter gives foundation and outlines literature in terms of human trafficking in general in terms of the history of human trafficking; the nature and extent; the modus operandi used by perpetrators to commit the crime and the impact the crime has on victims. However, within the general discussion of human trafficking, deductive reasoning, as explained in section 1.5, is applied in that the topic is narrowed down to child trafficking.

Chapter 3: This second literature review chapter focuses on discussions around victim empowerment and victim aftercare support. This is further done through investigation of what is legislated in terms of the support victims of child trafficking ought to be offered as well as the support programmes currently being offered in South Africa.

Chapter 4: This chapter deals with theories which underpin the study. Important to note is that a full discussion of this complex phenomenon was above the ambit of criminological theories and thus interdisciplinary theories from fields such as economics, politics and sociology were utilised (refer to section 1.5).

Chapter 5: A brief summary of how data were analysed is discussed in this chapter followed by a thorough analysis and presentation of the findings.

Chapter 6: Presented in this chapter are the summary of the general findings, recommendations, study limitations and concluding remarks.

1.11 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the introduction and gave an overview of the child trafficking phenomenon; the methodology employed in this study as well as the ethics considered when this study was conducted. Based on the fact that the primary goal of this study was to *explore* the topic at hand, the research method chosen to conduct the study was the qualitative approach. In addition, to gain in-depth data based on experiences and viewpoints of the 30 research participants who are experts in the topic, the study used the phenomenological and multiple-case study research designs. To accomplish the research objectives further and to answer the research questions, semi-structured interviews, analysed through thematic analysis, were utilised to collect data.

The next chapter focuses on the first phase of the literature study.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: THE *GENESIS* OF CHILD TRAFFICKING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of this study was to *explore* the phenomenon of child trafficking in terms of aftercare support as defined in the previous chapter, under sub-section 1.3.2. Therefore, to meet the above-mentioned objective and to understand the type of care and support victims require, this chapter focuses on the phenomenon of human and child trafficking by firstly offering a brief history of the crime. Furthermore, it expounds on the stages of human trafficking and the impact the crime has on the victim.

Due to the fact that child trafficking is a sub-type of human trafficking and that more research has been conducted on human trafficking in general as opposed to child trafficking specifically, information on human trafficking will, in most cases, be used as a basis for discussion. Detailed discussions of human trafficking in terms of its process, how networks operate and are organised will be provided. The various methods used to control victims are also provided.

2.2 HISTORY OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Human trafficking is described as modern day slavery which entails the exploitation of victims in a slave-like manner in which they are sold or bought like properties, owned, controlled, treated like animals with limited movement and forced to work with no pay or rest (Segrave 2013:228). According to Quirk (2011:128-129), human trafficking is a form of modern day slavery because people are being abused and exploited by being forced into marriages, prostitution, organ trading and child labour with harsh punishment imposed on the victims for defiance.

In 1652, when colonialism started in South Africa, slavery and the forced labour model was introduced by the Dutch empire where slaves worked on farms, in mines and in domestic servitude without payment (Cornell 2005:3). Slaves were obtained from countries of their birth such as Portugal, Mozambique and Malawi and taken without consent to be enslaved in South Africa (South African History Online (SAHO) 2015:np). Records by SAHO (2015:np) show that slaves were strictly controlled and had limited movement. In terms of Roman-Dutch law, they were severely punished if

they attempted to run away or failed to carry out orders from their “owners”. The “owners” were allowed to use punishment such as whipping, withholding food, being subjected to longer working hours or being put in chains to prevent running away again (SAHO 2015: np).

In 1806, the British government occupied the country and the concept of human rights was introduced which had an effect on the harsh treatment of the slaves (SAHO 2015:np; Cornell 2005:3). In 1807, the British government banned the trade of slaves in all its colonies (SAHO 2015:np). This meant that no slaves from any origin were to be traded in South Africa even though those who were already slaves continued to be enslaved until 1838 when all slaves in the British Empire were emancipated (SAHO 2015:np; Cornell 2005:3).

In 1949, the United Nations Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of others was adopted (UNODC 2018:np). This was the first legally binding instrument to prevent trafficking and sexual exploitation of people worldwide (UNODC 2018:np). However, only a few countries accepted it (UNODC 2018:np). In 2000, the United Nations’ General assembly adopted the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime as the international instrument for fighting transnational organised crime, including human trafficking. These protocols, known as Palermo Protocols, for the first time define and address human trafficking specifically as a crime against humanity including all forms of exploitations (UNODC 2018:np).

The Palermo Convention is supplement by the following protocols:

- The protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children;
- The protocol against the smuggling of migrants by land, sea and air; and
- The protocol against the illicit manufacturing and trafficking in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition (UNODC 2018:np).

The protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, is the global legally binding rule that was accepted worldwide to prevent human trafficking (UNODC 2018:np). This protocol has provisions for the

criminalisation of human trafficking; assistance and protection of trafficked victims; repatriation of victims back to their own countries and reunification with their families; measures of strengthening border controls; methods of lowering the high demand for victims and the exchange of information and training materials as well as measures to investigate, prevent and prosecute human trafficking cases (UNODC 2018:np).

South African human trafficking legislation that is called “The Trafficking in Persons Act of 2013” was drafted in the context of the above-mentioned Palermo Protocols. It was enacted in 2013 and was officially enforced on 9 August 2015 with a maximum penalty of life imprisonment, a R100 million fine, or both, for committing human trafficking (DoJ&CD 2013:1, 20). The first offender to be prosecuted through TiP was convicted in 2014. The trafficker, Mabuza, was found guilty of trafficking five Mozambican girl children as sex slaves (Ferrari & Bloch 2014:np) and sentenced to eight life sentences for human trafficking and rape (Ferrari & Bloch 2014:np).

2.3 NATURE AND EXTEND OF CHILD TRAFFICKING CRIME

Human trafficking is a profitable crime globally. This crime is said to be the third largest source of crime after small weapon trafficking and drug smuggling (Wynn 2012:50). According to Wynn (2012:53), traffickers use human beings as commodities and treat them as slaves with relatively low risks of detection. This type of crime is hidden as some victims who manage to escape are less likely to report this crime therefore data collection and the numbers of trafficked victims are difficult to gather which makes accurate statistics unavailable. Nonetheless, the ILO (2011:10) reports that 102 million children are trafficked domestically and across the border worldwide for forced labour and sexual exploitation, drug trades, organ removal and illegal child adoption.

2.3.1 Adult trafficking versus child trafficking

As defined in the previous chapter, trafficking in persons is an economically driven crime whereby human beings, men and women, adults and children, are recruited, kidnapped or lured, deceived and exploited to generate profit (DoJ&CD 2013:10-12). Victims are exploited in many ways through the use of threats and instillation of fear to ensure that they do not run away even when opportunities to do so arise (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:3). According to Governor and Cutrone (2013:2), traffickers target children because they are easy to recruit, convince, coerce and control. Unlike adults,

children are less suspicious when sold the lavish life (Governor & Cutrone 2013:2). Human trafficking syndicates recruit and kidnap children between the ages of eight and 16 years for sexual exploitation and to be used for forced and unpaid labour in restaurants and households, for drug trafficking or to be used in farm work without salary or proper food, while children living with disabilities in some cases are exploited into begging (SAHO 2015:np). Traffickers make sure that they take the child to an unfamiliar environment, surrounded by strangers which will put the child in a position of vulnerability which, in turn, makes it easier for a child to be subjected to abuse (Dottridge 2006:18). Additionally, traffickers prefer children rather than adults because they are powerless.

2.3.2 Internal trafficking

Children are not only trafficked across border but they can also be trafficked within the country of their origin. Reports on the trafficking of children are often only focused on cross-border trafficking. According to Bello (2015:69-70), internal trafficking is when victims are recruited, moved and transferred from one city to another, mostly from rural to urban areas or from one province to another within the country for the purpose of exploitation as defined under sub-section 1.4.3. Swart (2012:65) believes that the majority of trafficking incidents involve women and children trafficked from villages to cities (in the same country). Through the use of various techniques, children are being trafficked in their own country (Dottridge 2006:28). For instance, a Zulu speaking child can be trafficked from a village in KwaZulu Natal (KZN) to Polokwane in Limpopo where she/he cannot understand the language spoken by the locals. As a result, a child may not receive help due to the language barrier (see section 3.4) and the unfamiliar environment. Swart (2012:65-66) indicates that South Africa's internal trafficking destination points are Gauteng (Pretoria and Johannesburg), North West (Rustenburg), KwaZulu Natal (Durban), Western Cape (Cape Town) and Free State (Bloemfontein). Dottridge (2006:27-28) is of the opinion that, since human trafficking is so routinely connected to cross-border trafficking, there is a great risk that victims of internal trafficking may be overlooked.

2.3.3 Cross-border trafficking

As discussed under point 1.4.4, cross-border victims are recruited, moved and

transferred from their country of origin to another country for the purpose of exploitation (Bello 2015:70). According to Emser (2015:10), cross-border trafficking is increasing because of the growth in the numbers of people moving between different countries. Moreover, human trafficking has become wide spread in African countries because of the fluctuating economic climate, insurgency, political instability, discrimination and poverty which all force people to relocate from their own countries to neighbouring countries (Emser 2015:10) (also see section 2.4 for push and pull factors and demand and Marxism theories in Chapter 4). People migrate from one country to another for opportunities which increases the vulnerability of those who are trafficked (Warria, Nel & Triegaardt 2016:83). Emser (2015:10) adds that forced migration also plays a role in the increase in the vulnerability of men, women and children as victims of human trafficking.

South Africa is Africa's emerging global market; the country is also known as one of Africa's economic powerhouses thus attracting immigrants from other parts of Africa. As one of the most prosperous countries within the Southern African Development Community (SADC), South Africa has become the destination, source and transit country for adult and children victims of trafficking (Warria et al 2016:83; Wynn 2012:51). According to Emser (2015:10-11), most refugees and migrants take a great risk by being smuggled into South Africa because, when they are in the process of getting into the country illegally, they are exposed to traffickers who hold them against their will and exploit them (Emser 2015:10-11). Reports by Swart (2012:64) and Warria et al (2016:83) further indicate that the majority of children who are trafficked into South Africa originate from SADC areas such as Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Malawi and Lesotho. These children are smuggled into South Africa through border posts such as Komatipoort, Musina and Lesotho and their destinations are mostly Johannesburg, Cape Town and farms in Mpumalanga. Research conducted by Swart (2012:64) found that young girls from Swaziland are likely to be trafficked to Barberton in Mpumalanga by illegal miners. ILO and the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO & IPEC 2002:21) point out that, due to massive movements of immigrants from the above-mentioned countries into South Africa for job opportunities, victims sometimes travel without proper travelling documents and thus depend on traffickers to smuggle them into the country. As a result, when they

reach South Africa, they are at the mercy of the perpetrators (ILO & IPEC 2002:21).

2.3.4 Forms of exploitations in child trafficking

Child trafficking is divided into different categories based on the trafficker's purpose for trafficking their target which includes forced labour, sexual exploitation, drug trade, begging and organ trade.

2.3.4.1 Forced labour

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2001:11) reports that close to 250 million children worldwide are working and more than one million of them are potential victims of child trafficking. These children are often trafficked because they are more vulnerable, cheaper to hire and are less likely than adults to demand higher wages or better working conditions (UNICEF 2001:11). According to ILO and IPEC (2002:25-26), these trafficked children engage in hard and hazardous labour in unhealthy and dangerous places where they use dangerous tools and working materials and are forced to carry heavy objects. Traffickers force them to work in degrading conditions that undermine fundamental working principles based on basic human rights (ILO et al 2009:17). It is also against the law for children to be employed before reaching the legal age of being part of the working force (ILO et al 2009:17).

According to Emser (2015:15), the demand for cheap and low-skilled labour also escalates the level of child trafficking for the purpose of child forced labour in which traffickers profit from the victim's unpaid or underpaid labour (also refer to Marxist theory in Chapter 4). Traffickers who prefer child labourers take advantage of the fact that children are more vulnerable, are easy to control and cannot claim their rights (ILO & IPEC 2002:34). Children are also easy to manipulate and can work long hours with little food while living under poor conditions (ILO & IPEC 2002:34).

2.3.4.2 Sexual exploitation

According to UN.GIFT (2015:np), sexual exploitation for commercial purposes, as committed against trafficked children, designates sexual relations, in which victims are under-paid or not paid at all (for their sexual services), as beneficial to the exploiter. Victims are housed and fed by the traffickers and are forced to work in brothels to cater for sexual activities such as prostitution or pornography (UN.GIFT 2015:np). According

to Kane (2013:126), the prostitution of adolescents as an extension of the adult sex industry, accommodates specific clients who are looking for young children. This, in turn, escalates the need for young girls in the sex market (also see demand theory in Chapter 4). Adolescent boys and girls are trafficked for the purpose of the sex clients' preferences in the brothels and other commercial venues (Kane 2013:126). ILO and IPEC (2002:17) indicate that children suffer more pain in the sex trade as they are forced to accept large numbers of clients per day and, unlike adults, are unable to negotiate safe sex with their clients.

Escalating incidents of child trafficking shows that the victims are being sold to and being subjected to engaging in sexual acts with paedophiles (refer to demand and radical feminist theory in Chapter 4). According to Ark of Hope for Children (2016:np), perpetrators who traffic children for sexual exploitation recruit and exploit them to meet the sexual demands of paedophiles. A report by Grillot (2005:6-7) indicates that paedophiles are able to identify brothels where children are trafficked and pimped for sexual exploitation. Research by Hughes (2004:27) indicates that paedophiles enjoy defying the taboo of having sex with children. They engage in sexual intercourse with children in order to:

- reaffirm their manhood;
- prove to others and themselves that their sexual performance is still effective;
- feed the emotional need to dominate the weak;
- use innocent children who are unable to question their sexual performance in order to boost their self-esteem; and
- use children's lack of sexual knowledge and small body sizes for their confidence and pleasure (Hughes 2004:27).

Grillot (2005:12) explains that paedophiles are mostly single and have difficulties socialising with their own age group which is why they prefer children. Grillot (2005:12) adds that paedophiles have difficulty differentiating the wrongness of having sexual intercourse with a child from normal sex between consenting adults. They are unable to control their sexual urge even if they are formally convicted for this act (Grillot 2005:12). Because paedophiles' sexual preferences are seen as immoral by society,

they resort to finding children through pimps (Grillot 2005:12). As such, the demand by paedophiles to have sex with children increases the number of children being exploited in child pornography and prostitution hence traffickers continue to supply more children into the sex markets (Kane 2013:126-127) (see Chapter 4 for demand theory).

2.3.4.3 Drug trade

Children are also trafficked to trade drugs as they cannot be suspected of doing anything illegal. According to ILO et al (2009:18-19), drug lords kidnap children for different kinds of exploitation including drug couriership or dealing. These children are sometimes paid in drugs so that they can be addicted and, as a result, be prevented from running away even if the opportunity may rise (ILO et al 2009:19). Unfortunately, when caught, these children are treated as criminals by law enforcement officers when they should, in fact, be treated as victims in need of legal assistance and protection (ILO et al 2009:30).

2.3.4.4 Begging

Child begging is a violation of basic human rights and protection (ILO et al 2009:29). In most cases, children who beg on the streets do so because of poverty but, in some cases, children beg because they are being coerced into begging (Dottridge 2006:26). According to ILO et al (2009:29), traffickers use children for forced begging with an adult to supervise and keep control of them and the money they make from begging. Bello (2015:74) indicates that victims who fail to meet their target for the day are denied food as a punishment. Children living with disabilities are also exploited in begging and, in some cases, children are mutilated specifically for the purpose of begging (ILO et al 2009:29-30).

2.3.4.5 Organ trade

Trafficking in organs is executed with the purpose of using victims' organs, such as kidneys, blood and liver (UNODC 2015:17-19). According to the International Criminal Police Organisation (INTERPOL) (2010:np), there are three identified categories of this crime type. First, traffickers may force the victim into giving up an organ by threatening him/her. Secondly, there may be cases where victims, motivated by

money, agree to sell their organs. However, the victim, in many instances, is not paid at all or is paid less than what was initially agreed. Lastly, vulnerable patients being treated for ailments may have their organs removed without their consent (INTERPOL 2010:np). This crime is on the increase because, in some countries, waiting lists for transplants are long and criminals have seized this opportunity to exploit desperate patients and potential donors in exchange for money (INTERPOL 2010:np).

2.4 MODUS OPERANDI

In this section, the modus operandi used by perpetrators to organise and commit the crime of trafficking is discussed in terms of the trafficking network and the ways of controlling victims.

2.4.1 Trafficking network

In this sub-section, an in-depth exploration of the trafficking web is done in terms of the duties and responsibilities of members who ensure the smooth running of the trafficking process (ILO & IPEC 2002:31). The trafficking syndicate is discussed in terms of recruiters, agents, contractors, forged document providers, corrupt officials at borders and travel agencies, transporters and employers (ILO & IPEC 2002:31).

2.4.1.1 Recruiter

Cottingham, Nowak, Snyder and Swauger (2013:62) note that the recruiter's duties in the trafficking process are to find and introduce clients into the industry. Victims are mostly recruited through abduction, use of force, coercion or deception as mentioned under subsection 1.4.2 (Cottingham et al 2013:62). UNODC (2015:29) indicates that recruiters are very skilled individuals who are able to convince potential victims by gaining their trust.

2.4.1.2 Agent

Burke (2013:16) posits that an agent, also known as a broker, is the middleman between the recruiter and the employer. The role of an agent is played by anyone, even possibly a government official, who is paid to provide information on how, where and when are the best times to move people across the borders and to also alert transporters where the danger of being caught is foreseen (ILO & IPEC 2002:31). ILO and IPEC (2002:31) add that, in order to facilitate the trafficking process, agents are

also responsible for the identification and bribery of corrupt border guards or immigration officers.

2.4.1.3 Document forger

According to Burke (2013:16) and Cottingham et al (2013:62), the role of forging documents may be played by anyone specialising with cross-border trafficking. The duties and responsibilities of this individual include the creation of false identity documents (i.e. passports and visas), stealing other people's documents or even modifying the actual legal government's identification documents. These are then given to victims for illegal authorisation when crossing borders. UNODC (2011a:10-11) further shows that victims also report that, when going through immigration checks at the borders, officials appeared to have approved illegal migration permits or issued passports/visas where required. As a result, victims are then indebted for favours done for traffickers by the officials and are thus forced to work without being paid until that debt is settled (UNODC 2011a:10-11).

2.4.1.4 The transporter

The transporter is the person responsible for the movement of victims from their place of origin to the trafficker's destination place. Forms of transport used to move the victim, either to the broker or the employer, are mainly boats, taxis, buses, trains, planes or on foot (Burke 2013:16-17).

2.4.1.5 Employer

The employer in the trafficking cycle buys and sells the victims or even exploits the victims (Burke 2013:17). Cottingham et al (2013:17) add that the employer may also provide victims with a home and a work place and give them conditions on how their housing will be paid off. As explained by Burke (2013:17), the employer may sell some of the victims to other traffickers whenever a need arises. ILO and IPEC (2002:31) postulate that, in the case of human trafficking for the purpose of organ trade, government officials, such as police officers, and professional medical staff, including doctors and nurses, may also be involved during the exploitation phase as they will be performing the surgeries. According to Burke (2013:17) and Cottingham et al (2013:62), in cases where victims are trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation,

an employer may also be a pimp. The pimp controls victims either directly or indirectly and profits from the sexual services victims are forced to provide to clients (Burke 2013:17). Burke (2013:17), however, highlights that, although the pimp may seem to be protecting the victims, he/she may also expose them to danger and try to keep them under control by applying physical violence, sexual assault or even give them drugs as they are prostituted.

2.4.1.6 Guard

For the exploitation to be beneficial to the trafficker, victims are guarded at the trafficker's destination place where the guard watches the victims in case they try to escape (ILO & IPEC 2002:31). The guard ensures that victims comply with the trafficker's demands by protecting the trafficking business and making sure that the clients pay for the services (Burke 2013:17). Furthermore, the guard also protects the trafficking business from gangs, watches for police raids and deals with non-paying customers (Cottingham et al 2013:62).

2.4.1.7 Corrupt government officials

UNODC (2011:10) reports that, during the rescue of victims, most reported that some members of the public administration (i.e. government officials) were involved at all stages of trafficking. This indicates that bribery and the abuse of power are part of the trafficking process which, in turn, discourages victims from cooperating with law enforcement (Turek 2013:81). Turek (2013:81) states that victims who frequently witnessed traffickers bribing officials or who were forced to engage in sexual intercourse with government officials as payment to their captors are less likely to trust immigration officials. Therefore, collusion between the perpetrators and corrupt government officials exacerbates the problem of human trafficking (Turek 2013:81). The report by UNODC (2011a:11) further notes that some rescued or escaped victims report that, after their rescue or escape, they faced threats and intimidation from corrupt officials who go to airports, for example, to hold victims against their will, and threaten to hold them captive until their families pay a bribe for their release.

2.4.2 Ways of controlling victims

Bello (2015:71) is of the opinion that traffickers control their victims using intimidations,

force, witchcraft, confiscation of documents, drugs and alcohol, and debt bondage. Furthermore, as discussed under section 2.2, the main aim of trafficking is to exploit victims. The methods used by traffickers to control their victims are discussed below.

2.4.2.1 Juju ritual

According to Baarda (2016:258), the word *juju* (also called voodoo) originates from Nigerian culture and means evil spirits. It is a perverted form of western African witchcraft used to charm and mysteriously confuse people. Traffickers use it to control their victims (Baarda 2016:258) because *juju* is deemed to be an effective coercive tool that facilitates human trafficking as it is used by traffickers to reinforce agreement by victims (SAHO 2015:np). Baarda (2016:259) explains that traffickers manipulate victims to undergo the *juju/voodoo* ritual, which is conducted by a shrine priest. The ritual is believed to build and strengthen a relationship between the trafficker and the victim to make it easy for traffickers to control their victims (Baarda 2016:259). Through this ritual, victims are warned that, if they try to run away, bad luck will follow them and/or their families (SAHO 2015:np). To prevent victims from escaping, they are further warned that *juju* is always watching (SAHO 2015:np). Baarda (2016:np) adds that the use of this ritual is so powerful that some of the rescued victims fail to cooperate with the authorities in fear that, if they break their covenant with *juju*, bad luck will befall them.

2.4.2.2 Isolation from the public

In order to restrict victims' movements, traffickers confiscate their travelling documents (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:11). This robs the victim of their official identity and makes it difficult for victims to seek help especially when they are in a foreign country (Segrave 2013:228). Segrave (2013:228) notes that victims are also not allowed to come into contact with any outsiders but, if they do, they are always monitored by a guard, as discussed in section 2.3.1.6, to ensure that they do not tell outsiders that they have been trafficked.

2.4.2.3 Bribery

UNODC and UN.GIFT (2009:6) report that traffickers may give victims incentive(s) to keep them under their control. Even though the victims are generally underpaid, the

incentive makes them believe that they are benefiting from their exploitation especially if the incentive is able to reach their families for support.

2.4.2.4 Threats and deception

The other method of control that traffickers use is by threatening and deceiving victims. According to UNODC and UN.GIFT (2009:3), during the initial stage of recruitment traffickers do not threaten their victims because they are trying to lure them but deception is used (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:3). However, the threats start to be enforced when victims reach the trafficking destination. In case of cross border trafficking, perpetrators threaten victims that if they try to run away they will have them arrested and imprisoned for violating immigration laws as they do not have travelling papers (Segrave 2013:228; UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:4). Traffickers also threaten their victims that they will hurt their family members if they try to escape or reach out for help (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:4) (also refer to 2.4.2.1 on the *juju* ritual). The threats may not always be directed at the victim but in order to deter the victim from being disobedient or running away, traffickers may tell the victims that other victims who tried escaping were killed because of their disobedience (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:4).

2.4.2.5 Debt bondage

Traffickers exploit their victims' financial status. According to Segrave (2013:228), traffickers normally pay for victims' transportation and tell victims that they must repay the money that was paid for their transportation (refer to section 2.3.1.3) by working until the money is paid in full (Segrave 2013:228). The debt is, in most cases doubled or tripled and in no way relates to actual costs paid by the trafficker (Segrave 2013:228). Traffickers create more costs to ensure the debt gets higher so that they can keep the victim working for longer whilst threatening them that, if they try to escape, they will be penalised by increasing the debt (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:08).

2.4.2.6 Imprisonment

Imprisonment, as a form of control, applies mostly in situations where victims are trafficked to work as prostitutes in brothels, on farms as agricultural labourers or as domestic servants who are not allowed to leave the house or premises in which they

work (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:05). However, when there is a need for the victims to leave the place where they work, they are escorted by a guard (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009 05) (refer to section 2.4.1.6 for roles of a guard). When children are trafficked for the purpose of begging on the streets, for example, they are always under the watchful eye of someone who was appointed by the trafficker (UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:05) (see section 2.4.1.6).

2.4.2.7 Drugs

Drug dependence is one of the methods traffickers use to control their victims. Traffickers forcefully give victims drugs until they eventually get addicted in order to keep them obedient (ILO et al 2009:34). When victims are dependent on drugs, it is then easy for traffickers to exploit them as they depend on their captor to supply them with drugs (ILO et al 2009:34).

2.5 CAUSES OF CHILD TRAFFICKING

There are various factors that contribute to child trafficking which differ according to the purpose of the trafficking. The push and pull factors that facilitate this crime are discussed below.

2.5.1 Push factors

The discussion that follows focuses on factors that facilitate vulnerability and supply for child trafficking.

2.5.1.1 Poverty

According to Molo Songololo (2005:18), poverty is one of the main causes of child trafficking. Most parents and children from disadvantaged backgrounds long to get out of the life of poverty they find themselves in. This serves as bait for traffickers to lie, lure and promise them a better life and stability (Odera & Malinowski 2011:27). Furthermore, poor families pressurise their children into providing financially for the family which, in turn, puts the children at a risk of being trafficked (Odera & Malinowski 2011:27) (also refer to Chapter 4 for the demand and Marxist theories). Poverty is therefore the reason why there are many children on the streets fending for themselves and thus becoming easy victims of trafficking (Molo Songololo 2005:18).

2.5.1.2 Lack of awareness

According to ILO and IPEC (2002:25), children who have no education are likely to look for jobs at a very early age which increases their vulnerability to exploitation (see Marxist theory in Chapter 4). Their lack of education deprives them of vocational training which denies them opportunities to be absorbed by the formal economy due to their educational limitations (ILO & IPEC 2002:25). The lack of finance increases their chances of being enticed by traffickers with easy money and a better lifestyle (ILO & IPEC 2002:25).

INTERPOL (2010:np) further indicates that children with limited knowledge of human trafficking are more prone to child trafficking than those who are aware of it and will therefore be cautious. Many child trafficking victims are teenagers who want to migrate from rural areas to big cities such as Johannesburg and Cape Town or they may be from disadvantaged countries, such as Zimbabwe, and want to move to established and stable countries to provide unskilled labour thereby getting better working conditions and more money (Molo Songololo 2005:19).

2.5.1.3 Corruption of law enforcement

As reported by UNODC (2011b:6-7), corrupt police, border control officials and immigration services facilitate the crime of child trafficking (also refer to sub-section 2.4.1.7). UNODC (2011b:6-7) further explains that law enforcement and immigration officials are bribed by traffickers to overlook their trafficking activities such as creating/presenting false identity (ID) books and passports (see sub-section 2.4.1.7). Corrupt border officials take bribes from traffickers to allow them to cross the borders with children who do not have the required identity documents and permission to travel (UNODC 2011b:7).

2.5.2 Pull factors

These are the factors that create a demand for the trafficking industry, which causes more children to be trafficked and exploited.

2.5.2.1 Low-skilled and cheap labour demand

According to ILO and IPEC (2002:23), the high demand for cheap labour and low-skilled services are some of the key drivers of this tragic crime in which traffickers prey

on millions of children (see section 4.2). Initially, victims are promised well-paying jobs in agriculture, domestic service, restaurants and the sex industry not knowing that they will be exploited and trapped into unpaid or underpaid work (ILO & IPEC 2002:23). As indicated under subsection 2.4.1.1, children very often fall prey to this crime on their own or through family efforts to find employment to give them a better life.

2.5.2.2 Migration

Political instability, civil unrest and a depressed economic climate contribute to people migrating from countries such as Zimbabwe to stable countries such as South Africa. This is seen as an opportunity for traffickers to attract the most vulnerable (Centre for Global Impact (CGI) 2017:np) (also refer to point 2.3). The desperation of people to migrate to South Africa puts them and their children at risk of being trafficked and exploited in forced labour while being treated inhumanely by their captors (CGI 2017:np).

2.5.2.3 Demand for sex with children

As indicated under sections 4.2 and 4.3.3.2, paedophiles' sexual interests are judged by the society as immoral therefore paedophiles opt for places where sex with children is accessible (Grillot 2005:12). In as much as tourism is good for the economic growth of any country, sex tourism and child pornography have also become fast growing industries facilitated by technology for paedophiles (SAHO 2015:np). Opportunities are provided for paedophile tourists who are likely to be drawn to destinations where the websites advertising the sex industry depict that sex with children can be easily bought (ILO & IPEC 2002:24). This perpetuates the need to supply the high demand for sex with children (see section 4.2).

2.6 IMPACT OF CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS

The crime of trafficking violates children's rights and impacts its victims physically, psychologically, socially and also has negative effects on the community as already mentioned in section 1.1. The focus of this section is on the negative impacts the crime of child trafficking has on the victims.

2.6.1 Violation of rights

Emser (2015:8) explains that child trafficking, especially for the purpose of sexual

exploitation, is a serious problem. Children who are trafficked for sexual exploitation suffer extreme violations of their human rights such as the right to liberty and dignity, the right to be free from violence, the right to health care (ILO et al 2009:16), to remain with their family and to be protected from sexual violence and other forms of violence (Odera & Malinowski 2011:27; Aransiola & Zariwoski 2014:519). Aransiola and Zariwoski (2014:519) report that trafficked children are denied access to schooling and therefore their normal development processes are distorted. They are also removed from social support networks such as their families and communities (ILO et al 2009:16). Trafficked children do not have control over their lives or their labour (ILO et al 2009:17-18) and are ill-treated and subjected to inhumane conditions by their captors (Aransiola & Zariwoski 2014:519). As already explained under section 1.2, victims end up working in dangerous places that put their health at risk, they are deprived of health facilities and are also not able to go to school and thus lose the opportunity to improve their lives in the future (Odera & Malinowski 2011:27-29). Aransiola and Zariwoski (2014:520) further report that most trafficked victims suffer from physical injuries, depression and post-traumatic stress disorder leading to psychiatric problems while rescued victims are often found to be HIV positive (Aransiola & Zariwoski 2014:520).

2.6.2 Physical impact

According to ILO et al (2009:35), the working conditions of trafficked children are dangerous. They are denied access to doctors and health workers because traffickers are afraid they will be reported to authorities (ILO et al 2009:35). Children who fall ill are abandoned by their exploiters and, if they are lucky, they are found by strangers who are willing to help (ILO et al 2009:35). Furthermore, Bello (2015:77-78) explains that victims may be raped and tortured by their traffickers, given multiple clients to simultaneously have sex with or even forced to have sex with dogs as a way of punishing them for not complying.

Physical abuse may include:

- Beatings
- Rape

- Withholding food and starvation
- Forced use of alcohol or usage of drugs
- Assault (Office for Victims of Crime Training and Technical Assistance Center) (OVCTTAC) 2012:6; ILO et al 2009:20).

In some cases, this exploitation may result in serious illness, permanent injury or death (Dottridge 2006:18). OVCTTAC (2012:3) further discovered that victims' health needs surface at multiple stages as they recover, and can be chronic or present for extended periods of time. Victims may thus suffer from:

- Unhealthy weight loss due to lack of food and poor nutrition.
- Chronic pain.
- Infectious disease such as Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs).
- Illnesses resulting from poor sanitation.
- Respiratory disease such as TB.
- Injuries due to exposure to dangerous animals (OVCTTAC 2012:3; Dottridge 2006:18).

2.6.3 Psychological and emotional impact

According to OVCTTAC (2012:5), trafficked victims often suffer from the effects of emotional and psychological trauma. These effects differ depending on the type of trafficking and how victims experience the treatment (OVCTTAC 2012:5). Victims are usually exploited by people they are familiar with, such as neighbours, relatives, friends or lovers, who have trusting relationships with the victim so that they can gain control over them (ILO et al 2009:27). ILO et al (2009:35) notes that, in order to gain control over victims, traffickers instil fear in them through threats that, if they try to escape, their families will be harmed (OVCTTAC 2012:5). This is one of the manipulative psychological tools used by perpetrators on their victims (OVCTTAC 2012:5) (also see section 2.4.2.4). Therefore, victims experience psychological effects such as:

- Anxiety
- Persistent fear of being alone
- Restlessness and sleeplessness
- Nightmares
- Hopelessness (OVCTTAC 2012:6).

2.6.4 Social Impact

According to Bello (2015:77), the crime of human trafficking causes social structures to break down because children are socially disconnected from their families, parents and communities. This crime destroys the morals the parents instilled in their children as the traffickers may force them to do what they were taught by their parents to be wrong (Bello 2015:77). As a result, when they are reunited with their families, it may be very difficult to restore the norms and values taught by their parents (Bello 2015:77). OVCTTAC (2012:3) adds that victims of trafficking may also experience stigmatisation from the society or self-stigmatisation which can greatly affect their relationships with the community and their neighbours. Due to shame, victims experience regression and difficulty in forming relationships as it may be challenging for victims to re-engage with the public (OVCTTAC 2012:10).

2.6.5 Community impact

ILO and IPEC (2002:39) show that human trafficking does not only have tragic consequences for the victims but its negative effects extend to their communities. The drugs given to victims may result in long term drug dependency, broken families as well as depriving the child victim of education (ILO & IPEC 2002:39).

Due to corruption by government administrators and officials from other agencies, as previously discussed, public confidence in these institutions decreases (ILO et al 2009:36). ILO and IPEC (2002:39) stress that the failure to eradicate human trafficking causes fear in families which might limit the potential growth of the community and may impact children negatively as the victims cannot attend school (ILO & IPEC 2002:29). Bello (2015:77) posits that victims' inability to access schooling has negative impacts which may cripple the nation's future. Victims' ambitions and dreams are, due

to denial of schooling, also destroyed (Bello 2015:77). Due to the lack of education, children turn to criminal behaviour which perpetuates the cycle of violence. Additionally, parents may also fear their children travelling across borders for good work or career opportunities and thus these young people may stand a chance of missing great life opportunities because of the fear of being trafficked (ILO & IPEC 2002:29). The family's loss of a trafficked child has long-term effects which may lead family members to feeling guilty especially if the child was forced by the family to look for a job (ILO & IPEC 2002:29).

The preceding section highlights the harm and loss experienced by victims of child trafficking on various levels which include the physical, psychosocial and social. It is therefore against this backdrop that this study is needed. Child trafficking has dire negative effects, not only on the primary victim but also on secondary victims such as family members and communities. As such, a society cannot function optimally when such atrocities are committed against those who hold its future. Consequently, adequate aftercare support which aims at enabling and empowering victims of child trafficking to regain control over every aspect of their lives cannot be emphasised enough.

2.7 SUMMARY

In this literature review chapter, the foundation is laid by discussing the history of human trafficking, the nature and extent of child trafficking and by explaining the various purposes for which victims are trafficked. As explained, children are preferred by traffickers due to their helplessness and vulnerability which makes them easier to control (UNICEF 2006:14).

Child trafficking is an organised crime which can take place within or across borders as the traffickers instil fear in their victims through the use of mysticism such as *juju*. What is of major concern is the collusion between law enforcement officers and perpetrators. These individuals are supposed to be respected members of the society who should use their powers to protect vulnerable members of the community from being violated. Discussed in-depth is the modus operandi, causes of trafficking and the various negative effects the crime of trafficking has on the child, the family and the community. As witnessed, all of the afore-mentioned factors necessitate appropriate

and effective aftercare support for victims.

The main objective met through this chapter was to understand the impact the crime of child trafficking has on the victim. The next chapter is a continuation of the literature review section in that it makes an enquiry into the phenomenon of victim empowerment and explores the various aftercare support programmes currently being offered in South Africa to victims of child trafficking.

Chapter 3

VICTIM EMPOWERMENT AND AFTERCARE SUPPORT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the historical background of victimology; victim empowerment; the needs and rights of the victims and human trafficking related legislations. Furthermore, the guidelines from the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (the Palermo Convention), aftercare programmes offered to victims of human and child trafficking and benefits of the aftercare support are discussed. This literature review chapter sheds light on the third research question (i.e., what aftercare support is currently offered to victims of child trafficking in South Africa?) (refer to section 1.3.3).

3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF VICTIMOLOGY

Victimology is described as a relatively young discipline in the scientific study of crime (Snyman 2005:4; Peacock 2013:6). Karmen (2013:2) defines victimology as a discipline which focuses on investigating the pain experienced by the victim of crime. Karmen (2013:2) articulates victimology as a study that enquires about public, political, economic and social reactions to the criminal experience encountered by crime victims. Karmen (2013:2) explains that, in order to monitor secondary victimisation, victimology also focuses on how victims are treated by government officials and various agencies within the criminal justice system, such as the police, prosecutors, judges and probation officers, during criminal justice proceedings. As such, victimologists seek to understand the degree to which victims suffer physical, economic and emotional suffering while devising various ways of assisting victims to recover (Karmen 2013:2).

Victimology was first acknowledged in 1951 BC when the code of King Hammurabi was adopted (SAHO 2015:np). The code of Hammurabi was originated from the Law of Moses and Roman law which held individuals responsible for the harm they caused others (SAHO 2015:np). While the principles of restitution and retribution were used as deterrents for recurring criminal behaviour (Doerner & Lab 2012:2), the code of Hammurabi highlighted the importance of recognising victims of crime and their rights

in the Criminal Justice System (CJS) (Peacock 2013:4; Kirchhoff 2010:99). King Hammurabi regarded himself as the shepherd of the oppressed and less fortunate people; he believed that strong people should not take advantage of the weak and if an offender hurts a victim and runs away, then the authorities must take responsibility for compensating the victim (Peacock 2013:4; Kirchhoff 2010:99).

Through the ages, victims were compensated through retribution and restitution. This deterrence of criminal behaviour existed until the Middle ages but fell out of favour and was eventually discarded (Doerner & Lab 2012:2). Until the 20th century, attention was paid solely to people violating the law, who they were, how they were handled by the CJS and whether they should be incarcerated or rehabilitated (Karmen 2013:15-16). Through the process of trying to understand offenders and offending behaviour, criminologists searched for solutions without paying any attention to the impact the offending behaviour had on crime victims or the role of the victim in the criminal justice process (Karmen 2013:15-16). During the late 1950s and early 1960s, the focus on abused women and children brought the concept of victimisation to the fore (Peacock 2013:4). In 1979, the World Society of Victimology (WSV) was founded (CGI 2017:np) and initiated a victimology channel of communication worldwide with the purpose of advancing victimological research and practices as well as to engage with those who are interested in victim assistance (CGI 2017:np).

Snyman (2005:6) indicates that, along with South Africa's political change from apartheid to democracy in 1994, there was an awareness of victimology, particularly the empowerment of previously disadvantaged people. This was done to correct the wrong of the past where victimology was, in South Africa, politicised and the apartheid government provided support and compensation to white people only (Snyman 2005:6).

The South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC), established in 1995, attracted attention worldwide (CGI 2017:np; Snyman 2005:6). To date, the TRC is still a major milestone and shows a powerful development of victimology in South Africa (CGI 2017:np; Snyman 2005:6). After the development of the TRC, South Africa established victim empowerment initiatives focusing on women, children and tortured victims (Snyman 2005:6). Furthermore, a South African policy document known as the

National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) which has a direct impact on victim empowerment was officially launched in April 1996.

3.3 THE NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGY (NCPS)

As explained by Rauch (2002:np), “The initiative to develop a National Crime Prevention Strategy began [on 17] February 1995 [in Cape Town] as a response to President Mandela's address at opening of Parliament, which raised concerns about crime.” The former President Nelson Mandela cautioned that:

The situation cannot be tolerated in which our country continues to be engulfed by the crime wave which includes murder, crimes against women and children, drug trafficking, armed robbery, fraud and theft. We must take the war to the criminals and no longer allow the situation in which we are mere sitting ducks of those in our society who, for whatever reason, are bent to engage in criminal and anti-social activities. Instructions have therefore already gone out to the Minister of Safety and Security, the National Commissioner of the Police Service and the security organs as a whole to take all necessary measures to bring down the levels of crime (Rauch 2002:np)

In response to the plea from President Mandela, an inter-departmental strategy team came together in May 1995 to initiate the drafting of the NCPS (Rauch 2002:np; Snyman 2005:6).

Some of the key concepts introduced through the NCPS are:

- South Africa cannot solely depend on law enforcement and criminal justice as the only responses for crime prevention;
- In order for the CJS to operate optimally, there has to be an integration of and better coordination between the various departments which constitute the system.
- Crime should not be dealt with by the government alone. Various government departments in all three tiers (local, provincial and national) must work with each other as well as with the civil society in order to overcome the scourge of crime

in South Africa.

- Crime prevention strategies can only be effective if different crimes are 'dis-aggregated'.
- Efforts to prevent crime must be focused on victims and potential victims of crime and not solely on offenders, as done previously.
- When devising prevention strategies, both the fear of crime and real crime patterns need to be taken into consideration. Consequently, the NCPS will be successfully reducing both the fear of crime as well as the crime itself (Rauch 2002:np).

According to DSD et al ([sa]:4-6) the following are the aims of the NCPS:

- To ensure a source of support as well as discourage the victims from committing crime in the name of revenge;
- To assist the CJS to reach out to the women, children and victims in general;
- Lessen unnecessary delays in the CJS process and empower the victims;
- Support the criminal justice officials to be sensitive to victims' needs and reduce secondary victimisation;
- Provide remedial interventions in cases where victims have already been secondarily victimised by the CJS.

According to DSD et al ([sa]:5-6), the NCPS guideline must have a regulatory framework which will promote and uphold the rights of victims of crime in order to prevent re-victimisation (DSD et al [sa]:5-6). The NCPS guideline prevents re-victimisation within the CJS and other involved stakeholders by promoting the rights of victims of crime and ensuring that their rights are respected (DSD et al [sa]:5-6). It aims at addressing the various needs of the victims, including trafficked victims, by establishing partnerships and guiding policies within the victim empowerment sector to ensure that the victims avoid re-victimisation and that the needs of the victims that are discussed under sub-section 3.4.3 are addressed and met by the government (DSD et al [sa]:5-6).

The NCPS (2018:np) is based on four pillars, namely:

Pillar 1: The primary aim of the Criminal Justice Process is to make the criminal justice process more efficient and effective.

This pillar seeks to provide clear deterrent strategies for criminal activities and to reduce the likelihood of repeat offending. It speaks directly to the primary aim of this research (i.e. empowerment and aftercare of victims of child trafficking) as it focuses on redesigning the CJS as a whole including making sure that victims are made part of the system. The key aims of programmes in this pillar are

- to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the CJS as a deterrent to crime and as a source of relief and support to victims;
- to improve the access of disempowered groups to the criminal justice process. These include women, children and victims in general;
- to focus the resources of the CJS on priority crimes;
- to forge inter-departmental integration of policy and management in the interests of coordinated planning, coherent action and the effective use of resources;
- to improve the service delivered by the criminal justice process to victims through increasing accessibility to victims and being sensitive to their needs (South African Government 2018:np).

To attain the above-mentioned goals, eight key programmes were identified. However, for the sake of this study only programme nine, Victim Empowerment Programme (VEP), which is directly related to the primary focus of this study, will be discussed (see section 3.3.1).

Pillar 2: Reducing Crime through Environmental Design.

The main focus of this strategy is to design crime prevention measures in ways that decrease opportunities to commit crime and increase detection and identification of offenders (South African Government 2018:np).

Pillar 3: Public Values and Education

This focuses on developing initiatives that change the way in which the public reacts

to crime (South African Government 2018:np). As explained by the South African Government (2018:np), programmes under this pillar include public education and dissemination of information in order to facilitate meaningful community engagement in the prevention of crime (South African Government 2018:np). These are programmes, including human trafficking awareness campaigns, whereby citizens are taught what human trafficking entails, how the traffickers recruit victims and the preventive measures to be applied in order to reduce the number of trafficked victims.

Pillar 4: Transnational Crime

This includes the development of programmes aimed at preventing cross border trafficking related crimes (i.e. child trafficking in the case of this study) by improving border control and “reducing the refuge which the region offers for offenders in international criminal syndicates” (South African Government 2018:np). This pillar is also directly connected to this study in that it primarily focuses on the development of strategies aimed at the prevention of transnational crime, of which child trafficking is a part.

3.3.1 The Victim Empowerment Programme (VEP)

Victim empowerment strategy document (under Pillar 1 of the NCPS as discussed above) aims are to:

- Oversee and coordinate effective VEPs at all government structures;
- Give clarity on roles and responsibilities of each government structure as far as victim empowerment is concerned;
- Give guidance to government structures on the process of monitoring, evaluating and reporting as well as serving as a framework for government policies and strategies on implementation of the policy; and
- Assist with common understanding of victim empowerment between government structures and NGOs (DSD et al [sa]:3-4).

This programme recognises the role and rights of victims as crucial factors when discussing the effects of crime and the creation of communities that have a zero-tolerance attitude towards crime (South African Government 2018:np). The South African

Government (2018:np) further explains that the aim of this programme is to make the criminal justice process more victim-friendly and to also minimise the negative impact crime has on the victim. Through this programme, victims are empowered by giving them a greater role in the criminal justice process. This programme further seeks to ensure that victims are protected against secondary and repeat victimisation (South African Government 2018:np).

Following the NCPS, as discussed in the previous section, the aim of the VEP is to demonstrate how victims of crime can be empowered (DSD, UNODC & European Union (EU) [sa]:13; Snyman 2005:6). As previously defined, victim empowerment is an approach that assists victims of crime to take control and ownership of their lives. The various government departments responsible for the administration of VEP services are:

- The Department of Health
- The Department of Correctional Services
- The Department of Social Development
- South African Police Service
- Department of Justice and Constitutional Development
- Traditional leaders
- The National Prosecution Authority
- The Department of Education
- National Civil Society Organisations (CSOs)
- The Business Sectors
- Higher learning and research institutions
- Faith-based organisations
- Provincial VEP forums (Snyman 2005:6).

The above-mentioned departments should be involved, locally, provincially and nationally, to ensure that the objectives of the VEP, as detailed in the next section, are

fulfilled (DSD et al [sa]:13).

3.3.1.1 Objectives of VEP

Chapter 2 mentioned that victim empowerment is crucial to victims of child trafficking as it forms an effective part of the healing process. According to Snyman (2005:11), the lack of victim support to individuals whose rights are violated has a crucial influence on the cycle of violence in South Africa.

Objectives of victim support and empowerment are thus to:

- provide emotional support to victims by offering immediate psychological counselling to victims who suffered trauma;
- identify signs of post-traumatic stress in order to refer victims for professional counselling;
- provide information related to victims' rights and how courts function in order to minimise secondary victimisation;
- provide individual guidance on how to avoid re-victimisation and raise awareness of the public about the risk of crime (Pretorius & Louw 2005:77; Nel & Van Wyk 2013:79; DSD et al [sa]:3-4).

3.3.1.2 Benefits of victim empowerment

The benefits of victim empowerment are as follows:

- Reduction of long or short term post-traumatic stress disorder;
- Minimisation of poor concentration and assistance of victims to prevent social withdrawal;
- Facilitation of victims' recovery progress by ensuring that victims' feelings of depression and shame are identified and treated;
- Assisting victims to recognise and report the physical signs and symptoms such as headaches, diarrhoea and stomach ache which may have been caused by the crime experience they encountered (Nel & Van Wyk 2013:79).

The elements which victim empowerment focuses on are:

- Emotional support;
- Practical support;
- Providing information;
- Referral to professional support services (SAPS 2018:5).

DSD et al ([sa]:10-12) emphasise that victims of crime should be treated without discrimination. Even though the allocation of services may differ, based on the type of crime committed and the specific needs of the victim as discussed under section 3.4.3, all victims must be treated in a similar manner regardless of their nationality, age, gender and race or socio-economic status. Section 3.4 mentions that it is difficult to identify victims of child trafficking and that it is law enforcement officers who normally make identifications since they are the first line of contact. Victims must be given the best care possible but, in cases of child victims, attention must be paid to the two elements of child trafficking which are recruitment and exploitation as mentioned under point 1.4.2.

3.3.2 The significance of victim empowerment

According to Nel and Van Wyk (2013:78-79), human trafficking victims need empowerment in order to take back their lives and can achieve that with emotional and information support as well as advocacy. Therefore, the benefits of the above-mentioned programmes and services to the victims of human trafficking are:

- Provision of emotional support and legal assistance after the victims have been rescued or have escaped that will assist in the reduction of negative after-effects such as the shock and trauma they experienced during exploitation. Children will also be assisted to bond with their families.
- Early identification of post-traumatic stress disorder will facilitate immediate referral of victims to professional counselling in order to reduce social withdrawal, flash backs and depression.
- Both victims and/or their guardians will be updated on the status of the investigation of the case, functioning of the court system and rights of the victims as well as ensuring that the Children's Act is upheld to prevent victims

from experiencing secondary victimisation by the CJS.

- Victims will be given guidance by the service providers on how to protect themselves and prevent re-trafficking while awareness of the public is also raised to the dangers of human trafficking (Nel & Van Wyk 2013:78-79).

According to DoJ and CD (2013:35), any accredited organisation that cares for child trafficking victims must:

- provide a safe environment for the victims;
- provide efficient physical and psychological care for the victims;
- refer victims for professional counselling whenever the victims show signs of post-traumatic stress;
- ensure that the accommodation is child friendly and anything that seems harmful to the children is stored safely out of reach.

The main foci of this section are the objectives and benefits of victim empowerment. It is against this background that victim empowerment programmes, as explained by participants in Chapter 5, were assessed by evaluating whether the programmes, in their current state, meet the objectives of both the NCPS and VEP as highlighted above.

3.4 VICTIM IDENTIFICATION

Providing aftercare support to human trafficking victims is very crucial but unless victims have escaped or have been rescued, they will not be able to receive the support as stipulated in the NCPS and VEP discussed above. Travis and Sharshenkulov (2013:251) explain that victim identification can be a challenge as government frontlines, such as law enforcement and health care providers, are not trained and capacitated to identify and recognise human trafficking victims they come across.

3.4.1 Health caregivers

As mentioned under sub-section 2.6.2, human trafficking victims who become hurt and injured are not sent to hospital since traffickers are afraid of incidents being traced

back to them and reported to authorities (ILO et al 2009:35). However, if victims' health conditions worsen, they are accompanied to hospital and, due to language barriers, traffickers may speak for their victims; refuse to leave the consultation room or threaten victims to keep them quiet, as mentioned in section 3.4. (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:250-251).

Travis and Sharshenkulov (2013:251) further stipulate that, with language being the barrier to the identification of human trafficking, there may be limited interaction with the medical staff. Victims' feelings of shame and guilt also prevent a victim from being identified but, when a victim of human trafficking is hospitalised, there may be signs, such as septic wounds which the medical staff may use to identify the victim (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:251). The more septic and contagious the wound on the victim, the more concerned the health caregivers should be about the patient being a possible victim of human trafficking (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:251). Other warnings the medical staff should note are signs of violence such as bruises, cuts and scratches on the victim's genital areas (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:251). Warria et al (2015:319) indicate that generally the signs of child trafficking victims are similar to victims of child abuse but the social harm of the former is worsened by the unfamiliar place, people, culture, language, the inability to play with peers and the absence of schooling (Warria et al 2015:319-320). Health workers are further cautioned be observant when medical history is being obtained from the patient because the victim may be hostile, lie about his/her circumstances and the trafficker due to fear (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:251; UNODC & UN.GIFT 2009:04). Travis and Sharshenkulov (2013:251) stress that health caregivers must insist that the suspected victim of trafficking produce an identification card which most victims of child trafficking may not have. Because human trafficking victims live in constant fear instilled by their traffickers, they have trust issues which may be a barrier between them and the health caregivers (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7). Therefore, health caregivers must be patient when dealing with patients suspected to be victims of child trafficking (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:251-252). Travis and Sharshenkulov (2013:252) further indicate that, when health workers suspect that the patient may be a human trafficking victim, they should insist on speaking with the patient alone in private. When questioning the victim, they should start with indirect questions and, when the patient starts to be comfortable, they can

ask more direct questions. In cases where language is a barrier, they should request an official interpreter (as discussed in detail under section 3.5.1.1) who speaks the patient's language, who is not known to the victim and who understands the principle of confidentiality (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:252-253).

3.4.2 Law enforcement

Due to the fear instilled in victims by traffickers, victims are more likely to believe the perpetrators than law enforcement officers (Warria et al 2015:391). Therefore, law enforcement officials should be able to identify the victims despite the victims' loyalty to their captors (Warria et al 2015:391).

Listed below are signs that law enforcement officers should look out for during raids of brothels, clubs and places where child prostitution and labour is reported:

- Signs of physical harm, threat, psychological abuse or intimidation;
- Whether the individual's movement is monitored, restricted or limited;
- An indication by the individual that he/she is indebted to pay for food, accommodation and transport expenses;
- Possession of false documents;
- Indication from the victim that he/she was threatened with being reported to the police for not having legitimate travelling documents;
- Hints from the victim that he/she was promised false opportunities by a boyfriend, such a well-paying job or marriage;
- Whether they were recruited through agents or social media;
- Any signs that the victim is unfamiliar with the country;
- Whether the victim was forced to provide sexual services, raped, abducted or kidnapped; and
- If the victim had an opportunity to run away but failed to use that opportunity (Drew 2009:159-160).

Research by Governor and Cutrone (2013:8) shows that, in as far as victim identification is concerned, victims of sex trafficking are less likely to be recognised as

victims by law enforcement and service providers but rather as criminals who voluntarily immigrated illegally into the country. To make the identification process even more difficult, when traffickers threaten victims, they also tell them to lie about their real names, age and illegal status in the country in cases of cross border trafficking (Governor & Cutrone 2013:8). Nonetheless, when officers suspect the victim is under the age of 18, they must contact the DSD immediately and request social workers who deal with human trafficking victims to verify their suspicions (DoJ&CD 2013:26).

Travis and Sharshenkulov (2013:253) conclude by stressing that, with the spread of human trafficking globally, it is highly possible that health workers encounter human trafficking victims daily. In addition, police officials might also mistake trafficked victims for smuggled individuals and, instead of assisting them as victims, they treat them as offenders (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:253). Therefore, awareness campaigns and training of government officials (especially those in the forefront such as health caregivers and law enforcement personnel) on how to identify victims of human trafficking are pivotal. After being rescued or escaping, the victims have needs and rights that will have to be attended to and respected by the stakeholders and service providers involved. Those needs and rights of the victims are discussed below:

3.4.3 Victims' needs

Victims of crime have basic needs which must be met as soon as they have survived the criminal act.

3.4.3.1 *Autonomy*

According to Batley (2013:119), when perpetrators commit crime against victims, they take control of the victims' lives which, in turn, makes victims feel robbed of their rights to safety, freedom, wellbeing and identity. Consequently, victims are left with an intense need to get back the control over their lives.

3.4.3.2 *Order*

Batley (2013:119) further posits that victims derive a sense of safety and protection from law and order. When their rights are violated because there is no order, they feel helpless and feel their rights may be violated again.

3.4.3.3 Relatedness

Victims' interactions with other people affirm their sense of self-worth. However, many victims feel that their trust has been undermined, especially if they were victimised by the people they trusted (Batley 2013:119).

As discussed in Chapter 1, child trafficking is a crime against humanity that violates victims' rights (see subsection 2.6.1). The legal framework relating to the rights and services of victims of crime is called The Service Charter for Victims of Crime (SCVC) in South Africa. The SCVC was adopted in order to ensure that

- the criminal justice process does not subject victims to secondary victimisation;
- victims are the central attention in the CJS;
- service standards are clarified and victims know what to expect from the system whenever they come into contact with the CJS; and
- if the standards are not met, the relevant recourse is provided to victims (DoJ&CD [sa]: 7).

3.4.4 Victims' rights

Based on SCVC, the following are victims' rights:

- Victims of child trafficking, like other victims when rescued, have a right to be attended to promptly and courteously, treated with respect despite the crime they may have committed as a result of their trafficking situation.
- When rescued by any department, community members or agencies, they are entitled to privacy and dignity.
- When interviewed by the law enforcement officials, prosecutors, court officials and other stakeholders, they must be interviewed in the language of their choice.
- These measures will ensure that victims do not suffer secondary victimisation (DoJ&CD 2004:6-9).

3.4.4.1 The right to assistance

- Victims have a right to assistance to health, counselling and legal help.

- Police must assist by explaining police procedures, informing the victims of their rights and making referrals to relevant police service providers. In cases of special needs, all the relevant stakeholders should (within their scope of practice) take reasonable steps to accommodate and ensure the victims are treated in a sensitive manner.

3.4.4.2 *The right to receive information*

- Victims have right to be informed of their rights and how to exercise them.
- Victims' rights should be further explained in their preferred language.

3.4.4.3 *The right to offer information*

- Stakeholders that are involved in trafficking cases must ensure that victims exercise their right to offer information during the investigation and trial processes. This means that victims must be given an opportunity to give further statements to the police if they omitted something during their initial statement. Furthermore, if a victim realises that the statement is incomplete, he/she must be allowed to make a full statement to the court, give evidence or a victim impact statement during sentencing.
- Crime victims ought to be allowed to give input during the parole hearings of their perpetrators.

3.4.4.4 *The right to restitution or compensation*

- Victims have the right to be compensated for damage or loss of property as a result of the crime committed.

3.4.4.5 *The right to protection*

- Victims have a right to be free from any harassment, fear, intimidation, corruption, tampering and abuse. Where necessary, the police must apply for the victims to be placed in witness protection to ensure their safety as witnesses and to prevent their withdrawal from giving testimony as a result of undue influence.
- Artz and Smythe (2013:55) indicate that the above-mentioned rights will only be upheld if the CJS reminds victims, at all times, of their rights to information,

protection and support and if offices, such as the Independent Complaint Directorate (ICD) and Office of the Public Protector, are allowed to do their work of dealing with poor service delivery without any interruption or interference from government departments.

- The relationship between victims and the CJS is mediated by engaging with progressive NGOs that operate within communities. In this manner, the government would be able to monitor progress where the upholding of human rights is concerned.

As indicated above, victim empowerment focuses on assisting victims of crime to learn, grow and recover from their experiences (DSD et al [sa]:3). Victim empowerment further gives individuals, families and communities the power to exercise their rights to privacy, safety and human dignity and place the victims in a more central role within the CJS (DSD et al [sa]:3). Furthermore, VEP acknowledges and recognises that victimisation constitutes a violation of human rights and therefore shifts the attention from convicting perpetrators to offering services, which will facilitate recovery from the harm caused by the crime, to the victims (Artz & Smythe 2013:55).

DSD et al ([sa]:3) posits that victim empowerment and support assist victims to recover from the exposure to crime and violence through a well-managed, integrated and multidisciplinary team approach. This approach, in turn, minimises secondary victimisation, encourages victims to cooperate with the CJS and ensures that perpetrators receive punishment that will deter potential traffickers. It additionally has the potential to reduce and prevent crime and violence as well as enhance the effectiveness of the CJS (DSD et al [sa]:3). According to DSD et al ([sa]:11), the numbers of victims of smuggling and trafficking, more especially children and women trafficked for prostitution, labour and organ trade, are growing therefore special attention should be given to the victims of this type of crime.

The above information, like the previous section, was used in this study to evaluate whether the current aftercare programmes, as currently offered, are on par with the objectives of the SCVC. This section further focuses on the rights and needs of the victims that should be respected in the process of offering them support. The following sections note the various legislations used to protect victims of child trafficking and the

guidelines emanating from these legislations where aftercare support for child trafficking victims is concerned.

3.5 RELATED LEGISLATIONS

The South African legislations of human/child trafficking that were used to guide this study are the Trafficking in Person (TiP) Act 7 of 2013 and the Children's Act 38 of 2005. These legislations give guidelines and information on how victims of human/child trafficking should be handled and on the procedures to be followed by the various service providers and stakeholders.

3.5.1 Handling of trafficked victims in terms of TiP Act 7 of 2013

DoJ and CD (2013:25), which is the custodian of TiP, indicates that any person who knows or suspects that a child is a victim of trafficking must immediately report that suspicion or knowledge to the police. It is also highlighted in the TiP Act that any person who has knowledge of a child or adult being a victim of trafficking and does not report the incident to the police is guilty of committing a crime (DoJ&CD 2013:25). It is further outlined in the TiP Act that any person who wants to report a case related to trafficking may not be turned away so police officials to whom the case is reported should prioritise the case and act immediately (DoJ&CD 2013:25). If the person reporting the case is the victim, she/he must be taken to a place of safety to ensure protection from harm by the traffickers. Additionally, the police must handle the victim in a sensitive manner and reassure the victim that the case is being given full attention and will be investigated thoroughly. The police official taking the statement must be aware that the victim may be severely traumatised and is reliving the trauma by reporting the case. Therefore, to prevent secondary victimisation, the official must exercise caution and be sensitive towards the victim, especially if he/she is a child (DoJ&CD 2013:25). As indicated above if the victim is accompanied, the person accompanying him/her must give a statement. The victim must also be provided with psychological support and allowed sufficient time before a full statement is taken.

The following subsection pays attention to one of the crucial services (i.e. the use of trained and vetted interpreters) to be offered to victims of human trafficking as highlighted by the TiP Act.

3.5.1.1 Interpreters

Both internal victims of trafficking or cross border victims may need interpreters due to language barriers. According to the TiP Act, service providers may only use vetted interpreters (DoJ&CD 2013:7-8). Moreover, every province must ensure that stakeholders who deal with victims of human trafficking are in possession of a list of vetted interpreters and that those interpreters are available whenever their services are needed (DoJ&CD 2013:7-8). The list must contain languages which are scarce in the particular province, as well as interpreters who are able to help with various disabilities such as sight, speech and hearing. The list of interpreters must also have the name and contact details of a provincial coordinator (DoJ&CD 2013:7-8).

The interpreters must be vetted for criminal records in order to ensure that they are not part of trafficking syndicates or any other criminal group (DoJ&CD 2013:8). Moreover, they must also be vetted against the National Child Protection Register established in terms of section 111 of the Children's Act 38 Of 2005 and the National Register for Sex Offenders established in terms of section 42 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act 32 of 2007. Furthermore, the psychological and emotional suitability of interpreters must be ensured. They must be ethnically, culturally and religiously capable of translating in cases of sexual violence, graphic sexual detail and abuse (DoJ&CD 2013:8).

The following section expounds on the TiP Act which does not focus on how to care for victims of child trafficking specifically but on victims of human trafficking in general. Nonetheless, as explained in Chapter 1, this deductive reasoning was applied in this study where discussions moved from the general to the specific. As a result, building from discussing the general guidelines of caring for victims of human trafficking, the next section focuses specifically on how to care for child victims based on the Children's Act No 38 of 2005.

3.5.2 Children's Act No 38 of 2005

Children's Act No 38 of 2005 (hereinafter referred to as the Children's Act) is a custodian of the DSD and provides overall guidelines on the care and protection of children. This Act further provides guidelines on how to remove children from the streets and place them in shelters of safety when they need care and protection (DSD

2005:65). Based on the Children's Act, children in need of care and protection are listed as follows:

- Abandoned by their parents or guardians and have no help or any means of support;
- When the child is displaying uncontrollable and unbecoming behaviour that parents or cannot handle or manage;
- A child who permanently lives and begs on the streets;
- A child who lives in conditions that expose him/her to exploitation;
- A child who lives under circumstances that expose him/her to physical danger, emotional harm or mental trauma;
- When there are suspicions that a child is being exposed to danger while staying with parents or a guardian;
- When the child is found physically and mentally neglected;
- When a child is neglected, rejected or maltreated by the person whose responsibility is to ensure the safety of the child (i.e. parent or guardian) (DSD 2005:65).

When the child is identified (based on the above-mentioned criteria) as needing care and protection, the Children's Act stipulates that he/she must be taken to a Child and Youth Care Centre (CYCC), a state owned shelter for children under the age of 18. When placed in these centres, it must be ensured that the child will be taken care of by social workers and professional caregivers. Thereafter, the official who removed the child in need and of care and protection from the streets must:

- locate the parents or guardian of that child within 24 hours to inform them about the removal of the child;
- refer the matter to the designated social worker for investigations; or
- refer the matter to the relevant provincial DSD office (DSD 2005:65).

3.5.2.1 Trafficking of children according to Children's Act

According to Children's Act if a child is in need of care and protection and need

immediate emergency protection in which a failure to do so might jeopardise the well-being of the child such as victims of child trafficking must be rescued without a court order (DSD 2005:65). The TIP Act further indicates that whoever trafficked the child, has played a role in trafficking of the child, allows his/her house to be used to exploit the victim or who publishes, advertises, prints and even uses internet to facilitate trafficking of a child, should be prosecuted (DoJ & DC 2013:16). When a child has been found and rescued from traffickers, the DHA and the Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA) must facilitate the documentation and safe return of the child to his/her home (DSD 2005:97). Where there is a need and it is in the best interest of the child, an adult should escort the child home and the state must pay the travelling expenses for the child (DSD 2005:97). DSD (2005:22) stresses that everything that concerns child care and protection of the child must be done with the child's best interest at heart. Child care and protection includes personal relations between the child and the parent, parental attitudes towards the child, parental or guardian capacity to take care of the child and ability to meet the child's basic emotional and intellectual needs (DSD 2005:21-22). The needs for the child to stay with parents, to maintain the emotional connection with family and culture or tradition, should also be taken into consideration (DSD 2005:21-22). The DSD (2005:21-22) emphasises that attention ought to be given to the child, his/her intellectual and social development, emotional and psychological security, the need and right to be brought up in a caring and loving environment, disabilities or any chronic illnesses the child may be living with and the need to protect the child from any physical or psychological harm caused by maltreatment, violence, neglect and harmful behaviour.

This section firstly focused on the TIP Act which deals with all victims of human trafficking in general. The section then became more specific by discussing the Children's Act whose central message is that, when offering care and support to child victims, their best interests should, at all times, be put first. The latter is important in the assessment of the care and support programmes offered to victims of child trafficking as discussed at the end of this chapter and later in Chapter 5.

3.6 SERVICES TO BE OFFERED TO TRAFFICKED VICTIMS ACCORDING TO PALERMO PROTOCOLS

According to the Palermo Protocols, the needs of victims of human/child trafficking

should be prioritised and met at all costs. These include the need for protection, medical care, psychological and social attention as well as a safe repatriation and a process devoid of secondary victimisation (UNODC 2004:43). In this section, human trafficking aftercare support programmes based on the victims' needs are discussed. According to UNODC (2006:141), safety should take priority in the aftercare programmes for child trafficking victims. Studies conducted by Warria et al (2015:532) report that aftercare is crucial because, after release, the severity and range of symptoms exhibited by victims of trafficking require immediate and rapid intervention. Immediate assistance after victims are released includes emergency assessment, medical assistance, availing resources which will meet the child's basic needs and specialised psychosocial support. As previously mentioned under section 3.4, identification of victims is important for the successful provision of these services by social workers, health care practitioners and other service providers such the SAPS (Odera & Malinowski 2011:29-30).

Care of victims of child trafficking, according to the Palermo Protocols, are discussed in the next sub-sections in terms of the protection of victims, psychological, emotional and social attention, legal services, appropriate housing, status of the victim in receiving countries and repatriation of victims.

3.6.1 Protection of victims

As indicated in section 3.6, in the aftercare programmes, for the victims of child trafficking should be prioritised after victims have been released or escaped from their captors, followed by immediate intervention due to the range of severe symptoms (UNODC 2006:141; Warria et al (2015:532). The Palermo Protocols note that the domestic law of the country to which the victim is trafficked should be applied to ensure maximum protection of privacy and identity of the victim. Measures that provide protection for the victim should include information on court proceedings and confidentiality (UNODC 2004:43). Also, the victims' views and concerns about the offender(s) should be presented and considered during court proceedings in a way that is not prejudicial to the victim (UNODC 2004:43).

3.6.2 Psychological, emotional and social attention

The Palermo Protocols postulate that the state to which the victim is trafficked should,

in cooperation with NGOs, implement measures that provide physical, psychological and social recovery for the victim (UNODC 2004:43). Survivors' immediate needs are thus the following:

- Immediate referral to a place of safety to prevent re-trafficking;
- Provision of basic necessities such as clothing, food and bathing;
- Language interpretation in cases where language is a barrier;
- Emergency medical care for health issues; and
- Crisis legal advocacy for migration purposes for non-citizen victims (UNODC 2006:142; Odera & Malinowski 2011:29).

Additional to the above list, the following trauma recovery and life organising services should also be offered to victims of child trafficking:

- Physical health for injuries;
- Mental health for traumatic experiences;
- Substance abuse rehabilitation for addicted victims;
- Transitional housing; and
- Immigration to be returned home and reconciled with their parents (UNODC 2006:140-141, 142; Odera & Malinowski 2011:29).

3.6.3 Legal services

Victims need their constitutional rights to be dealt with through a fair and just criminal process which empowers the victims to take back control over their lives. In this way, justice will be served as perpetrators are prosecuted and victims are constantly provided with feedback regarding the CJS processes (Batley 2013:1197).

3.6.4 Appropriate housing

Immediate assistance after victims are released includes physical safety, emergency assessment, medical assistance and the provision of resources based on the victims' basic needs such as housing, education and specialised psychosocial care (UNODC 2004:43). As previously mentioned under section 3.4, identification of victims is vital

for the successful provision of these services (Odera & Malinowski 2011:29-30). Victims should be issued educational and training opportunities whilst in the shelters and afterwards in order to be able to rebuild their lives while recovering from the trafficking experience (UNODC 2004:43-44). Lastly, systems must be put in place to compensate victims for the loss and harm they suffered (UNODC 2004:43-44). Warria et al (2015:532) also indicate that appropriate referral of victims to psychologists and psychotherapists is also important.

However, discussed in section 1.2, was that although studies have been conducted on human and child trafficking, little research has been done which focuses specifically on aftercare support for child trafficking victims, therefore the researcher could not find any literature on the current aftercare programmes offered at the CYCCs for victims of child trafficking.

3.6.5 Status of the victims in receiving countries

UNODC (2004:43-44) recommends that the trafficking destination state should apply the human rights approach and adopt legislation that permits victims of trafficking to legally reside in the country while the crime is being investigated.

3.6.6 Repatriation of victims

If the victim of trafficking was, before the trafficking incident, in the country of origin legally, the state should facilitate the safe return of the victim to his/her home country (UNODC 2004:44-45). The state should also verify whether the victim is documented and, if not, documentation should be arranged by the country of origin and sent to the destination country (UNODC 2004:44-45).

3.7 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY SERVICE PROVIDERS

In this section, the challenges that inhibit the support given to victims of child trafficking are discussed. The primary challenge identified is the limited number of shelters and services specifically tailored for victims of child trafficking (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7). This means that human trafficking victims share shelters with victims of rape or domestic violence and thus do not receive services meant for their specific needs (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7). Although child trafficking victims share some similarities

with domestic violence victims, trafficking has distinguishing factors such as isolation, trauma issues, extreme mental health problems, the lack of understanding of how the CJS works, the need for a longer stay at the shelter and for heightened security to prevent re-trafficking. These shared shelters may have fewer resources available to human trafficking victims hence it is crucial to have separate shelters for them (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7).

The following challenges are faced by service providers when providing aftercare programmes for victims of human trafficking (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7):

- Service providers may lack adequate resources, funding and training to provide extensive support to victims;
- Victims may fail to understand service providers' language thus making it difficult for service providers to understand the victims' needs in cases where there are no interpreters available;
- Victims and service providers may have fears of retaliation by the traffickers in an attempt to take the victims back;
- The victims lack of knowledge of their rights;
- Victims' lack of support from their families especially in cases where victims were sold by their families; and
- Victims' lack of coordination with their state and immigration agencies from their country of origin (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7-8).

The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2012:5) indicates that service providers for victims of human trafficking and organisations fighting the crime should increase their capacity to identify victims and also to assist them to cope with their experiences. Victims should be provided with adequate shelter and receive services that meet their needs after they have been rescued or have escaped from their captors.

In conjunction with the discussion on current care and support programmes being offered to victims of child trafficking, it was necessary to examine the literature for the challenges being faced by these programmes. This information is vital in the evaluation of the programmes therefore it will also be compared with the undertakings

by participants presented in Chapter 5.

3.8 SUMMARY

The importance of a literature study is to contextualise the phenomenon being researched and to juxtapose what already exists to what the study has found. This literature review chapter discussed the origin of victimology and victim support as well as the objectives of victim empowerment based on the NCPS, VEP and SCVC. This was followed by a detailed breakdown of legislative guidelines on how to care for and protect victims of human and/or child trafficking based on the TiP Act, the Children's Act and the Palermo Protocols. The various challenges faced by service providers when offering victim support were also explained.

The next chapter is an extension of the literature study as it focuses on the use of theories underpinning the research.

Chapter 4

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to build a theoretical foundation of the phenomenon of child trafficking, demand theory, Marxism theory and feminist theories were used in this study. The above-mentioned theories were utilised to explain possible reasons for human trafficking or what motivates offenders to commit this crime. As explained in Chapter 1, theories underpinning this study originate from other fields of study, such as economics (i.e. demand theory), politics and economics (i.e. Marxist theory) and sociology (i.e. feminist theories). The reason for using multi-/inter-disciplinary theories is based on the fact that child trafficking is an intricate phenomenon and thus requires to be studied from various schools of thought. As a result, the use of these diverse theories enabled an in-depth understanding of child trafficking which fulfilled one of the objectives of this study, namely, to gain an understanding of the phenomenon of child trafficking (refer to sub-section 1.3.2).

4.2 DEMAND THEORY

Demand theory is based on the demand and supply principle. Hughes (2004:5) postulates that there are hundreds of thousands of victims of human trafficking each year around the world for the purpose of the sex trade. This means that human trafficking is escalated by the demand for victims from sending to receiving countries. These victims, as discussed in sub-section 2.3.4 are recruited for different forms of exploitation, including prostitution, as well as being bought and sold like commodities for profit.

According to Kane (2013:126), prostitution of adolescents is an extension of the adult sex industry. It services a variety of needs and accommodates specific clients who are looking for younger girls in the sex market (Kane 2013:126). Trafficked victims for the purposes of sexual exploitation are mostly adolescent boys and girls depending on clients' preferences in the brothels and other commercial venues (Kane 2013:126). ILO and IPEC (2002:17) Indicate that these children's pain from sexual exploitation is unbearable because they are forced against their will to accept big numbers of clients

per day in the sex trade and they, unlike adults, cannot negotiate safe sex with their clients. As already discussed in section 2.3.4.2, victims of child trafficking are also being sold to and are subjected to engaging in sexual acts with paedophiles. Kane (2013:126-127) posits that child trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation is motivated by paedophilia (see more details under section 2.3.4.2). The demand is caused by the following factors:

4.2.1 Sex buyers

According to Hughes (2004:8-9), people who buy sex are mostly men from different age groups, social groups and ethnicities. Hughes (2004:5-6) is of the opinion that the men's choice to buy sex is voluntary but is accompanied by different sexual needs and motives to explore sexual fantasies. Furthermore, the demand for having sex with children is escalated by the fact that perpetrators act in secret (Hughes 2004:5-6). Their identities are hidden and protected by pimps. Whenever the public talks about its perception on prostitution, the focus is always on women and girls who sell their bodies but the men who buy sex are not scrutinised, questioned or criticised (Hughes 2004:6).

Hughes (2004:23) postulates that the demand is further escalated by men who mostly:

- believe that they have sexual preferences for children therefore use the opportunity to explore this discovery;
- prefer to have sex with both children and adults and are willing to explore that opportunity when it is presented; and
- are paedophiles and only prefer children and adolescents to satisfy their sexual needs.

Other sex buyers use prostitution to explore their sexual fantasies and may also assault children as part of their sexual fulfilment (Hughes 2004:10; Luty & Lanier 2012:558). The escalation in the demand for children sex trade is based on factors such as men's intimacy problems in adult relationships, curious desire for unfamiliar sex, stereotypical belief in rape myths, sexual violence towards children, and their emotional connection and sexual attraction to the innocent (Hughes 2004:10; Luty & Lanier 2012:558). Moreover, men who have a history of sexual abuse or believe that

women and children are to be dominated have the urge to use violence on prostitutes to take revenge on those who wronged them in the past (Hughes 2004:10-11; Luty & Lanier 2012:558). This further exacerbates the physical injuries suffered by children trafficked for the purpose of prostitution.

4.2.2 People who profit from the sex

Individuals in the trafficking ring, such as pimps, brothel owners and massage parlour managers, are likely to generate money directly from exploiting young women and children trafficked for prostitution (Hughes 2004:2). The above-mentioned individuals use various ways to increase their profits for services rendered by their victims (Luty & Lanier 2012:559). Additionally, pimps determine the prices for the victims and force victims to hand over all the money they have made (Luty & Lanier 2012:559). To maximise profit, pimps may also sell their victims to other pimps in different locations (see point 2.3.4.2). In addition, the clients feel that the amount they paid entitles them to do as they wish to satisfy their sexual needs despite the pain they inflict on the victims (Hughes 2004:10; Luty & Lanier 2012:558).

4.2.3 Social media indirectly normalises the purchase of sex

Media outlets, such as pornographic magazines, social networks and the internet, are used to make prostitution enticing and accessible (Hughes 2004:2-3; Luty & Lanier 2012:559). The trending of nude pictures, for example, normalises the sex trade as a victimless crime (Hughes 2004:2-3).

4.2.4 The State

Hughes (2004:8) posits that the legalisation of prostitution by certain states passively encourages the demand for victims trafficked for sexual exploitation. Where human trafficking is concerned, when a state decriminalises sex work, that particular state becomes a part of the demand for victims (Hughes 2004:2-3). The demand for victims is therefore the driving force for the increase in trafficking of girls for sexual exploitation. If prostitution is legalised in a specific country, the demand in that country escalates (Hughes 2004:8). Consequently, based on the supply and demand principle where human trafficking is concerned, perpetrators leverage on areas or countries where prostitution is flourishing (Hughes 2004:5-6). If pimps realise they cannot recruit

enough local women and girls, they then use the push and pull factors (discussed in section 2.5) from supply countries to entice victims (Hughes 2004:5-6). These above-mentioned factors influence the demand for sex and present opportunities for paedophiles to explore their sexual fantasies such as having sex with children.

4.3 MARXIST THEORY

Marxism is a political and economic theory founded by Karl Marx and Frederick Engels (Weis 2017:11). According to Akers and Sellers (2013:222), Marxist theory analyses the social conflict between the capitalists, called the bourgeoisies, and the low class society, called the proletariats. Akers and Sellers (2013:222) indicate that Marxist theory explains law and criminal justice within the society and the imbalance of social, political and economic power(s). Marxist theory proposes that social, political and economic power is more concentrated on capitalists (bourgeoisies) or the ruling class that owns the means of production whereas the lower class (proletariat) sell their labour to produce profit that benefits the bourgeoisies (Akers & Sellers 2013:222).

The capitalists who are perceived as a monopoly use their political power to gain control and rule the country (Moyer 2001:211). This political power allows the capitalists to have the authority to manipulate the CJS for their own advantage and benefit (Moyer 2001:211). The proletariats are repressed by this monopoly system; they remain powerless in the system hence the contradiction between the two classes (Akers & Sellers 2013:222-223).

Richard Quinney, one of theorists who analysed the Marxist theory, proposed that the inequality, internal conflict and diversity of interest in the society are caused by the underlying struggle between the bourgeoisies and the proletariat (Akers & Sellers 2013:223). Moyer (2001:211) postulates that the power and authority in the hands of the capitalists maintains the status quo and keeps them in control of the proletariats. In order to keep the upper hand, the bourgeoisies promote only the interests that will benefit them to manipulate the society in order to normalise inequality and legitimise oppression of the proletariats (Akers & Sellers 2013:222).

As discussed in section 2.2, trafficking is described as modern day slavery, in which victims (the proletariat), mostly from poor families or countries, are recruited to be

exploited in an inhumane slave like manner by the traffickers (bourgeoisies) whose primary aim is to make profits through exploiting the poor (Segrave 2013:228; Swart 2012:65). Victims are commodified, treated like property and exploited through forced marriages, prostitution, organ trading and child labour to reap profits for the traffickers (Quirk 2011:128-129). Traffickers exploit poor people (portrayed as the proletariat) in order to make money out of them (Segrave 2013:228; Swart 2012:65). Although capitalism may not chiefly cause sexual exploitation, it is believed that trafficking for sexual exploitation is one of the major contributory factors (Brock 2011:np) that include:

- Capitalism demands that the means of production be privately owned and operated for private profit. This promotes the private “ownership” of trafficked women and children who are forced to work for profit for their pimps, madams, brothel owners and traffickers.
- “Capitalism creates classes of haves and have nots, and the survival of the haves depends on the exploitation of the have nots. This system makes it very difficult for those at the bottom to rise up and leave a life of exploitation” (Brock 2011:np).
- Developing countries are forced to compete in the global market with wealthy nations which have had time to establish themselves. As a result, sex tourism which heavily relies on the strength of the dollar in impoverished countries, blooms within the global competitive structure.
- The capitalist system can be said to be based on greed and thus the vulnerable are not protected.
- Based on the capitalist mind-set that reinforces that it is okay to pay for sex, sex workers (even those who have been trafficked) are mistreated because the “clients” have paid for the services.
- Based on the capitalist mind-set and in the context of human trafficking, “humans are dispensable, and their bodies are commodities that can be used for profit” Brock (2011:np).

Emser (2015:10) postulates under subsection 2.3.3 that cross-border trafficking is

increasing due to the growth of people's movements between different countries. As discussed in section 2.5.2, migration also serves as a pull factor. These movements are habitually done by people from poor countries (proletariats) to well developed countries looking for a better life and greener pastures (Emser 2015:10). Also, because of the fluctuating economic climate, insurgency, political instability, discrimination and poverty, which ultimately forces people (the proletariats) to relocate from their own countries to neighbouring countries for a better life, they are put at risk of trafficking (Warria et al 2016:83). Emser (2015:10-11), in section 2.3.3, indicates that most refugees and migrants who flee from their countries opt to be smuggled into South Africa and are being exposed to the risk of being trafficked and exploited. The above discussion collaborates with the push and pull factors that are discussed in sections 2.5 that explain that poverty is one of the causes of child trafficking. Families from disadvantaged backgrounds (proletariats), put pressure on their children to look for better opportunities to get out of poverty which undoubtedly serves as a bait for traffickers (Odera & Malinowski 2011:27).

Emser (2015:15) indicates that the demand for cheap and low-skilled labour escalates child trafficking for the purpose of child forced labour from which traffickers make a profit (also refer to section 4.2 for demand theory and ILO and IPEC (2002:23)). Due to the fact that Marxism motivates production through the unpaid labour of the workers, capitalism can be said to perpetuate human trafficking particularly for the purposes of labour exploitation. Traffickers take advantage of the fact that children are more vulnerable, are easy to control, cannot claim their rights, are easy to manipulate and can work long hours with little food while living in poor conditions and making profits for them (ILO & IPEC 2002:34). In this way, capitalists profit from exploiting the proletariats.

4.4 FEMINIST THEORIES

Feminist theory is a collection of theories that form part of sociological theories that focus on women while highlighting social problems and issues that women experience (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:342). It is a set of beliefs that perpetuate the oppression of women because of their gender (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:342). Feminist theorists perceive patriarchy as a fundamental principle that has caused women to be

oppressed, side-lined as well as discriminated socially, economically and politically and because of their gender (Turner & Maschi 2015:152).

The three theories of feminism underpinning this study are as follows:

4.4.1 Liberal feminism

This theory advocates for the equality of opportunities, pay, welfare needs and rights of control between men and women in social, economic or political systems (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). It promotes controversial women's rights such as reproductive and abortion rights, sexual harassments, child care and health care affordability (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:340-343). For example, patriarchy perpetuates the belief that it is a woman's job to stay at home and take care of children but this theory argues that men can do the same job as women (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:340-343). As a result, liberal feminism seeks to balance the power between the two traditional genders, regardless of sexual differences. The emphasis of this theory is that women should have the same rights and job opportunities as men. However, the weakness of liberal feminism is that it undermines the difference in biological make up between males and females in patriarchal society (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:340-343; Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np).

4.4.2 Socialist-Marxist feminism

Socialist feminists argue that, in patriarchal societies, females are driven by capitalism and perceived as second class citizens (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). This, in turn, weakens and makes them vulnerable to exploitation, especially in the work place (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:343-344). This theory also argues that women are not offered the same opportunities as men and that oppression is rooted in the economic system which denies women opportunities to hold leadership roles in the corporate world (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). This theory corroborates the Marxist theory as discussed in section 4.3.2 as the central message of both theories is that the powerless (children in this case) are oppressed and exploited by the capitalists. This theory further addresses the unequal standing of women in the community and in the work place. Sex work is mostly perceived as women's work and thus women and girl children are mostly vulnerable to human trafficking for sexual exploitation (Daly & Chesney-Lind 2009:343-344).

4.4.3 Radical feminism

Radical feminism views capitalism as a sex tool used by men to oppress women (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). Based on this theory, women can be free from this dominance if they do away with inherently oppressive attitudes that have been normalised by the patriarchal society (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). This theory postulates that, as long as there is male-based authority, society cannot be reformed from the oppression and total transformation cannot be experienced (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). Radical feminism also addresses:

- a) Cultural feminism where the intention is to create a culture that supports women and their needs;
- b) Separatist feminism which asserts that opposition to patriarchy is best done through focusing solely on women and girls; and
- c) Anti-pornographic feminism which is split into two arguments: The first argument is that pornography devalues women's worth and promote men's control over women and the expression of men's violence towards women while others believe that women should be free to express their sexual fantasies (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np).

This theory expounds on two aspects, namely, patriarchy versus feminism and feminism versus sexual exploitation.

4.4.3.1 Patriarchy versus feminism

Juxtaposing patriarchy against feminism provides a framework within which to express the totality of oppressive and exploitative relations which affect women (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np). According to Akers and Sellers (2013:250-251), patriarchy is the fundamental principle of society in which the rights and privileges of women are not equal to those of men. According to Akers and Sellers (2013:251), patriarchy is a system employed in political, social, economic, legal, cultural, religious and military institutions where males use their patriarchal authority legally to oppress women. The patriarchal system gives men the authority to control resources within the private and public sectors in order to dominate women (Adeleye-Fayemi 2010:np).

4.4.3.2 Feminism versus sexual exploitation

Feminist theory highlights child trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation as the sexual oppression of females by men as mostly girls and young women are targeted victims for this kind of exploitation. Adeleye-Fayemi (2010:np) indicates that the patriarchal society encourages men to view themselves as having authority over females and this increases the risk of young girls being trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Kane (2013:126) points out in section 3.2 that prostitution of adolescents, which are mostly females, is an extension of the adult sex industry, which increases the placement of young girls in the sex market. As discussed under sections 2.3.4.2 and 4.2, Hughes (2004:27) stresses that paedophiles, who are typically men, seem to enjoy having sex with female children as a form of reaffirming their manhood.

From the above discussion of feminist theories, it is evident that patriarchy is one of the contributing factors of human or child trafficking. Patriarchy, which literally means “the rule of the father”, denotes a society ruled and controlled by men above women. As a result, men’s violence against family members has been historically viewed as appropriate or necessary to their role as leaders and disciplinarians of the family. Consequently, violence by men in the family is, in some instances, considered a private issue that is not subject to intervention by outsiders due to the man’s position as guardian of his wife and children. It can thus be said that this patriarchal belief extends to other structures and organisations outside the home where women and children are generally reduced to subordinate positions. In this study, the subordinate nature of children (“where children should be seen but never heard”) as perpetuated by the patriarchal society in which they are raised, puts them at a much higher risk of being violated and exploited through illegal activities such as human trafficking.

4.5 SUMMARY

The discussion of the theories above explains the reason why human trafficking, particularly child trafficking, takes place. According to Kane (2013:126-127), the sex market is increasing rapidly due to the huge demand for girls supplied to paedophiles who are likely to be men. The applied feminist theories clarify why inherent beliefs, imbedded in a patriarchal society, increase the risk of females or girl children becoming victims of human trafficking. Through the use of Marxism, child trafficking

is explained as a product of capitalism which is driven by making profit through exploitation of the powerless working class. Human traffickers or capitalists prey on and exploit victims because they are mostly poor, vulnerable and powerless (Warria et al 2016:83; Swart 2012:65-66).

Chapter 5

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the analysis and interpretation of data is discussed. Data were collected through the use of semi-structured interviews. The findings presented are, therefore, from in-depth interviews conducted with 30 experts from different government and inter-governmental organisations as indicated in chapter 1 under subsection 1.7.1.2. The departments represented in the study are the DSD (n=17), DHA (n=2), NPA (n=1), DoJ&CD (n=1), SAPS (n=7), IOM (n=1) and UNODC (n=1). Participants are officials and social workers who work closely with child trafficking cases and thus are considered experts on the subject. As a result, the researcher was able to collect in-depth, quality information from the participants.

As discussed in Chapter 1 under subsection 1.7.2, the interviews were conducted in English; they were recorded through both voice recordings and writing down of notes on the interview schedules. Afterwards, the researcher transcribed the recordings taking into consideration quotes, description of participants' responses as well as their experiences which were recorded during the interviews. The transcripts were read over again in order for the researcher to familiarise herself with the collected data. Then the researcher identified themes from the data. This was done through coding, where data were broken into different components and given labels. In this process, the uniformities or common answers were noted and labelled in a single phrase (Terre Blanche et al 2006:323; Bryman 2012:13). Finally, research findings are presented in a narrative format supplemented by the use of verbatim responses.

5.2 VICTIM IDENTIFICATION

As discussed in Chapter 3 under section 3.4, identification is a crucial step towards offering support to the victim. Unless victims have been successfully identified, they will not be able to receive the necessary support from the relevant stakeholders. As explained in section 3.4.2, identification of child trafficking victims can be challenging, hence they are often mistaken for offenders who illegally immigrated into South Africa of their own free will (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:253; Governor & Cutrone 2013:8).

Consequently, when identified, they are often treated as offenders or willing victims of migrant smuggling. When making identification, there are two elements of child trafficking which are recruitment and exploitation. These elements serve as a guideline to help officials to be able to differentiate trafficking from smuggling.

When participants were asked how they identify victims of child trafficking, they unanimously reported that victim identification is difficult. To emphasise this point, **participants 0014 and 0015** respectively stated that:

I can't say there is an expert for identifications.

Cases differ and, if we are not certain, we ask help from other stakeholders.

Participants noted that victim identification is important for both internal and across-borders victims. However, child trafficking is easily mistaken for child abuse or child labour. All participants said that victim identification is a primary responsibility of law enforcement officers (such as members of the SAPS and border control officials) since they are, in most cases, the first contacts with victims (also see section 3.4).

When we carry out our raids as the DHA in the business shops around the cities and townships, we check the documents of immigrants then, when we discover the smuggled immigrants with falsified documents, we somehow also discover the trafficked victims, including children. Sometimes SAPS invite us when they are doing their raids so we can verify the documents of the immigrants. (Participant 0028)

According to the participants, when identifying victims of child trafficking, one needs to look out for the following clues:

5.2.1 Physical clues

Participants reported that visible signs which law enforcement can look for when identifying the victims are signs of physical harm, untreated wounds, beatings, rape, withholding food and starvation, forced use of alcohol or drugs, assault, signs of being forced to provide sexual services and any signs by the victim that he/she is unfamiliar with the country (also refer to OVCTTAC 2012:6; ILO et al 2009:20; Drew 2009:159-160 in section 2.6).

We can tell from the signs of physical abuse hence others are discovered exploited in underage prostitution. They are sexually exploited by the traffickers. They have bruises all over their body and they do not normally give information on how they got those bruises due to intimidation from the traffickers. (Participant 0020)

You may see child trafficking victims begging on the streets with untreated wounds, kept in an isolated place and doing child labour. (Participant 0025)

5.2.2 Psychological and emotional clues

As discussed in sub-section 2.6.3, the emotional and psychological signs to look for when identifying victims of child trafficking are anxiety, restlessness, signs of being threatened or intimidated and fear instilled in victims by traffickers to psychologically manipulate and control them (ILO et al 2009:27). All participants in the study concurred with above-mentioned by revealing that emotions to look out for when identifying victims of child trafficking are fear (resulting from victims being threatened and told that if they try to escape, their families will be harmed), restlessness, hopelessness, depression and anxiety:

Reading from the victim's body language, you can see that they are not comfortable. They cannot sit comfortably and they look as if someone would come in and hurt them. They crying a lot and do not tell the story straight. (Participant 007)

Participant 0023 further explained that trafficked victims normally isolate themselves and they look scared:

Sometimes they just look at you when you speak and shyly will not respond to you, they are emotional and cannot give you right information and you can tell they are withholding information.

5.2.3 Social clues

Participants 0020 and 0022 indicated that victims of child trafficking often look lost and disorientated.

The victims may be walking alone or with others but you will tell by the interaction between the victim and the traffickers. They have falsified documents or no documentation at all. They struggle to fit in and socialise with other kids and they isolate themselves. The victims will look neglected, lonely and dirty with sad face. Language barrier also is a red flag and trust issues. Their movement is restricted, locked up and are denied [the right to attend] school. (Participant 0020)

The above responses agree with the literature that traffickers are reported to take victims to unfamiliar environments among strangers which may be the reason that makes victims look lost and disorientated (see section 5.2.1). Participant 0027 advised that another red flag to look out for is the inconsistency in the victims' sharing of their story. This Participant explained that victims may say one thing today and tomorrow they tell a different story, withhold information or do not say anything at all. Furthermore, victims will often avoid eye contact, which reveals discomfort, anxiety, lack of trust or that they are hiding something. This is analogous to the psychological signs as discussed in the previous section.

Section 3.4 noted that child trafficking victims are more likely to be loyal to their traffickers than to law enforcement because of the fear instilled in them by the traffickers (Warria et al 2015:391). According to ILO et al (2009:27), trafficked victims were betrayed by people they trusted such as neighbours, relatives, friends or lovers. Traffickers win victims' trust so that they can gain control over them before exploiting them. This is a probable explanation why participants reported (as discussed in the preceding section(s)) that, when interviewed, victims show signs of discomfort and anxiety. In addition, because victims have, in some cases, been betrayed by people closest to them or people whom they trusted, they do not know who to trust and thus are sceptical which, in turn, makes the process of victim identification difficult as reported by participants in this study.

5.2.3.1 Language barrier

The issue of language barrier is two pronged in that it, firstly, makes it difficult for victims to be identified as they cannot express themselves in a language spoken by individuals responsible for the identification (refer to Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:251 in section 3.4) and, secondly, it makes it difficult for rescued victims to socialise with other children in aftercare centres. The following verbatim responses corroborate this:

Others have South African names but they cannot even pronounce those names. It seems like the traffickers change victims' original names and give them new South African names, which the victims can hardly pronounce. [That is how we pick up that] they are not South African. Their stories do not [add up], they seem to be programmed on what to say. If they are siblings, when we interview them in a joint interview, they will be saying do not say that as if the traffickers told them what to say and not to say. So they correct each other on what to say and not to say; you can see fear in their faces, they look threatened. (Participant 004)

In support of the above, Governor and Cutrone (2013:8), as cited under section 3.4, reveal that, to make the identification process even more difficult, traffickers use threats to force victims to lie about their real names, ages and illegal status in the country, especially in cases of cross border trafficking. Additionally, **Participant 004** indicated that, when victims are asked questions such as “Who brought you to South Africa?” or “Why are you in the country?”, they claim to be South African citizens but they can neither speak nor understand any of the official South African languages.

It will depend on the environment you find the child in. You will tell by the silence between the child and the trafficker especially when the child has been trafficked by someone unknown to him/her. The child and the trafficker may communicate but, due to language barrier, you will tell that something is not right. Sometimes the children may be trafficked in big numbers, transported in one transport and locked up in inhumane conditions, for example, transported in a truck. When doing our raids on the streets, we meet such transports; that is a red flag for trafficking. In case of internal [trafficking] you may also recognise them because of the language barrier.

For example, a child from Thohoyandou speaking Venda in Durban with no satisfactory explanation. (Participant 0020)

The above responses reflect the fact that child trafficking does not only take place across borders but it also takes place internally where children are trafficked from one province to another in South Africa, for example, where the community speaks an unfamiliar language (refer to sections 1.4.4 and 2.3.3). Dottridge (2006:18) stresses that traffickers ensure that the victim's destination is completely unfamiliar which, in turn, puts him/her in a position of vulnerability thus making it more likely to being subjected to abuse (refer to section 2.3.3).

Participants 0014 and 0015 indicated that sometimes child trafficking can be misunderstood by the way the child is referring to the trafficker as either an aunt or uncle.

Some of the things we look for is that this man, the child calls uncle, is he really the uncle especially if it is suspected during identification? What we normally do is to ask the child when he/she say 'my uncle brought me here' to ask is the uncle mom's brother? Because you may find that the child call family friend or any male adult as uncle or the child may say my aunt made me do chores then you must ask 'how are you related to aunt?' (Participant 0014)

The identification of child trafficking victims is also challenging because the process is heavily reliant on the type of exploitation they go through. Victim identification is particularly difficult if the victim has not yet been exploited. Participants 0014 and 0015 noted that, where children are concerned, if one suspects that a child is being trafficked, he/she may be rescued without requesting for consent unlike in the case of adult victims. This confirms what was discussed in the literature under section 3.5.2 that, when officers suspect that a victim under the age of 18 is in need of care and protection, they must immediately contact the DSD and request that a social worker who deals with human trafficking victims verifies their suspicion (DoJ&CD 2013:26; Children's Act 38 of 2005).

As discussed under section 2.5, child trafficking is a widespread yet hidden crime.

Many child trafficking victims are visible but may not easily be seen therefore victim identification is the first step to getting victims to receive the help and aftercare support they need (see section 3.4).

The similarities between illegal smuggling and human trafficking often lead to the incorrect identification of child trafficking victims as willing participants of illegal smuggling, as explained above and in Chapter 3. It is therefore vital that continuous victim identification training, not only of law enforcement officers and social workers but of all stake holders dealing with victims of child trafficking, be considered. Victims' lives, their ability to receive care, support, reintegration into their community and reunion with their loved ones heavily depend on being correctly identified as victims of child trafficking.

5.3 VICTIM RESCUE

The next step after victims have been identified is to rescue them from their captors. As discussed under section 3.4, victims of child trafficking are mostly identified by law enforcement, health workers or social workers and can also be identified by community members who must report the incident(s) to the police. After the victims have been rescued, one must first check if they have been injured, physically assaulted and/or raped, and if they show any signs of being traumatised because, in almost all the cases, victims will show some or all of the afore-mentioned symptoms of abuse (see section 2.6). They will therefore require immediate and rapid interventions such as being placed in a safe shelter where immediate physical and medical care and specialised psychosocial support are offered (also see Warria et al 2015:532).

Participants added that the kind of circumstances the child is found under will dictate what must be done first – whether the victim will be taken to the police station (in the case where he/she was discovered by a community member), taken to a place of safety or taken for medical assistance. Research participants in this study emphasised that, although victims may have engaged in illegal activities such as prostitution (in countries like South Africa where prostitution is criminalised), they should never be treated like criminals because they were exploited and forced to commit such deeds. In collaboration with the afore-mentioned, DoJ and CD (2013:31-32) indicates in the

TiP Act that the offences that victims commit when trafficked cannot be prosecuted because they commit those offences as a result of being trafficked. Participants further posited that, when the child is found, two forms need to be completed. Form 1 reports a child suspected of being a victim of trafficking and Form 2 is submitted to children's court for a court order to be issued so that the child can officially be placed in a care centre (see forms at DoJ&CD 2013:26-40). Participant 0026 emphasised that, before victims are interviewed and forms are completed, they must first be placed in a temporary care centre where they are safe and their basic needs are met.

It is the obligation of law enforcement to remove the victim from exploitation place and they will be interviewed once they are settled. Once the victims are placed in the place of safety, then the process of interview will start.
(Participant 0026)

Participants 0020, 0024 and 0026 reported that interviews are mainly conducted by forensic social workers from the SAPS. These professionals are said to conduct victim assessments and compile the report which is used in the court of law.

On the contrary, Participant 0008 from the DSD argued that, in her experience, they had never had forensic social workers from the SAPS coming into the centres to interview the victims but statements are taken by police officers who are not trained to deal with victims of child trafficking. Challenges faced when offering aftercare support to victims of child trafficking will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter under section 5.10.

As seen in the above discussion, rescuing victims of child trafficking is the second crucial step, after victim identification, of giving the necessary aftercare support and victim's freedom back. It is, therefore, important that all involved stakeholders follow the proper procedures and processes to ensure that the rescued child victim is stabilised and is attended to with his/her best interests at heart as dictated by the Children's Act discussed in Chapter 3.

5.3.1 International victims

One of the objectives of child trafficking victims' support includes offering assistance during the repatriation or reunion process (DoJ&CD 2013:38-39; UNODC 2006:143-

146). Protective measures as well as emotional and financial support should be in place when victims are returned back to their homes. Arrangements made with families of international victims are made by both governments, inter-government as well as non-government organisations such as ISS, embassies, IOM, Red Cross, Interpol as well as DIRCO stakeholders that assist with the tracing of families.

According to Participants, while victims are kept in the shelters, external social workers, with the assistance of the stakeholders mentioned, trace families of the victims. These stakeholders help with tracing of families outside South Africa as well as investigating whether or not parents were involved in the trafficking of the child. The embassy of the country of origin of the trafficked victim is approached to write a letter to the DHA declaring that the child from their country is a victim of trafficking and does not have any travel documents. The embassy will then trace the family or chief of the community where the child is from. If the family is found, an affidavit will be written stating that the family of the child has been found and if the parents of the child cannot (due to circumstances beyond their control) fetch the child from the shelter, then the destination state (i.e. South Africa) will be requested to transport the child back to his/her home. External and residential social workers will then be requested to accompany the child to the border to make sure that he/she is safely delivered to his/her parents. In cases where parents are not available, a social worker from the child's country of origin will be sought to receive the child.

Participant 0014 explained that if the child is not yet ready to return home, the social service department in the child's country of origin should take the child to a CYCC² in his/her country because, although the child may not be in his/her home, the child is in her/his country of origin where the environment is familiar. Participant 0001 emphasised that victims should not be forced to go home and that, in a case where a

² According to Children's Act 38 of 2005 (discussed under section 3.5.2) any child under the age of 18, who is in need of care and protection should be sent to a CYCC, that includes child trafficking victims. The CYCCs are government institutions monitored and governed by the DSD where children who are identified as children in need of care and protection such as such as victims of domestic violence, neglected, raped, begs for a living, orphans and abandoned children, victims of child labour are to be housed (DSD 2005:62-64).

child refuses to go back home, a thorough investigation on parental or relative's involvement in the trafficking of the child should be conducted.

The following verbatim response summarises the repatriation process.

Before the child can be sent back home, we sit in a panel consisting of psychologists, child counsellor, social worker and all who are involved in the child's case to make a joint decision based on the best interest of a child. This panel sit in for both internal and cross border victims.
(Participant 0001)

Participants 0014 and 0028 further explained that if the child is staying in the country until he/she testifies, then NPA and SAPS should write a letter to DHA stating that the child has been trafficked into the country with no official identity documents and they request that the child be allowed to stay in the country until the stipulated court date. This will enable the DHA to grant the child permission to stay in the country legally. If the permit expires, a request for an extension can be submitted but this is not an application for permanent citizenship. Participants 0016 and 0027 added that the external social worker will trace the family and, if found, the parents will be permitted to visit the child.

We try to be sensitive to parents when breaking the news and explain that the child will not come home sooner due to criminal procedures going on. The parents may visit at their own costs and ask them to send in the papers of the child so the child can go to school in the meantime otherwise we will place the child in institutional school. The embassy verify the papers together with DHA. When the child is finally released to go back to country of origin, DHA will issue authorisation letter to allow the child [to] return home.
(Participant 0016)

5.3.2 Local/South African victims

As discussed in sub-section 2.3.2, child trafficking does not only take place across borders, but the crime is committed internally as well. Participants explained that in instances where children have been trafficked within the country, they are rescued and taken to CYCCs while their families are located. They also attend programmes in

the CYCCs and when they seem ready for reunification, social workers apply for a court order which will officially release them into the care of their families.

Eighteen participants from DSD revealed that a designated external social worker is tasked with investigating the case, tracing the family and studying the family background before the child was trafficked as discussed under subsection 3.5.2 (also refer to Children's Act 38 of 2005). If the child is from another province, the DSD in the province in which the child was rescued will ask the DSD in his/her home province to assign an external social worker in that province to locate the victim's family.

If the victim was trafficked from Limpopo to Gauteng, we ask the external social workers from DSD in the home province, which is Limpopo, to trace the family of the victim to do investigations and submit a report to children's court. (Participant 0013)

Participant 0009 highlighted that parents are allowed to visit but a residential social worker has to be present to observe how the child is bonding with the parents.

We also arrange parent-child therapeutic sessions before the child can return back home to enlighten the family on how to keep supporting the child after the traumatic experience the child encountered. If the bonding is going well, the children will be allowed to visit home on weekends, however we first check if the parents were involved in trafficking. (Participant 0009)

Participant 0006 added that tracing the family of internal trafficked victims is easy and quick compared to tracing family of international victims. If the victim is internal, it is easy to get contact numbers of the family in order to arrange a family visit before the child returns back home permanently.

... we do background check like [if the] mother is working, long hours, how the child spend time at home after school. We look at circumstances of the family. Sometimes the family may see it normal for the child being on his/her own after school depending on the age of the child, so we speak with family to try adjust the working hours or make arrangements for child safety. (Participant 0006)

Participant 005 postulated that, upon the release of the child to his/her family, the residential social worker from the institution will write a report of the child's progress. The report is attached to the external social worker's report then taken to children's court before the child is returned home. If the circumstances are conducive, the child will be transported back home for reunification. When the child is reunited with family, the external social worker is expected to do home visits to monitor how the child is coping.

Participants stressed that, before the child is returned back home, the social worker who traces the family must ensure that the parents were not involved in trafficking of the child. Although the child belongs with family, it is important that an investigation is first conducted to check on how the child was trafficked to ensure that parents were not involved and to assess if there are chances of the child being re-trafficked. Participants 0003 and 0029 indicated that, if parents were involved in the trafficking of the child, a criminal case is opened against the parents whilst the child is kept at the institution. Corroborating this, the DoJ and CD (2013:42) highlights that, if the children's court suspects that the child has been trafficked by the parent or guardian, that person's parental responsibilities must be revoked and the child must be placed in a temporary place of safety while investigations are underway. According to the Children's Act 38 of 2005, the best interests of the child are paramount before any decision that affects the child is reached (DSD 2005:22). Participant 0018 stated that reunification of the child with his/her family and repatriation solely depend on the outcome of the investigations.

The child is the centre guide of the investigation and whatever decision we reach, we ensure it is in the best interest of the child. We rely on law enforcements' investigations and we also listen to child response about going back home. (Participant 0018)

Participant 0001 added that the child is not just sent home but the child is interviewed first about his/her willingness to go home.

Based on the reports from stakeholders involved and the child's response, then the report will be compiled for children's court and a decision will be made whether the child should go back home or not. If not, maybe due to

parent-child anger and conflict issues, we then refer to psychologist to look deeper and see if we can't call parents for joint therapy. If it needs police investigation, then we refer to police. (Participant 0001)

Participants 002, 0004 and 0005 further explained that risk assessments are often conducted by the DSD where the field social worker will investigate the wellbeing of the family. The external social worker will visit and investigate the family background before the child can be returned back home.

When the time for child to return back home is approaching, the field social worker will arrange child's weekends home visits in which the social worker will accompany the child home to observe how the child is bonding with family. (Participant 0004)

Normally the child would ask 'when am I going home?' while others may not want to go but, through the supervised visits, the social worker can tell from the body language in conversations between the child and parent as well to observe bonding to see the readiness of the child to go home. Also the child verbal request to go home. However, if according to investigation outcome, it is not in the best interest of the child to go home, foster care will be opted for where the family member will be asked to take care of the child. (Participant 0003)

Participant 0013 explained that if the investigation by the external social worker reveals that the family is dysfunctional (i.e. parents are alcoholics, abusive or there are signs of domestic violence), the child is kept at the care centre while the social worker works with the family through their issues. If the family is not ready to take the child back or it was implicated in trafficking of the child, the court will then recommend foster care or children's home (refer to Children's Act 38 of 2005 and also sub-section 3.5.2).

5.4 IMPACT OF CHILD TRAFFICKING ON THE VICTIM

The impact of child trafficking on the victims, as reported by participants in this research, is in agreement with those discussed in Chapter 2 (see section 2.6). Both literature and the results of this study reveal that child trafficking negatively affects the

victim physically, psychologically, socially and educationally.

5.4.1 Physical impact

Health issues associated with being a victim of child trafficking, as reported by participants in this study, as well as in the literature (see section 2.6), range from acquiring sexually transmitted diseases, HIV/AIDS infection, unplanned pregnancies and abortions to the contraction of diseases such as TB and malaria. Participants also highlighted that victims also suffer from malnutrition because of the lack of a healthy diet or due to going for long periods without eating. The lack of adequate medical care exacerbates the negative impact child trafficking has on the health of the victim. ILO et al (2009:35) confirm (in section 2.6) that victims are denied access to medical care because traffickers are afraid they will be reported to authorities. However, if health conditions of victims worsen, the traffickers will then accompany victims to the hospital (ILO et al 2009:35). Travis and Sharshenkulov (2013:251) add that, if victims are taken to hospital, they are treated for septic, untreated and contagious wounds, bruises, cuts and scratches on genitals (refer to section 2.6.2). In addition, Participant 0026 revealed that the traffickers do not use physical violence or force as a first resort but only when victims are not cooperating.

... if victims refuse to cooperate, violence is used. However, violence is used as last resort because traffickers do not want to hurt their victims because they want to exploit them they can be able to exploit them further. [But when violence is applied] the victims suffer in such a way that organs are damaged, bones are broken, limbs are broken ... (Participant 0026)

In agreement with the above statement, Burke (2013:17) says that, although the pimp may seem to be protecting the victims, he/she may also be exposing them to danger by trying to keep them under control through physical violence, sexual assault or even give them drugs when prostituted (see sub-section 2.4.2). Sexual abuse is discussed in detail under the next section.

5.4.2 Sexual abuse

According to Dottridge (2006:18), traffickers prefer to exploit children rather than adults because they are defenceless and powerless. Kane (2013:126) adds that trafficked

children who are exploited sexually are mostly adolescents who are forced to have sex with paedophiles depending on the preferences of clients in the brothels. UN.GIFT (2015:np) posits that victims are normally housed and fed by the traffickers and are forced to provide sexual activities such as prostitution or pornography. ILO and IPEC (2002:17) further indicate that victims suffer more pain in the sex trade as they are forced to accept large numbers of clients per day and children, unlike adults, cannot negotiate safe sex with their clients.

They are just kids, if they refuse to do anything, the traffickers would beat them and they are defenceless, they cannot even fight back, they are powerless. It was hard for the victims and worse to be subjected to things that are done by elderly people. When sleeping with these men, they cannot exercise the right to choose the age of the person to sleep with or even whether that person uses a condom or not. ... the men they sleep with do horrible things they do not even do with their partners because these victims are children and vulnerable. These victims would say they were forced to sleep with 10-15 men per day. (Participant 0014)

Traffickers maximise their profit from sexually exploiting their victims through imposing multiple clients to sleep with the victims per day (Lutya & Lanier 2012:559). This puts the victims under strain because sleeping with 10-15 men per day may damage their bodies and they may eventually develop chronic cervical cancer or experience complications such as sepsis, genital abdominal trauma, chronic pelvic pain and infertility due to forced unsafe abortions (WHO 2015:8). This is exacerbated by the fact that women and young girls are seen and treated by men as sex objects (see subsection 4.4.3).

Furthermore, as discussed in section 2.3.4.2, paedophiles enjoy defying the taboo of having sex with children and use their inexperience of sexual activities and small body sizes to reaffirm their manhood and also to feed their emotional dominance to boost their self-esteem (Hughes 2004:27).

5.4.3 Psychological impact

The psychological effects which trafficking has on child victims after being rescued, as

reported by the Participants, ranged from trauma, nightmares, flashbacks, bedwetting, difficulty socialising with other children and their communities to negative impacts on their general psychological development. Victims also experience emotions such as fear, depression, anger and lack of trust. The latter will be elaborated on more under the section on social impact.

Victims suffer psychological and traumatic pain because of their experience which leaves a scar ... (Participant 002)

The victims will have nightmares and flashbacks. They will also have difficulty in integrating with other children when placed at the place of safety. The child fails to develop as well as progress like any normal child because, while trafficked, they were forced to live like adults and suddenly must behave like children again. The experience they go through damages the child psychologically. (Participant 0001)

The victims constantly show signs of fearfulness; they fear for their lives. They develop difficulty in relating and trusting other people. They re-live the experiences as if it is happening now although it has passed. (Participant 0013)

For [a] child victim it is worse because the child is forced to grow up quickly and start behaving like an adult. The impact has long-term consequences. How do you expect a nine-year-old to start behaving like an adult? When they come to the CYCC, the Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) starts manifesting. These victims skipped childhood stages and now they are sexually active, violent, and angry as well as drug addicted. They have anger against other children, looking at other kids they ask themselves 'why this person chose me?' (Participant 0014)

If it was labour exploitation, it will cause mental harm to the victims because the child is still developing, the next thing he/she is doing adult duties. The beatings cause harm and they suffer nightmares, trauma, depression, anxiety they will need psychological intervention to function well. (Participant 0015)

Even though participants expressed that the lack of trust by participants is one of the impediments to offering them appropriate care, service providers must attempt to gain the participants' trust back because order and relatedness are among the victims' basic needs as highlighted in sections 3.4.3.1 and 3.4.3.2. A programme which cannot meet the above-mentioned basic needs would be considered ineffective.

5.4.3.1 Drug addiction

As previously reported under the literature chapter in sub-section 2.3.2, victims of child trafficking are often forced to take drugs as a method of controlling them and manipulating their dependence on the trafficker and, as a result, they become dependent on whichever substance they are forced to take. Drugs are then used by traffickers to control the victims which, in turn, makes it difficult for victims to escape even when an opportunity arises (refer to sub-section 2.3.2.7).

Very often, these victims are forced on drugs. Initially they will say no because all their lives the parents told them not to but slowly they will take them and eventually get addicted. They will see using of drugs as their coping mechanism. When they ask for the next fix, the traffickers would say 'no, no you know what you have to do to get your next fix' therefore drugs are used to control them and also make impossible for the victims to run away even when opportunity arrives. (Participant 0001)

Traffickers force victims to take drugs until they eventually get addicted in order to keep them obedient. When victims are dependent on drugs, it is then easy for traffickers to exploit them as they depend on their supplier for drugs (ILO et al 2009:34). The stigma attached to drug addiction and abuse makes it difficult for victims to be reintegrated into their communities.

5.4.4 Social impact

As briefly touched on in sub-section 4.2.4.1, the language barrier and isolation from families have a social impact on victims even after they have been rescued and brought into care centres. The responses below from the research participants reiterate that, when trafficked victims are placed with people they do not know, they are kept in unfamiliar environments where inhabitants speak foreign languages.

The victims were abused and stayed with people they do not know and could not even express themselves in their language which frustrated and destroyed the child. The future of the child will be destroyed. (Participant 001)

The victims were kept in isolation and were around people they do not know or even speak the language known to victims, which make them frustrated. The frustration continues even after rescued as social workers try to engage in conversation with them they cannot converse back and they just stare at you looking scared. (Participant 007)

Victims struggle with sense of belonging at the centres especially non South African victims who cannot speak any South African language. Those who are trafficked from other provinces cannot speak the dominating language, for example, a child from Limpopo whose indigenous language is Xitsonga may not be able to speak Zulu. (Participant 0010)

The victims are traumatised by the isolation and being around people they do not know, who speak language they do not understand. They feel frustrated and, as social workers, whenever we try to engage in conversation with them, they just stare at you looking scared. (Participant 0011)

The above responses show that the exposure of victims to a foreign environment is perpetuated when they are brought into care centres where they do not know anyone. As a result, victims continue to feel frustrated because, although they are removed from traffickers, they still find themselves among strangers conversing in unknown languages. Subsequently, the difficulty communicating prevents victims from expressing themselves and/or socialising with other children at the centres. In addition, after being re-united with their families, victims of trafficking may also experience stigmatisation from the society or self-stigmatisation which can greatly affect their relationship with the community and their neighbours (also refer to section 2.6.4). Consequently, due to shame and difficulty rekindling relationships, victims are likely to regress to antisocial behaviour (see OVCTTAC 2012:10).

The stigma from the community can impact them negatively, especially if the child was exposed to prostitution because, when reintegrated, the community will now label the child as a prostitute. (Participant 0015)

Participants 0001, 0014, and 0015 indicated that the victims are often emotional and they do not trust adults, especially if they were exploited by a male, they then develop hatred towards all males. UNODC (2015:29) reports that recruiters are highly skilled individuals who are able to convince and to gain the trust of potential victims. ILO et al (2009:27) adds that victims of trafficking are usually recruited by people they are familiar with, such as neighbours, relatives, friends or lovers. They are, as a result, exploited by people they trusted. Hence, that makes it difficult to trust their caregivers which, in turn, creates a barrier between the victims and caregivers.

The victims have been taken away from home, from their families, they trusted somebody and suddenly their trust has been betrayed, they are in this environment that is toxic, so imagine how they have to fight to survive, they have become very negative ... (Participant 0015)

Participant 0016 added that some victims have a burden of promises made to their families as well as to please their parents by bringing back what was promised to their parents (by either themselves or their traffickers) when they left their homes or country. They then feel ashamed for disappointing their families with unfulfilled promises. In addition, because they are afraid of being laughed at (by their peers), when they return home, they withdraw from socialising.

5.4.5 Educational impact

Aransiola and Zariwoski (2014:519) reported, in Chapter 2, that child trafficking victims are denied access to schooling which negatively affects their normal development process and, in turn, their future (also see Odera & Malinowski 2011:27-29). Not only are the victims' rights to education infringed and their future impacted negatively, they are also removed from social support networks such as their families and communities (ILO & IPEC 2002:29).

Child trafficking affects the victim's childhood development negatively because they are locked up, forced to do what they do not want to do. Other

victims, it was their first time away from their families and they are not allowed to go to school while trafficked. Unfortunately, others remain victimised even after rescue due to lack of right papers they cannot go to school ... (Participant 0008)

5.4.6 Secondary victimisation

When victims are rescued and admitted to CYCCs, there are lot of administrative processes that expose them to secondary victimisation, such as sharing their stories over and over again with different stakeholders (i.e. social workers, psychologists, police officers, court preparation officers). However, victim rights, as discussed in the SAVC, should be respected and upheld at all times (refer to section 3.4.3.3).

... victims are victimised secondarily because the child will be interviewed by law enforcement for statement, prosecution will come to prepare the child for court, DHA may come to gather information about where the child is coming from, embassy as well will like to interview the child to be able to locate where the child is coming from, etc. Why not have one session to ask all these questions? SAPS should at least give the child a chance to normalise before asking what happened. Reliving the experience, it is really hurting this child. (Participant 0001)

It is not easy for a victim to avoid secondary victimisation hence the victim would be telling the story over and over again but it can be minimised through improved coordination between service providers. A one-stop-centre where psychologists, law enforcement, prosecutor are all housed under one roof, and can interview the victim in a systematic/coordinated way can help minimise the risk of secondary victimisation. (Participant 0002)

It is hard to avoid secondary victimisation but we minimise it by sitting in the interviews when police come to take the statement and we give guidance on what questions to ask and how to ask them in a sensitive manner to make sure the child will not be upset. We counsel and prepare the child and explain why the police are coming beforehand and do debriefing afterwards.

(Participant 0006)

Questioning of victims over and over is understandable because the police may come to take statement and this child would agree to be interviewed but withhold information or lie. The police would realise dishonesty in the story and come back for more information. Unfortunately the victims would feel being forced to talk about what they do not want to talk and feel like reliving the trauma. (Participant 0010)

Secondary victimisation is due to trust issues. Police keep coming because the victims keep changing their story however it is due to fear instilled by traffickers therefore the police will keep coming to confirm the story. We normally sit in the interviews because the victims end up trusting us and our presence ease up the frustrations, but what we realised and observed is that these victims doesn't like repeating the stories; it is like reliving what happened. We do counsel them and debrief them to minimise the trauma although it is in their best interest to share their stories because the other stakeholders such as court preparations officials want to be sure they know their story for court testimony. (Participant 0012)

One participant explained that they minimise secondary victimisation by arranging therapy for the child as soon as he/she arrives at the centre:

We also explain to the child that, based on what happened to you, we don't want you to go through the same so please tell the police what happened. Unfortunately, all stakeholders involved cannot come in the same time and still the police may have to come back for more information more especially that these victims initially they do not tell truth. (Participant 0014)

Participants 0003, 0004 and 0005 stated that, to avoid secondary victimisation, the CYCC staff members ask the police to call first to make an appointment. This will allow the child to prepare and when the interview starts, the social worker to whom the case is assigned sits in the interview and explains the procedure. If the child is not yet ready to share what happened, the police are requested to arrange another interview.

Participant 0014 stated that the staff at the centres are sensitised and asked to be sensitive when interacting with the victims.

Participant 0020 indicated that to avoid secondary victimisation and the reliving of the trauma, forensic social workers from the SAPS take the statements since they are trained and equipped to deal with children:

We send forensic social workers from SAPS because they were trained to specialise with children and to understand the trauma the victims went through to avoid secondary victimisation. (Participant 0020)

On the contrary, Participants 0008 and 009 disagreed with the above.

Forensic social workers from SAPS never came to take statements, I have never seen one. SAPS send normal police officer to take statements. The only forensic social workers we use are from Teddy Bear clinic and we send our victims there for counselling. The Teddy Bear clinic helps to minimise secondary victimisation because children are treated and counselled by experts who know how to speak to a child in a children's language. (Participant 0008)

Ever since I started working with child trafficking cases at the centre, I have never seen forensic social worker from SAPS coming to take the statement or interviewing the child. It is normal police to take statement. (Participant 0009)

A suggestion made by two participants was that, in order to minimise secondary victimisation, one stop sessions where the psychologist, social worker, police officer, official from the embassy or DHA and prosecutor should be arranged so that they can all meet at once and only one individual must ask questions. During this session, everyone should then write what information is needed on their side in order to protect victims from going through more interrogations. Also suggested was that, after the said session, the therapist should have a debriefing session with the victim.

Section 5.4 discussed how the crime of child trafficking impacts victims psychologically, emotionally, physically, socially and educationally. It also elaborated

on how this crime robs victims of the privilege of growing up in loving homes with their families to enjoy their childhood but also denies the victims the possibility of a bright future. Of concern is the secondary victimisation which victims are put through by the CJS. The latter contradicts the principles of victimology, objectives of the VEP, aims of the SCVC and guidelines on how to treat victims of human trafficking by both the TiP Act and the Palermo Protocols since these specify that care should be taken not to subject victims to secondary victimisation (refer to sections 3.2, 3.3.1, 3.4.3.3, 3.5.1 & 3.7). Consequently, it is evident from this section that the pain, brokenness, hopelessness and trauma experienced by victims renders aftercare support a critical element of dealing with victims of child trafficking (see the proceeding sections for more discussion on aftercare support).

5.5 CURRENT AFTERCARE PROGRAMMES

Aftercare programmes should be meant to heal the physical, psychological and emotional pain suffered by victims when trafficked. According to 19 participants, DSD offers various institutional programmes. As mentioned under section 5.3, CYCCs accommodate various victims (i.e. victims of domestic violence, sexual abuse and neglect, orphans and child trafficking victims). Therefore, programmes are designed to offer support, as outlined in the VEP, to all of the above-mentioned victims (see sub-section 3.3.1.2).

Participant 0004 indicated that, even though victims of child trafficking are provided the same programmes as all other victims at the care centres, additional ones are provided to victims of child trafficking. Participants reported that the following programmes were, at the time of the study, offered at the CYCCs to all children, including victims of child trafficking:

- Victim empowerment
- HIV/AIDS
- Child care and protection
- Drugs and substance abuse
- Sporting activities which include swimming, soccer and educational drama

- Individual and group therapeutic sessions.

When victims are admitted to the institutions, they are offered group and individual therapy which is aimed at helping them to discover underlying issues, such as abuse by parents, for example, before the child was a victim of trafficking. Therapeutic services are rendered internally and those victims who suffered sexual abuse during trafficking are referred to Teddy Bear Clinic or Kids Clinic for counselling.

Life skills programmes include anger and conflict management, hygiene, health care, time management, communication skills, behaviour management, behavioural modification, anti-bullying and independent living.

- **Crime prevention**

Under crime prevention, human trafficking awareness programmes are conducted to help victims to understand the crime of child trafficking and its various impacts:

We sometimes let them watch child trafficking movies then discuss afterwards what the victims learnt about child trafficking. (Participant 009)

- **Family preservations**

This programme emphasises care and support offered to families in order to encourage and facilitate parent-child bonds and reunion with parents or caregivers.

- **Schooling**

As discussed under section 5.3, child trafficking interrupts schooling for the victims therefore, when victims are rescued and placed at the CYCCs, they are taken back to school as a way of normalising their daily routines whilst investigations and family tracing are underway.

According to participants, some CYCCs have in-house schools within the institution that cater for Grades 0-9 only. In these instances, Grade 10-12 victims use schools in the community. However, due to the lack of identity documents, it is often difficult for the children to be admitted to these schools. The following participants' responses support the aforementioned but the probable security risk of enrolling a rescued victim of child trafficking in a school outside the care centre is also highlighted:

*Outside schools also threaten their safety however, if there is no risk identified, then the child will be taken to outside school that is contracted to the safe house which would understand the safety of the children. Taking them to outside school is a challenge because Department of Education (DoE) needs identity document of a child and parents, previous grade results, etc. but we try to plead with school management and attach court order and motivational letter from head of CYCC. **(Participant 0008)***

*For the victims who do not have the identity documents or having the falsified ones, we normally write motivation and attach court order for school to admit our children but that doesn't help much because, even if the school accommodate them, but when they do matric they cannot get matric certificate. **(Participant 0011)***

*To ensure their safety, we only allow institution drivers and caregivers to be only one transporting them and we tell them never to allow anyone fetch them or use any other car except our staff with which branded institutions name to pick them up after school. We also arrange with school that no one outside can access the child without the institution knowing. If there are outside activities, the trafficked victims will be excluded, which will frustrate the child, because the child will feel side-lined but it would be in the best interest of the child and safety. Our children, we treat them the same, we try to normalise their lives while taking into consideration their safety which sometimes disadvantage the trafficked victims. **(Participant 0004)***

Participant 0011 expounded that another challenge posed is determining in which Grade a victim of cross-border trafficking was in their country of origin. As a result, in such cases the child is asked to provide the necessary information but it was said that one cannot always fully rely on the information given by the child and thus social workers are requested to step in to assess the child. School management also conducts further screening of the child in order to establish the Grade he/she should be placed in.

As discussed under previous sections in this chapter and Chapter 3, is that the language barrier continues to be one of the major challenges in providing care and

support to victims. Even after gaining access into the school, victims cannot fully participate in learning because the language of teaching used in schools is often not their home languages.

You may find the child speaks Portuguese and the school cannot teach that language but, as children, eventually they adapt and others learn faster than others. (Participant 0004)

Contrary to the preceding discussion, two participants revealed that victims do not attend school in their institutions because the schools are only for children in conflict with the law and outside schools cannot admit victims of child trafficking, firstly, for safety reasons and, secondly, due to the lack of identity documents.

They are trafficked victims not children in conflict with law therefore they will just stay in the institution and do other programmes, while waiting for their embassies to locate the families and sent in papers and be repatriated back to their country of origin. (Participant 0008)

The victims continue to suffer secondary victimisation because our school in the institution cannot admit them. The CYCC school is only for children in conflict with the law therefore child trafficking victims cannot be registered and be enrolled. To keep the victims busy, we do life skills programmes with them when others are attending school. We also teach them bed making and other household chores. If it is internal trafficking, we ask our field social worker to, as soon as we have traced the family, to ask for the documents so that the child can go to school while investigations are still on and we ask outside school to communicate with us anything or anyone ask access to the child. (Participant 0009)

Lack of schooling is a violation of children's rights because, according to the Constitution of South Africa (1996), everyone, including children, has a right to basic education which the government must make available and accessible. Education plays an important role in the development of children, giving them a key to unlock their future.

5.5.1 Shelters for child trafficking victims

When participants were asked if there are any shelters specifically meant for victims of child trafficking they all (n=30) said no. Participants unanimously reported that, whereas there are shelters for adult victims of trafficking, victims of child trafficking are housed in CYCCs. Governor and Cutrone (2013:7) agree, as discussed in sub-section 3.6.2, that child trafficking victims are mixed with other child victims. Following the question on the availability of CYCCs for victims of child trafficking, participants were asked whether the current centres are able to meet the specific needs of victims of child trafficking. Some of the following verbatim responses were recorded:

We are not able to meet victims' needs but it helps them to be among other children because these children are too traumatised that the only person to trust is just other children hence they felt betrayed by adults. It is good for them being amongst other children because they won't feel alienated and treated differently. Children adapt easy and learn other language quickly and they play and relate well as the same peers. (Participant 0003)

The victims are placed in CYCC with other victims. Remember when being trafficked socially they are isolated from family and friends so when they come to the institutions we give them sense of socialisation. Mixing them with other children helps them adjust easily with other children; we give them a normal life and sense of home. (Participant 0011)

I am not sure if there are institutions specifically for child trafficking victims but the ones we have in our centre are mixed with other victims. We try to cater for their needs. Their needs for therapy are met to deal with pain as we refer them to psychologists, educational needs, we take them to school although the school cannot teach in their Shona or Portuguese language, we take them to English school. (Participant 0012)

We mix them which it is good for the victims because, even though the other victims were not trafficked, but they have been abused so they may have something in common. Mixing them with others helps [them] to learn other languages, feel not isolated and stigmatised. They are not isolated

otherwise they would be depressed but mixing with others helps to share experiences. (Participant 006)

Mixing them with other children benefits them because it brings them to normality. We bring them to say this and that has happened, but come back to life and associate with other kids and feel like a kid again. Playing and associating with other children is for everyone but we have got specialised programmes according to their needs. Needs such as therapy for trauma, medical attention for HIV, assault, needs for shelter, clothing, toiletries, repatriation allowance, diet that accommodate their health ... Those who are traumatised, we give them time to heal before we allow law enforcement to take statements. (Participant 0014)

In opposition to the above, Participants 0014,0016, 0017 and 0018 argued that, even though there are no specific shelters for victims of child trafficking, CYCCs are able to meet their needs because they receive medical care and counselling by psychologists and social workers.

Although it was unanimously reported by the participants that mixing of victims of child trafficking with victims of other forms of child abuse is good for normalisation, Governor and Cutrone (2013:7) contend that victims of child trafficking should be housed in their own shelters with specialised services because CYCC shelters lack the necessary resources to meet their specific needs. All things considered, like the discussion on programmes offered to victim of child trafficking, the above discussion proves that aftercare centres, in their current state, are not adequately resourced to empower and support victims of child trafficking.

5.5.2 Safety measures taken during repatriation

According to DoJ and CD (2013:42), the Directors General of DSD and of DHA should, before a victim of child trafficking is repatriated to his/her country of origin, ensure it is in the best interests of the child to return him/her home. The DoJ and CD (2012:42) also emphasises that care should be taken to ensure that the child is safe during the repatriation process. Risk assessments should be done as discussed under section 5.10 before the victim is released. Participants in this study indicated that IOM, ISS,

Red Cross, DIRCO, DHA and embassies have the responsibility of ensuring safe repatriation of international victims (see section 5.8). Participants 0006 and 00017 indicated that the stakeholders' mandate is to work as a collective and to follow the appropriate repatriation guidelines as stipulated in the TiP Act.

As social workers, we prepare the child that you are going home this is what is going to happen. Social worker, together with police, take the child to the border to be received by social worker and parents of the child. IOM send someone to accompany victims home, they will be received by the social worker and be taken to place of safety in that country. Their parents will be screened first before taking the children home. (Participant 0006)

We use ISS, Red Cross, and IOM; in countries without these mentioned organisations, we use embassies. Children will be accompanied by designated external or residential social worker in SA to their country of origin. (Participant 0019)

Where the use of a social worker to escort the victims to their homes is concerned, the above undertakings by participants agree with guidelines as highlighted in the TiP Act (DoJ&CD 2013:43).

5.5.3 Care arrangements after repatriation

As discussed under section 5.3, trafficked children suffer unbearable pain and the methods traffickers use to control them have long term negative effects such as drug dependence, mental breakdown and chronic diseases. As a result, the victims require long term treatment which may continue after their release from the CYCCs.

Participants 0003 and 0007 explained that, when the child is about to be released, the therapist drafts a future plan for the child's recovery progress at home which allows the child to continue seeing the therapist. The participants further indicated that the social workers also encourage parent-child bonding so that the child receives all the support needed in his/her journey of recovery:

We recommend the child continue with therapy because the child may suffer PTSD. External social worker will also visit the child in first 3-6

months to monitor if the child is coping. (Participant 0008)

The programmes we offer the victims at the institutions do not only help them at the centres but they also prepare the child to continue recovering even at home. When the child is not yet okay, a therapist attach recommendation to the victim's report to continue with therapy and further advise parents to join the child for support. (Participant 0006)

If the victim is from outside SA, we cannot monitor the progress because it would be out of our jurisdiction although we advise social services in that country to alert therapists to take off where we left to assist the victim. (Participant 0012)

When victims are in our care, we can take care of them, but when they went home, it is hard to guarantee 100% protection. (Participant 0003)

There seemed to be contradictions in the answers provided by participants regarding the aftercare of victims after repatriation. Some reported that the victim is able to continue with counselling after release from the CYCC while others indicated that, once the victims are released from care centres, they are no longer provided with aftercare services such as psychological counselling. If the latter is true, it is problematic as the trauma caused by the crime of trafficking is dire and, as a result, victims should be allowed appropriate long-term aftercare support (even after repatriation) to fully recover. Moreover, victims also require continuous protection after they have been released from the centres therefore the programmes offered at the centres must also equip victims to protect themselves from re-trafficking. Even though participants explained that, when victims are returned home, they are accompanied by social workers to ensure their safe arrival, participants also unanimously revealed that, once victims are out of the institution, it cannot be guaranteed that they will be out of danger. Victims are, together with their parents, therefore taught how to protect themselves.

5.5.4 Gathering of evidence for the prosecution of offenders

According to DoJ and CD (2013:22), cross-border victims should be granted a three-month visitor's visa for recovery and a reflection period which is extendable if

necessary. This period is to enable victims to decide if they want to cooperate with the criminal justice system during the investigation and prosecution process. This also depends on the age of the victim and the amount of trauma experienced. According to Participant 0024, where taking part in the investigation and court proceedings is concerned, there are three types of victims: The first type are victims who do not want to be part of the criminal justice proceedings but want to be repatriated back to their homes. The second type of victims may want to provide information for investigation but do not want to testify in court. The third type of victims are willing to assist with both the investigation process and testimony in the court of law. Nonetheless, participants explained that, when information is gathered for investigative purposes, victims are encouraged to cooperate with law enforcement officials so that they are able to arrest and convict the perpetrators.

Participant 0030 explained that, before the victim appears before the court, court preparation officials come to the institution to guide the victim through court processes and procedures. The officials prepare victims emotionally to ensure their readiness for court. Participants from DSD further indicated that they encourage victims to tell the truth about what happened, to give as much information as they can or write everything they are able remember in a diary.

The victims' inconsistency sometimes delays progress of the investigations however we try to give police everything we think may help with the case. The victims may tell the police that the guy who took us here is my uncle, after the police left they will change their story and tell the social worker that guy is actually my dad. As soon as the child tells us that, we call the police to come back and get the story straight. The child would say I said what I was told to say by the trafficker. So the fear the trafficker instilled make them be inconsistent in their story and sometimes, due to language barrier, SAPS may not get the story straight. (Participant 0011)

Eight participants from DSD indicated that they sent children to Teddy Bear and Kids Clinic near the court date for preparation to testify in court.

5.5.5 Measures put in place to protect victims when testifying in court

When asked about the measures put in place to protect children when testifying in court, participants in this study reported that they make use of an intermediary process which protects victims from perpetrators and hostile cross examinations.

When victims of child trafficking are prepared to go and testify in court, intermediary will be appointed in favour of the victims' best interest.

(Participant 0030)

According to Participant 0030, the child witness is placed in a room separate from the court room where he/she can testify privately. The room is child friendly with toys and a sleeper couch where a child is allowed to sleep if he/she feels tired during the testimony. The room also prevents the child from seeing the people who are present in the courtroom but the courtroom is able to see the child witness through a one-way mirror Closed Circuit Television (CCTV).

The CCTV will grant victims' the opportunity and protection of testifying freely in a separate room while the testimony will be heard through that camera in the court room by court officials. Only the court officials will be part of the court proceedings. The aim will be to ensure the protection of victims and for the victims to testify freely without intimidation. (Participant 0029)

The above-mentioned procedures, as followed and explained by the research participants, meet the intermediary process requirements highlighted in the Criminal Procedure Act 51, of 1977 (hereinafter referred to as the Criminal Procedure Act). According to section 170A of the Criminal Procedure Act, children under the age of 18 years who testify in court must have an intermediary who is a competent person through whom the evidence will be presented in order to protect the child from being exposed to the perpetrator and court intimidation (DoJ&CD 1977:94). The purpose of an intermediary is to convey the questions asked by court officials to the child witness in a sensitive manner and in a language understood by the child.

5.6 EFFECTIVENESS OF CURRENT AFTERCARE PROGRAMMES

As a follow up to the preceding question, participants were asked if they believe that the current aftercare support and programmes offered to victims of child trafficking are affective. Sixteen of the participants submitted that, in their opinion, the programmes are effective.

The programmes are fruitful because, when the child leaves here, when we do follow ups, we get feedback that the child is bubbly and happy after the being reunified with parents. They come here sad but eventually, as they attend to these programmes, they lighten up. They seem to forget their trauma and start leading a normal life again and focus on their self-image. Even when they leave the centre, they wouldn't want to because of the good experience they had, others would even looking forward to be going home with excitement. (Participant 0004)

Participant 0011 added that they see the effectiveness of the programmes in the victims' health and wellbeing:

Physically, other victims come with malnutrition. After few months, we see change gaining weight and improving health wise. Psychologically, through therapy, they pull through, we witness change in victim's lives. (Participant 0011)

On the other hand, participants argued that, despite the effectiveness of the programmes, issues such as the language barrier and trust issues, to a certain extent, interfere with the effectiveness of the programmes (also see sections 5.2, 5.3 and 5.6). In therapy, for example, the therapist may struggle to communicate with the victim. Trust issues, as discussed before, also seem to hamper the progress of therapeutic programmes because victims must trust service providers before they are able to be helped.

Participants 0008 and 0010 argued that the programmes offered to victims are neither effective nor sustainable. The former is attributed to difficulties such as the centres not being fully equipped to deal specifically with victims of child trafficking while the latter is said to be due to challenges faced during the reintegration with the family as victims

often relapse.

Remember, these victims are mixed with other children, such as children in conflict with law, so they relapse to substance abuse and dating wrong boys and absconding because of frustration of being in the centre for a long time. When their peers gets visitation, they do not get any, maybe because the parents are outside the country or field social worker is still tracing family.
(Participant 0008)

We are not equipped for child trafficking victims per se therefore the effectiveness of the programmes is difficult because these programmes are actually designed for various types of victims, such as abandoned children, abused kids, children in conflict with the law; every child with no place come here. We do not have specific programmes for these children. In most cases, I do not think they benefit the way they should. If they can have a place where they specifically deal with trafficking victims, they would be effective because these victims suffer more pain than other victims and they will be given more attention. **(Participant 0010)**

Participant 0008 further indicated that, when victims of child trafficking have been in care centres for a long time with no contact with their families, no schooling and a lack of progress in investigation, they eventually lose hope:

It is like, whatever we have done is being flushed down the drain. If they would receive therapy, then move swiftly to the homes, the programmes were going to be more effective. Other children stay here for three years not attending school, because they are trafficked victims, and they end up frustrated. **(Participant 0008)**

Participants 0008, 009 and 0014 said that, for the victims who stay in the institutions for long periods, the programmes are not effective compared to those who stay for a short period:

These programmes are only effective if the child leaves quickly. The longer the child stays seeing other children getting visitations, coming and leaving,

leads to the child being frustrated especially that the child would also not be attending school. (Participant 0008)

Although we see the effectiveness of the programmes in the victims' change of behaviour and the way they communicate with their peers, but others, they miss their parents, become emotional and start throwing tantrums. Other victims will even ask you 'how would you feel without your child next to you?' They ask many unanswered questions and will tell you 'I miss my mom, dad, siblings'. The South African ones, its better because, once their families are traced, the parents can visit but outside South African victims' families cannot due to financial constraints. (Participant 0009)

We see change in child's life and reunification is crucial however if parents are not found, it affect the programme progress of the child. (Participant 0014)

According to the above-mentioned responses, it can thus be deduced that, due to various challenges, as highlighted by participants, aftercare programmes offered to the victims are partially fruitful. Challenges encountered when offering aftercare to victims of child trafficking are further highlighted in next section.

5.7 CHALLENGES FACED WITH VICTIM AFTERCARE SUPPORT

There are challenges that stakeholders encounter in assisting child trafficking victims which are the lack of specific shelters for victims of child trafficking, victims' inconsistencies, the language barrier and long stays at the CYCCs. These are discussed below.

5.7.1 Lack of specific shelters for victims of child trafficking

Specific institutions for victims of child trafficking are the first challenge that works against progress of the victims. As discussed under sub-section 2.8.1, child trafficking victims have some similarities with domestic violence victims, orphans, children in conflict with the law, abandoned children or rape victims. However, they do not share the same pain and experience the same trauma. Governor and Cutrone (2013:7) posit

that, at these shared shelters, human trafficking victims have fewer resources available to help them with their specialised needs, hence it is crucial to have separate shelters for trafficking victims. This finding is in line with the literature as the lack of specific shelters for victims of child trafficking was pointed out as a challenge in section 3.7.1.

5.7.2 Victims' inconsistency

According to participants, victims are inconsistent in their stories of what happened to them; they keep changing stories and may lie because they think they are protecting themselves from further harm. However, it becomes difficult for those offering care to do it effectively if they do not know exactly what happened:

Traffickers betrayed the victims' trust therefore they find it harder to trust anyone. It is like they tell the police what they were told to say by the traffickers while that is not what really happened. The children would even be aggressive and sometimes they just say nothing. They shut their minds, sometimes they lie in order to avoid the real issue. Based on their experience of witnessing the horrible things that traffickers did to people who betrayed them, they will withhold information and [are] terrified of speak out. (Participant 001)

As discussed under section 5.4, victims take time to adjust in the institutions due to shock and trauma. They take time to process and make sense of what happened to them while harbouring the fear instilled in them by traffickers. As a result, it is understandable that they would take time to trust again.

5.7.3 Lack of vetted interpreters

Language has been discussed considerably throughout this chapter as one of the barriers to offering victims the care they require. Unfortunately, it does not only delay the victims' full recovery but also the investigations. It is for this reason that the need for trained interpreters is one of the requirements highlighted in the TiP ACT as discussed in section 3.5.1.1. So, the failure of the centres to provide interpretation services is a serious challenge. The participants expressed that the reason why there are communication issues between victims and caregivers is because identifying and

hiring vetted interpreters is difficult. The lack of interpreters is expressed in the following responses:

In some cases, we either call embassy. If embassy is taking forever to respond, we ultimately ask from the nearest foreign shop that speak the child's indigenous language to come and assist in interpretation because we will be needing assistance immediately. (Participant 0008)

We may go to DOJ to ask for interpreters but sometimes the interpreter of that particular language may not be available then we may go to the embassy. Going to embassy is also a challenge because you may find someone who might be compromisingly involved in the trafficking ring. While trying to figure out how are you going to assist the victims without compromising the case, you are sitting with the victim, bleeding and hopelessly crying in front of you, and you must get legitimate interpreter who speaks the victim's language as soon as possible. Investigating child trafficking case is very hard and circumstances are different. You cannot tell a person that when someone is trafficked go to page 2 of this and that document or do 1, 2, 3. Every case is different and circumstances can never be the same. (Participant 0020)

Governor and Cutrone (2013:7) agree that victims of child trafficking may fail to understand service providers' languages which contributes negatively to service providers' willingness to attend to the victims' needs in cases where there are no interpreters available (refer to sub-section 3.7.1).

5.7.4 Documentation

Reiterated by participants is that the main challenge presented by the lack of victim identification documents is admission to schools, as discussed in detail under section 5.5. It was mentioned that the request made to DHA by the SAPS and NPA for a child to be legally permitted to stay in the country until she/he is repatriated, does not cover schooling. Participant 0028 explained, as stated above, that, if the DSD plans to enrol the child in a school, a study visa, which can be issued and affixed on the passport, can be applied for. However, if a child has no passport, the DHA cannot issue a study

visa.

TiP Act says minister can issue temporary visa for reflection period which must be affixed on the passports and the DSD cannot request the schooling permit because they do not deal with criminal proceedings but with care and repatriation. The SAPS and NPA are the ones to make the request because the motivation for the request must be run in court that concerns criminal investigations. Therefore, the victims stay in the institutions until they testify and, without right papers, they would not be attending school. (Participant 0028)

If DSD and DoE take the child to school with court order and motivational letter, the child will be staying in the country illegally because those mentioned documents do not replace identity document of the child and cannot be recognised as such. (Participant 0028)

It is for the above reason that Participant 0028 recommended that, if possible, victims should be repatriated and come back only to testify because, if they stay in South Africa, they cannot be documented.

5.7.5 Lack of stakeholders' coordination

Participants unanimously reported that lack of coordination between the various stakeholders involved in the offering of aftercare support to the victims is one of the major challenges faced:

What is urgent to me, might not be to you. The stakeholders promise to come to case conferences but never come. Priorities of different stakeholders may compromise child's best interests. Investigations are delayed which left the child frustrated because the child would not know when they are going home. Unlike adults, court order does not allow children to go; adult can go if they want to and these kids will eventually abscond – feel they are held against their will. Long time in the centres may cause them to forget what happened. If we release them home, who will pay for them when they come to testify? And you will find family doesn't have money for the costs. Police may rush interview and you will find that

the child is not yet ready and others will take time to talk, instead they lie.

(Participant 0014)

Participant 0007 indicated that lack of support from some crucial service providers prolongs cases to an extent where some children spend approximately five years in centres waiting for their cases to be resolved. This was also highlighted as a challenge in the literature (refer to section 3.7.1).

Based on the preceding discussion, it can be agreed that the above-mentioned challenges are hampering the service providers to provide effective aftercare support to victims of child trafficking. All stakeholders involved should attend to the above challenges in order to ensure that victims receive the support they deserve. Furthermore, programmes currently offered to victims should be evaluated to ensure that their designs assist them to recover. When victim aftercare support is effective and secondary victimisation is avoided, victims are likely to cooperate with law enforcement officials. Aftercare can also encourage survivors to educate communities to understand the crime of child trafficking and how to prevent it.

5.8 SUMMARY

Victims of child trafficking are, on daily basis, likely to be encountered by the community, specialised officers and non-governmental organisations. Based on the varying negative effects child trafficking has on its victims, continuous training of law enforcement, social workers, psychologists, health workers, government officials and all stakeholders involved in dealing with victims of child trafficking is imperative. Failure to do the afore-mentioned and to tackle all the challenges, as presented in this chapter, robs the victims of the care and support they require. This chapter provided a detailed analysis of the data collected from the 30 participants of the study and findings were presented under the following main themes: victim identification and rescue; the impact the crime of child trafficking has on victims; the various programmes offered to child trafficking victims; the effectiveness of these programmes as well as challenges faced by stakeholders when offering aftercare support to victims of child trafficking. The next chapter is an extension of the current in that it provides a summary of the discussed findings, recommendations and closing remarks.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarises the findings based on the aims and objectives as outlined in Chapter 1. It also provides answers to the initial research questions through the literature review that gave the background and extent of human trafficking in general to the specific attention given to children as the victims and the aftercare support they receive post rescue or escape from their captors using the TiP Act and children's legislations as well as victimology theories. It additionally provides answers to programmes explored that are offered to child victims to ensure they recover from trafficking experiences before being returned to their families. It also discusses the limitations of the study and outlines the recommendations. Moreover, it gives a summary of the chapters that were discussed throughout this study.

6.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

The summary of findings is based on the objectives of this study as well as the supplementary research questions as discussed in detail in section 1.3.2. Objective number five is met and discussed under the recommendations section which follows this section.

6.2.1 Objective 1: Gaining an understanding of the phenomenon of child trafficking

This objective was met through an in-depth review of literature as discussed in Chapter 2 where the foundation was laid by expounding on the history of human trafficking as well as on the nature and extent of the crime (see sections 2.2–2.3). The goal was further achieved through a thorough discussion of the modus operandi in terms of the trafficking network where various roles, such as the recruiter, agent, document forger, the transporter, the employer and corrupt government officials are described (see section 2.4.1). To explain the phenomenon of child trafficking, various ways used to exploit victims (i.e. the *juju* ritual, isolation, threats and deception, debt bondage, imprisonment and drug dependency) are discussed under section 2.4.2. Chapter 2 further illuminates the phenomenon of child trafficking through looking at the causes of child trafficking as dealt with under section 2.5. The causes of child trafficking as

discussed in Chapter 2 are linked to interdisciplinary theories (i.e. demand theory, Marxist theory and feminist theories) which are further deliberated on in detail in Chapter 4. The various negative effects the crime of child trafficking has on the victim are expounded on in section 2.6. The latter is dealt with in more detail in the proceeding section.

6.2.2 Objective 2: Impact the crime has on victims

As mentioned under section 2.6, victims of child trafficking contract various communicable diseases, suffer from untreated wounds, experience respiratory sicknesses due to inhumane conditions they are kept and work in which negatively impact victims' health and can result in lifetime chronic diseases (Travis & Sharshenkulov 2013:250-251). ILO et al (2009:35) add that children who fall ill are abandoned by their exploiters and, if they are lucky, they are found by strangers who are willing to help. Participants from this study corroborated the above literature, as previously discussed under section 2.6, by reporting (in Chapter 5, sections 5.2.1–5.2.6) that victims of child trafficking experience varying negative effects ranging from ill physical health, sexual abuse, psychological and emotional trauma, being forced to take drugs, denial of access to schooling as well as alienation from the society or their communities. Also, under section 5.2, participants reported that victims are exposed to secondary victimisation by those who are supposed to offer them support after being rescued. Participants mentioned that, due to extreme trauma caused by the trafficking experience, when the children are rescued, they may wet the bed, have sleepless nights, suffer anxiety and depict attitudes of hopelessness. Sections 2.4.1.1 and 2.4.1.7 note that, because child victims are, in certain instances, betrayed by people close to them, victims show signs of lacking trust in people, including those who are supposed to provide them with care after being rescued. This, in turn, perpetuates the negative impact trafficking has on the victim even long after rescue since the victim may be wary of forging healthy and positive relationships. In addition, the lack of trust by victims of those who are supposed to help and support them makes offering of appropriate aftercare support challenging.

6.2.3 Objective 3: Exploring and gaining more in-depth information on aftercare support for victims of child trafficking

6.2.3.1 *Victim identification*

As explained in Chapter 3 and iterated by participants in the previous chapter, victim identification is the initial and crucial step towards victim aftercare. Victims are, in most cases, identified by law enforcement officers, health workers, social workers or community workers who report incidents to the police. The participants revealed that it is easier to identify cross border victims than internal victims. Nonetheless, various clues, said to be important in the identification of victims, are as follows:

(i) Physical clues

Visible signs which law enforcement officers can look out for when identifying victims of child trafficking were reported to be scars from beatings; untreated wounds; signs of starvation such as dizziness, fatigue or low energy; dry skin; signs of having been forced to use alcohol or drugs; and any signs by the victim that he/she is unfamiliar with the country (also refer to OVCTTAC 2012:6; ILO et al 2009:20; Drew 2009:159-160 in section 2.5 and 2.6).

(ii) Social clues

Both the literature and the participants in this study explained that traffickers transport victims to unfamiliar environments therefore disorientation is one of the clues to be used by those responsible for identifying victims. The victim's inconsistency and signs of discomfort and anxiety when telling his/her story may be attributed to the fact victims are, in most instances, betrayed not only by their traffickers but by their family members or people close to them and thus find it difficult to trust anyone. This lack of trust becomes an impediment for the provision of effective aftercare support.

(iii) Psychological and emotional clues

Emotional and psychological signs used to identify victims of child trafficking are anxiety, restlessness, signs of being threatened or intimidated and fear. Participants in this research unanimously reported that the fear depicted by victims is a result of being threatened by their traffickers because they are told that, if they escape, their families would be harmed.

(iv) Language barrier

Although the language barrier is a stumbling block for victim identification as victims cannot express themselves in the language spoken by the local community, being

unable to speak and understand the local dialect may reveal that the child is a stranger in the area.

6.2.3.2 *Victims rescue or escape*

The next step to offering victims of child trafficking support, as described by participants in this research as well as the literature, is victim identification. Firstly, a victim who has either escaped or was identified is sent to temporary place of safety. After victims have been rescued, they must be checked for injuries and any signs of physical or sexual assault and psychological harm. Accordingly, they must be placed in a safe place of care where they will receive immediate physical and specialised psychological support.

The condition the victim is found in will determine what must be done first. A victim who has been identified by a community member, for example, will first be taken to a place where she/he will receive medical assistance. Participants in this study noted that, although victims were forced to take part in illegal activities, they should never be treated as perpetrators. Participants added that the kind of circumstances the child is found under will dictate what one must do first, i.e. whether the victim will be taken to the police station (in the case where he/she was discovered by a community member); taken to the place of safety or taken for medical assistance. The TiP Act stipulates that the offences committed by trafficked victims cannot be prosecuted as the acts were committed under duress. Furthermore, the TiP Act highlights that, when a victim of child trafficking is rescued, Forms 1 and 2 (attached in the Act) must be completed at a temporary care centre where their basic needs are met. The latter are submitted to court for an application to permit the child to be officially placed in a place of care. The court order, issued within 24 hours, then allows for the victim to be placed in a CYCC where he/she can stay for three to six months while his/her family is being traced and where the victim is provided with aftercare support programmes.

(i) Returning of victims to their families

According to participants, for international victims, reunification arrangements with families are facilitated by IOM, ISS, Red Cross and DIRCO while DSD takes responsibility for internal victims. Before victims are returned to their homes, their best interests have to be considered. This process, firstly, entails checking whether or not

parents were involved in trafficking of the child. Secondly, the readiness of the child to go back home must also be considered before he/she is reunited with his/her family.

(ii) Victim care at the CYCC

Over and above taking care of victims' basic needs such as clothing, food and shelter, victims are provided with psychological or emotional support and medical treatment. While visitors are allowed to visit victims at the CYCCs, they are first screened to ensure that they are not traffickers. Participants stated that, when the child is at the centre, he/she is under their protection but once the child is out of the institution, they cannot guarantee protection. Nonetheless, they teach the victims how to protect themselves and they make recommendations for parents/guardians to also familiarise themselves with the programmes so they can, on a regular basis, remind the children how to take care of themselves.

(iii) Safety measures during repatriation

Victim empowerment and child protection care programmes offered at the CYCCs teach the victims how to protect themselves from being re-trafficked. But, as explained above, participants indicated that they are only able to ensure the safety of the child when he/she is still in the centre but, once released, it is difficult to ensure that the victim is safe. Whilst at the CYCC, a social worker together with an official from IOM, ISS, Red Cross or DIRCO, as mentioned before, trace the family of the victim. It is also the responsibility of these stakeholders to ensure that the victim's parents/guardians were not involved in the trafficking act. If a child is not South African, the embassy from his/her country of origin will be notified to write a letter to the DHA declaring that the trafficked child is not in possession of his/her official travelling documents. The said embassy then traces the victim's family or a chief of the community from where the child originates. Should the family be found, an affidavit is written stipulating that the child's family has been found and the parents, due to circumstances out of their power, are unable to travel to South Africa. As a result, the South African state will be requested to transport the child to his/her country of origin. In this case, the CYCC residential social worker will accompany the child to the border to ensure that he/she is safely reunited with his/her parents. In a situation where parents cannot meet their child at the border, a social worker from the child's home

country will be asked to receive the child. Moreover, should the child not want to return home, it is recommended that the social service department in his/her country of origin places him/her in a CYCC in that country. In this way, the child will still be in an environment that is familiar to him/her. Participants emphasised that a child who refuses to go back home should never be forced to do so.

(iv) Care arrangements for child when returned back home

During their stay in the CYCCs, victims attend therapy and continue with medical care. However, if they have not fully recovered before they are returned home, recommendations are made for them to continue with therapy while at home. However, the fact that families of victims are expected to carry costs for the therapy is a major challenge as most of these victims, as mentioned throughout the dissertation, are forced into human trafficking due to poverty.

(v) Court preparation

In this study, it was found that victims are prepared emotionally by the service providers before they appear in court. Participants from the DSD advise victims to be honest and preparation officers from the NPA court visit the institutions to prepare victims for the court process.

(vi) Measures put in place to protect victims when testifying in court

Participants revealed that, during court proceedings, victims are placed in child friendly rooms, separate from the actual court rooms, in which they are allowed testify via a one-way camera facilitated by a mediator. This measure prevents the child from seeing the perpetrator, court officials and everyone present. The intermediary asks the child questions and, when the child responds, his/her responses are seen and heard through the one-way camera.

6.2.4 Finding 4: Evaluation of current aftercare programmes offered to victims of child trafficking in South Africa

To evaluate the current programmes offered to victims of child trafficking in South Africa, participants were asked to respond to questions regarding the effectiveness of the programmes as well as challenges encountered in offering support to victims. The former and the latter are discussed under sections 5.5 and 5.6. As discussed under

(sub-section 3.7.1) and also supported by the participants, victims of child trafficking share shelters with other children such as orphans, abandoned children, children in conflict with the law as well as victims of domestic abuse and rape. Moreover, these children do not only share shelters but share programmes as well. As indicated in sub-section 5.5.1, mixing the victims of child trafficking with victims of other forms of child abuse is good for normalisation, however it will do much more good when victims are housed in their own shelters because CYCCs lack the necessary resources to meet their specific needs (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7). Therefore, the above discussion indicates that CCYCs are not equipped with necessary resources to empower and support victims of child trafficking before victims can be released for reunification with families.

These programmes include victim empowerment, crime prevention, life skills, HIV/AIDS education, child protection care, drugs and substance abuse, extramural activities such as sport and individual or group therapy sessions. Section 3.3.1 of this study mentions that victim empowerment forms a crucial part of effective healing. Consequently, programmes focused on achieving the objectives below should be aimed at empowering victims to take back ownership of their lives (Pretorius & Louw 2005:77; Nel & Van Wyk 2013:79) (also refer to section 3.3.1.1).

- **Identification of early symptoms of PTSD**

As found in Chapter 5 and explained above in section 6.2.3.2, one of the first things to be done when victims are rescued is to identify signs of psychological and emotional trauma after which they must be placed in a place of safety where they can be provided with immediate psychological care. Current programmes, as discussed by participants in this study, meet this objective.

- **Provision of emotional support and referral of victims for psychological care**

This objective, as per the preceding discussion and as elaborated on throughout the dissertation, is met by the current programmes.

- **Educating victims of their rights as well as the criminal justice process in order to prevent re-victimisation**

Participants reported in section 5.4.6 that some victims are prepared to appear in

court. But the biggest concern reported by participants was that the lengthy administrative process, which involves victims repeatedly telling their stories to various stakeholders such as social workers, psychologists, police officers and court preparation officers, exposes the victims to secondary victimisation. Also, the lack of service providers, such as forensic social workers trained to work with children, further increases the chances for secondary victimisation (refer to section 5.4.6).

- **Educating victims on ways of preventing re-victimisation**

Participants reported in sections 5.5.3 and 5.5 that, while at the CYCC, victims of child trafficking are taught how to protect themselves. Therefore, this objective of victim empowerment can thus be said to be met through current programmes offered to victims of child trafficking as listed and described in section 5.5 by participants in this study.

The main challenges stakeholders encounter when offering support to victims of child trafficking include placing victims of child trafficking with other victims in the CYCCs, inconsistency in victims' testimonies, lack of trust by victims, language barrier, the lack of vetted interpreters and the lack of cooperation of stakeholders.

Little was said by the participants regarding the aftercare support provided to victims once they have been re-united with their families. It seems as though after victims have been reintegrated to their families, they are not provided with support to ensure prevention of a relapse.

Even though the above VEP objectives, as discussed in section 3.3.1.1, were used to assess the aftercare programmes as currently offered by the CYCCs in South Africa, the researcher noted the inability to source the material stipulating the exact content of each of the programmes as a limitation which hampered effective evaluation.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Finding 5: Recommendations on how to care for victims of child trafficking

6.3.1 Recommendations to the State

Literature has, in this study, revealed that the South African triple challenge of

unemployment, poverty and inequality drives criminal activities such as child trafficking. As such, the researcher believes that, unless these challenges are dealt with, the battle against child trafficking will be difficult to win.

6.3.1.1 Unemployment

The results of the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS), conducted by Statistics South Africa (SSA), reveal that, during the second quarter of 2018, the unemployment rate in South Africa increased to 27,2 per cent from 26,7 per cent in first quarter of the same year (SSA 2018:np). Additionally, the expanded definition of unemployment which includes individuals who have given up looking for work increased to 37,2 per cent in quarter two of 2018 from 36,7 in the preceding quarter (SSA 2018:np). Women (particularly black women) are more vulnerable to unemployment than men. Statistics South Africa further reported that, in quarter two of 2018, black women had the highest percentage of unemployment rate, at 33,2%, followed by coloured women (22,9%), Indian/Asian women (12,2%) and white women (7,4%) (SSA 2018:np).

Based on the 2017 Global Gender Report where South Africa is ranked 19 out of 144 countries where gender equality is concerned (World Economic Forum (WEF) 2017:vii), the average salary for a man per month is R7 478 more than that of a woman. This confirms the view held by feminist theorists, as discussed under section 4.4 of this dissertation, that patriarchy is the reason why women are oppressed and discriminated against socially, economically and politically. It is for such reasons that internal trafficking of women and children is said to be the highest contributor towards the overall number of trafficking incidents (refer to point 2.3.2). It is therefore crucial that societal norms, which perpetuate patriarchy, must be confronted together with transformation in the workplace.

According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD 2018:np), South Africa's unemployment rate is high for both youth and adults but young people are mostly affected as they make up 63.5% of the total number of unemployed people (OECD 2018:np). Through the expanded definition of unemployment, some young people have given up looking for work and are thus not building their skills through education or training (OECD 2018:np) consequently, they are Not Employed, not in Education or Training (NEET). The NEET rate, an auxiliary

indicator of the labour market, shows that of the 10,3 million persons aged 15–34 years, 32,4% (n=3,3million) were not in employment, education or training (OECD 2018:np). As a result, in quarter one of 2018, one in three young people in South Africa between the ages of 15 and 34 were not working, not studying and not receiving any work-related skills (OECD 2018:np). The NEET rate juxtaposed with the unemployment rates reveals that young people in South African are facing major challenges where engaging with the labour market is concerned and are facing extreme difficulties engaging with the labour market (OECD 2018:np). Therefore, the increasing unemployment rates in South Africa serve as pull factors for human trafficking which lures young people by promising them good paying jobs (refer to sections 2.5.2 and to Chapter 4 for the demand and Marxist theories). In order to tackle crimes such as child trafficking, the eradication of unemployment should be a top priority. The president of the Republic of South Africa, Mr Cyril Ramaphosa, announced during his state of the nation address in February 2018 that job creation is a priority when he stated:

We are going to embark on a number of measures to address the unemployment challenge. One of the initiatives will be to convene a Jobs Summit within the next few months to align the efforts of every sector and every stakeholder behind the imperative of job creation (The Presidency 2018:np).

Even though the job summit took place on 4 and 5 October 2018, research shows that more effort needs to be put into creating and educating young people to create employment. One of the ways in which this can be achieved is by affecting changes to the current South African education system which teaches individuals to become job seekers and not job creators. As a result, both the Departments of Basic and Higher Education need to be involved by ensuring that their curriculum teaches and encourages learners to aspire to creating jobs.

6.3.1.2 Inequality and poverty

According to the 2018 World Bank report (that analysed South Africa's post-apartheid progress focusing on the years between 2006 and 2015), South Africa is the most unequal country in the world. This report noted that 1% of South Africans own 70,9%

of the country's wealth while the bottom 60% only controls 7% of the country's assets (The World Bank 2018:xii). More than half (30-million people) of South Africans live below the national poverty line of R992 per month per household (The World Bank 2018:xii). The groups which are affected by poverty are black people, the unemployed, the less educated, female-headed households, large families and children (The World Bank 2018:xii).

In 2015, South Africa had a gini-coefficient of 0,63 (one of the highest since 1994) deeming South Africa the most unequal country globally (The World Bank 2018:43). The gini-coefficient measures inequality where 1,00 indicates absolute inequality and 0,00 is an indication of absolute equality (Oxfam 2014:29). One of the reasons that inequality is still a big issue in South Africa is because the number of jobs created since 1994 is not on par with the growth in the labour force (The World Bank 2018:xii). Subsequently, unemployment still remains high, as discussed in the foregoing section. Furthermore, the high salary inequalities as well as the gap between those who are employed and those unemployed, as discussed in section 6.3.1.1, also contribute to the high inequality gap in South Africa.

Similar to unemployment, poverty (caused by inequality) is one of the pull factors for child trafficking (see as section 2.5.2). As such, one of the preventative measures for this crime would be to prioritise the eradication of poverty. With that said, as long as South Africa is still facing the triple challenge of unemployment, inequality and poverty, child trafficking may persist.

6.3.2 Recommendation to the CJS

6.3.2.1 Training of law enforcement officers

Ongoing training of law enforcement officers and those having to deal with victims of child trafficking is crucial as it may minimise secondary victimisation. Training may be evaluated based on the results it produces (U.S. Department of State 2013:np).

6.3.2.2 Practical steps

Law enforcement officers should, firstly, avoid asking victims questions in the presence of traffickers on the crime scene or where the exploitation took place. When victims are rescued, they should be taken away to a place of safety as mentioned

under section 4.5 where psychological counselling should be organised before they are interviewed by the police (also refer to Ark of Hope 2013:np). Arranging therapy for victims before they are interviewed may prevent anxiety and memory loss. Firstly, if victims are provided with the necessary therapeutic care by trained professionals before they testify in court, they are more likely to give credible testimony. Secondly, specialists who are responsible for the interviewing of the children must take into account the trauma and shock the victims have gone through as that traumatic experience may influence the victims' responses during interviews. Thirdly, participants indicated that trust issues play a role in the support and care given to the victims. It is for this reason that those involved in working with the victims should be patient and work on building rapport and trust with victims. When interviewing victims, interviewers should provide opportunities for victims to tell their stories in their own words, pause to give victims time to formulate their answers and respond to victims in caring and sensitive language. If a victim was exploited by a male figure, for example, it may be advisable for the interviewer to be of the opposite gender to the perpetrator. This may lessen the post-trauma experienced by victims. As indicated under sections 2.3.3 and 2.4.1, in case of cross border trafficking, traffickers will threaten and intimidate their victims that, if they try to escape, they will have them arrested and imprisoned for violating immigration laws as they do not have travelling papers. It is thus recommended that, when visiting the CYCCs to interview victims, police officers should consider wearing civilian clothing and ensure that guns or any kind of weapons are not visible to the victims (U.S. Department of State 2013:np).

6.3.2.3 Corrupt government officials

Of major concern is the crime facilitation role played by police officers, border control officials and immigration officers who take bribes from traffickers and allow them to cross borders with children without the required identity documents and permission to travel with a child (see sub-section 2.4.1.7). This corrupt behaviour needs to be dealt with as a matter of urgency by punishing these corrupt officials and sending out a zero tolerance message against such criminal activities. UNODC (2011a:10) reports that, during the rescue, victims may reveal that they witnessed government officials taking bribes and abusing their power which may discourage victims from cooperating with law enforcement and, in turn, negatively impacts on the provision of effective aftercare

services for victims.

6.3.2.4 Violence against women and children (VAWC)

Despite the significant volume of research, marches and attention paid to the issue of violence against women and children (VAWC) in South Africa, this type of violence continues to be an enormous societal problem. Despite being widely regarded as having the most advanced Constitution and legislation in Africa, South Africa is notorious for heinous crimes committed against its women and children. “There is an increasing recognition that violence against women and violence against children often co-occur and that they share common drivers” (Matthews 2017:np). If South Africa has such sound laws and policies, why is violence against women and children increasing at such a drastic rate? As explained through feminist theories discussed in Chapter 4, one of the reasons provided is that patriarchy is one of the drivers of violence against women and children. In a patriarchal society where the man is considered the head of the family and ruler of his wife and children, violence by men against their family members is justified as discipline. Also discussed in section 4.4 is that these patriarchal attitudes, which reduce children and women to nonentities, transcend the family and spill over to the society and other organisations. It is, therefore, not surprising that women and children, as discussed in Chapter 2 and in section 6.3.1.1 above, suffer the most where human trafficking is concerned. Consequently, the researcher recommends that multi- and inter-sectoral measures be put in place to prevent VAWC which may, in turn, have a direct impact on the prevention of child trafficking.

6.3.3 Recommendations to DSD and DoE

6.3.3.1 Specialised programmes for trafficked victims

As discussed throughout this dissertation, victims of child trafficking require their own shelters and programmes which can cater for their unique needs, leading to the recommendations below:

(i) Transitional housing with long term housing assistance

Rescued victims need a place of safety that is private, comfortable and child friendly to meet their immediate basic needs before interviews and where the taking of

statements can be conducted. According to WHO (2012:5), victims of trafficking should be provided with adequate shelter and receive services that meet their needs after they have been rescued or escaped from their captors. In addition, long term housing and the undivided attention from their caregivers may assist victims to recover gradually from the trauma caused when they were held captive. As discussed in Chapter 5, the placement of victims is temporary (i.e. three to six months) which is a short period for victims to recover fully. Consequently, if victims of child trafficking are placed in their own shelters with their own specialised services based on their needs, their progress and readiness to go back home may be effectively monitored (Governor & Cutrone 2013:7).

(ii) Schooling

As discussed under Chapter 4, victims continue to be victimised even after rescue or release as far as schooling is concerned. While some participants indicated that victims go to school while housed at the CYCCs, the majority of participants noted that there were challenges in victims of child trafficking attending schools. The main challenges highlighted were the inability to place children in schools outside institutions where they are housed for security reasons as well as non-placement of victims in schools because of the lack of identity documents. As explained under the problem statement, victims of child trafficking suffer various harms including being denied access to schooling which, in turn, has dire effects on their normal development and their future. This is attributed to the fact that the lack of education is one of the contributors to the increasing rates of inequality and poverty in South Africa, as discussed in section 6.3.2.

Education builds human capital, which translates into economic growth. If improvements are faster among the disadvantaged, the additional growth will reduce poverty, reduce inequality, and promote social mobility (Wolla 2016:np).

It is for this reason that placing children back in school when they are rescued should be a priority of the aftercare programmes. The concerned departments, namely DoE, DSD and DHA, need to collaborate to ensure that victims of child trafficking are provided with all the support they require to be placed in schools. Because it is a

security risk for victims of child trafficking to attend school outside the CYCCs, specialised centres with schools for victims should be considered for victims of child trafficking as recommended above.

In addition, the DoE should consider including human trafficking, from foundation phase level, in the school curriculum where learners are taught about the nature of trafficking and its consequences.

6.3.4 Sustained aftercare support

In section 6.2.4, based on the participants' responses, it is suspected that victims receive little to no aftercare support after they have been reunited with their families. Therefore, it is recommended that victims are provided with the necessary support (i.e. psychological services) when they are returned home in order to facilitate effective reintegration and to prevent possible relapse.

6.3.5 Recommendations to the public and media

As explained under section 2.4.1.2, a lack of awareness is one of the reasons why children are trafficked. It is for this reason that the researcher believes that, in South Africa, awareness campaigns are not used effectively to prevent child trafficking. Currently, human trafficking is commemorated annually during one week in October. However, the question is how many South African citizens have the knowledge that there is a human trafficking week? Considering the atrocious and transnational nature of this crime, it is highly recommended for awareness campaigns to be prioritised as a preventative tool. As explained by Johnson and Bowers (2003:498,517), the use of crime prevention awareness campaigns is important for two reasons: firstly, crime prevention awareness campaigns discourage perpetrators from committing the crime by intensifying their perception of the risks and efforts of committing the crime. This is mostly achieved in situations where preventative measures for the crime are emphasised (with the use of perpetrators who have already faced the consequences for committing the crime as examples) and a zero tolerance message is sent out. Secondly, awareness campaigns help members of the society to protect themselves from the crime.

In an era where media and technology are both powerful tools, information can be

easily and widely dissemination via print media, television and radio. The distribution of information can further be done via informative short videos and e-pamphlets that can be distributed on social media platforms such as WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram and Twitter. Moreover, these awareness campaigns ought to be presented in a manner that both children and adults will be able to understand them. Where children are concerned, the campaigns can be further done in schools. Learners can be taught about the crime of human trafficking by focusing on elements of trafficking and recruitment methods, such as false promises that seem too good to be true, false job advertisements, promises of lavish lifestyles, victim characteristics and the profile of a trafficker. The impact of the crime on the victim can also be highlighted. Parties responsible for the campaigns should ensure that they reach as many South African citizens as possible, more especially those who are most likely to be targeted as victims (i.e. children, females, the poor, the unemployed or the uneducated).

6.3.6 Recommendations for future research

Future research on the topic at hand is important for two reasons. Firstly, as explained in Chapter 1, at the time when this study was conducted, scant literature was available on aftercare support for victims of child trafficking. Secondly, since this was an explorative study based on only one province of South Africa, it is recommended that more comprehensive and broader studies be conducted on the topic.

6.4 STUDY LIMITATIONS

Even though this research was conducted carefully, some limitations were encountered.

6.4.1 Sample size

The sample size of only 30 experts based in the Gauteng province does not permit for the research results to be generalisable to the entire country. However, the size of the sample was dictated by the explorative nature of the study in that the aim was never to generalise the results but to *explore* the topic at hand (refer to sections 1.2 and 1.3.2). Nonetheless, the results can still provide insight on aftercare support offered to victims in other provinces in South Africa because the participants from DHA, IOM, UNODC, and NPA were based at national offices.

6.4.2 Data collection method

As previously explained in section 6.2.4, it was difficult to evaluate the aftercare support programmes offered to victims of child trafficking without studying the exact content of the programmes. In hindsight, the data collection method should have also included document analysis. Nonetheless, this limitation was dealt with by asking participants to provide in-depth information on the type of aftercare support offered to victims, the effectiveness of the aftercare support offered as well as the challenges faced when offering aftercare support to victims of child trafficking.

6.4.3 Lack of prior research studies on the topic

Section 1.3.1 notes that sufficient literature on aftercare support offered to victims of child trafficking was, at the time the study was conducted, limited. Even so, literature on the phenomenon of human trafficking in general and child trafficking in particular was sought to build a foundation and set the scene. It for this reason that the researcher strongly recommends that future research be conducted on this topic (see section 6.1.3.6).

6.4.4 Self-reported data

The data collection method used in this study (i.e. semi-structured interviews) was open-ended and thus allowed for participants to have control of the content of the data collected. Consequently, it was difficult for the researcher to objectively and independently verify the results against the undertakings provided by the participants. Nevertheless, this limitation was offset in the following ways:

- (i) The use of multiple case studies allowed for answers from different interviewees to be compared to each other for similarities and contradictions.
- (ii) Some interview questions were inter-related (refer to ANNEXURE C). This allowed for verification of the truthfulness of the information provided by participants.

6.5 CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 gave an orientation of what this study entailed which laid a core foundation that included introduction, purpose, aims and objectives of this study. The concept of

human/child trafficking was briefly introduced and research questions of the study were given. Furthermore, the research methodology was discussed and attention was given to the chosen methodology for this study (i.e. qualitative method). Finally, the steps taken to ensure that the research was ethical and that the results are both trustworthy and reliable were deliberated.

Chapter 2 gave the historical background of human trafficking crime in general. It answered the first research question concerning gaining in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of child trafficking. The crime itself was explained, the causes and effects that this crime has on victims were also discussed in detail. The methods used by traffickers to lure, deceive and control their victims were also described. The chapter further tackled the research question on the impact this crime has on the victims.

Chapter 3 addressed issues of victimisation starting with the historical background of victimology, the victim empowerment policy and the South African Crime Prevention Strategy. The rights and the needs of the victims were also addressed. The legislations related to human/child trafficking were discussed. The chapter further examined the aftercare challenges encountered when offering support to victims of child trafficking in South Africa.

Chapter 4 discussed theories. The demand for victims which aggravates the supply of victims to the sex industry was given (by the Demand Theory) as one of the reasons for child trafficking, especially for sexual exploitation. Marxism theory explains the inequality of opportunities as far as gender, class and race is concerned as one of the reasons for child trafficking while feminism theory indicates that most victims for the purpose of sexual exploitation are girls and young women.

Chapter 5 dealt with the analysis and findings of the collected data. The method used was qualitative in-depth interviews with various professionals from government departments and Inter-governmental organisations who work with trafficked victims. The purpose of this chapter was to meet the following objectives: gaining an understanding of the phenomenon of child trafficking; exploring the impact the crime has on victims; gaining in-depth information on aftercare support for victims of child trafficking; as well as evaluating current aftercare programmes offered to victims of child trafficking by government departments as discussed in Chapter 1.

Chapter 6 presented a summary of the findings discussed in Chapter 5. It also gave recommendations to the various stakeholders involved in the development of preventative measures to be applied for child trafficking and also for what could further be done to strengthen the effectiveness of the aftercare support given to trafficked victims. Through the use of literature and analysis of data collected, the researcher believes this study will make a significant contribution in assisting the affected victims as well as helping potential victims to avoid ways that will put them at risk of being trafficked.

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ANNEXURE A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Affiliation: UNISA, Department of Criminology & Security Science

Researcher: Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo

STUDY TITLE: **EXPLORING AFTERCARE SUPPORT FOR VICTIMS OF CHILD TRAFFICKING**

Dear prospective participant,

I am Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo, the MA (Criminology) student conducting the above mentioned study. I highly appreciate that you are considering to participate in this study. Below is the purpose of the study, how you as a participant can contribute to the study and what is expected from the participant and also from the researcher. The overall participants of this research are both government and Inter-government organisations officials responsible for child trafficking victims in the Gauteng province.

- a) **Purpose of Study:** The primary aim of this study was to *explore* the phenomenon of child trafficking where victim aftercare support is concerned. The objectives of the study are therefore as follows:
- To gain an understanding of the phenomenon of child trafficking;
 - To explore the impact the crime has on victims;
 - To explore and gain more in-depth information on after care support for victims of child trafficking;
 - To evaluate current aftercare programmes offered to victims of child trafficking; and
 - To provide recommendations on how to care for victims of child trafficking.
- b) **Approach:** Semi-structured interviews of no longer than 120 minutes will be used for data collection. The interviews will, with your permission, be voice recorded by either use of a tape recorder or cellphone.
- c) **Discomforts:** The researcher will do whatever within judicious limits to ensure that participants are not exposed to physical or psychological harm during the interviews. However, should there be discomforts experiences by the respondents during the course of the interview(s) a referral will be made. Furthermore, the researcher will adhere to the UNISA 2016 Policy on Research Ethics and protect participants from any physical discomfort that may emerge from the research study.
- d) **Benefits:** No re-imbusement will be made by the researcher to participants for their contribution in this study.
- e) **Participant's Rights:** Participation in this study is voluntary and if participant wish to withdraw at any time they may do so without negative consequences. Information will be treated as confidential and anonymity of participants' identity will be maintained.
- f) **Storage of data:** The researcher and the supervisor will be the only ones who will have access to raw data from interviews, and hereby ensure that data will

be treated as confidential. Raw data will be stored in a lockable cupboard in the researcher's home. The data will be destroyed after five years. The electronic data will be permanently deleted from the researcher's computer whilst the hardcopy data will be shredded.

- g) **Right of Access to Researcher:** Should respondents have any queries about this research or the interview, they are free to contact the researcher at the telephone number as enclosed at the end of this form.

I, the undersigned, agree to the content of this form and I therefore:

1. give consent to voluntarily participate in this study
2. understand that my identity will be kept private
3. agree to participate in an individual interview with the researcher
4. may withdraw from the interview any time if I wish to do so
5. will not be reimbursed for participating in this study
6. will give an honest and truthful information based on my experience on the topic of the study
7. agree to this information I give to be published by the researcher with my participation kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

Signed at on this Day of20.....

Participants name and surname:

Participant's Signature:

Researchers name: Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo

Contact details: 012 393 3839

Email address: ramokolo@webmail.co.za

Research Supervisor: Dr MS Thobane

Contact details: 012 433 9523

Email address: kwadims@unisa.ac.za

Researcher's Signature:

THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY

ANNEXURE B: UNISA ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



COLLEGE OF LAW RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2017/01/31

Reference: ST 91/ 2016

Applicant: K P Ramokolo

Dear K P Ramokolo
(Supervisor : Mrs MS Thobane)

DECISION: ETHICS APPROVAL

Name	K P Ramokolo
Proposal	Aftercare Support For The Victims of Child Trafficking
Qualification	MA in Criminology

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Law Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. **Final approval is granted.**

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

1. *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics which can be found at the following website:*

http://www.unisa.ac.za/cmsys/staff/contents/departments/res_policies/docs/Policy_Research%20Ethics_rev%20app%20Council_22.06.2012.pdf

2. *Any adverse circumstances arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the College of Law Ethical Review Committee.*



Open Rubric

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
www.unisa.ac.za/law

An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants

- 3. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*

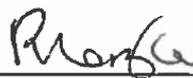
Note:

The reference number (top right corner of this communique) should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication (e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters) with the intended research participants, as well as with the URERC.

Kind regards



PROF D GOVENDER
CHAIR PERSON: RESEARCH ETHICS
REVIEW COMMITTEE
COLLEGE OF LAW



PROF R SONGCA
EXECUTIVE DEAN:
COLLEGE OF LAW

ANNEXURE C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview schedule: subject matter experts

Date.....

Consent form signed

Yes	No
-----	----

Interview number	

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Which department do you work for?

2. What is the designation of your post?

3. How many years do you have in the department?

4. What is your highest qualification?

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How do you identify the victims of child trafficking?

2. What impact(s) does the crime of child trafficking have on the victim?

3. Are there any shelters available specifically for victims of child trafficking?

4. What happens after a victim of child trafficking is rescued?

5. What after care programmes are administered to survivors of child trafficking?

6. How effective and beneficial are those services rendered to victims?

7. What arrangements do you make with families/parents of international children rescued from traffickers?

8. What arrangements do you make with families/parents of local/South African children rescued from traffickers?

9. How do you ensure that it is in the best interests of the child to return back to their family?

10. How do you ensure that the victims will not be subjected to secondary victimisation?

11. What measures are in place to ensure that the child's safety will not be compromised when repatriated back home?

12. What care arrangements are in place for the child's needs when returned back home to recover from the pain they suffered?

13. Are there any relevant protective measures in place to ensure the child will not be harmed or killed in anyway?

14. How do you work together with these victims to build a case against traffickers for prosecution?

15. Which method do you use for these children to ensure they aren't exposed to danger when they testify as witnesses in court?

16. What challenges do you encounter in your assistance to child trafficking victims?

Thank you very much for your time and contribution for this research.

ANNEXURE D: SUPERVISOR LETTER OF MOTIVATION



SUPEVISOR LETTER OF MOTIVATION

DEPARTMENT OF CRIMINOLOGY AND
Street

337 Veale

SECURITY SCIENCE

Brooklyn

SCHOOL OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Pretoria

COLLEGE OF LAW

0001

Tel: +27 (0)12-433- 9523

E-mail: kwadimsunisa.ac.za

20 February 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

RESEARCH PROJECT: AFTER CARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING
VICTIMS



University of South Africa
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PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Ms Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo is a registered student at UNISA, Department of Criminology and Security Science. She is busy with her research for a Master of Arts (MA) in Criminology.

The objectives of this research are as follows:

- To assess the various after care support programmes offered by both government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to victims of child trafficking;
- To understand the impact the crime of child trafficking has on the victim;
- To assist the government and other stakeholders in the improvement of aftercare support programmes offered to victims of child trafficking.

This research aims to explore and to gain in-depth information on the crime of child trafficking and also to understand and assess the aftercare programmes offered to victims of child trafficking by both the government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Although research has been done on the topic of trafficking of humans or children little is known about the various after care support programmes offered to trafficking survivors. As such research of this caliber is vital.

Research information plays a very important role for decisions regarding implementation of crime reduction policies and programmes. As a result, your allowing Ms Ramokolo in your environment to conduct this research will add immense value to the above research project and hopefully decision making regarding ways of offering after care support to victims of child trafficking.

Although the research will be published in a form of a dissertation, please note that respondents will not be expected to identify themselves. All responses are confidential and will not be used in any way that may identify participants.

Your cooperation will be much appreciated.

Should you wish to verify anything you can contact Ms Ramokolo's research supervisor, **Mrs MS Thobane** (Department of Criminology and Security Science, School of Criminal



Justice, College of Law at UNISA) Tel: (012) 433-9508; Cell: 073 079 0817; e-mail:
kwadims@unisa.ac.za

Ms Ramokolo's contact details are as follows: Cell: 073 709 2674; e-mail:
ramokolo@webmail.co.za

Thank you
Yours sincerely



Mrs MS Thobane
Lecturer: Criminology & Security Science



ANNEXURE E: TURN-IT-IN SIMILARLY REPORT

Feedback Studio - Microsoft Edge

ev.turnitin.com/app/carta/en_us?u=1061980800&o=1046284075&lang=en_us&student_user=1&s=

feedback studio K P Ramokolo EXPLORING AFTERCARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS

Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo

Student Number:
44446578

MASTERS OF ARTS
in
CRIMINOLOGY

RESEARCH DISSERTATION (MPSCJ90)

Match Overview

18%

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50	Submitted to University... Student Paper	<1%
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52	Submitted to University... Student Paper	<1%
53	www.continuetolearn.u... Internet Source	<1%
54	www.childtrafficking.c... Internet Source	<1%

Page: 1 of 196 Word Count: 54294 Text-only Report Turnitin Classic High Resolution On

Type here to search 11:11 AM 2018/11/28

ANNEXURE F: DSD PERMISSION LETTER



Enquiries: Judith Demeshane
Tel: (011) 2270130
File no.: 2/9/55

MS KHOLOFELO PORTIA RAMOKOLO

Dear Ms Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo

RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Thank you for your application to conduct research within the Gauteng Department of Social Development.

Your application on the research on "After Care Support for Child Trafficking Victims" has been considered and approved for support by the Department as it was found to be beneficial to the Department's vision and mission. The approval is subject to the Department's terms and conditions as endorsed by you on the 14th of March 2017.

May I take this opportunity to wish you well on the journey you are about to embark on.

We look forward to a value adding research and a fruitful co-operation.

With thanks


Mr M MAMPURU
Acting Head of Department
Date: 2017/05/05

ANNEXURE G: DHA PERMISSION LETTER

DHA-57



home affairs

Department:
Home Affairs
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

230 Johannes Ramokhoase Street, Private Bag X114, Pretoria, 0001
Parliamentary Office, 120 Plein Street, Private Bag X9048, Cape Town, 8000

Enquiries: Nomakholwa Makaluza, Tel: 012 406 7281, Email: Nomakholwa.makaluza@dha.gov.za

Ms Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo
Department of Criminology
337 Veale Street
Brooklyn
Pretoria
0001

Dear Ms Ramokolo

Re: Request for Permission to conduct interviews with two DHA officials for a study on "After Care Support for Child Trafficking Victims".

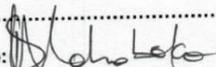
Your research request to conduct interviews with two DHA officials for a research study on "After Care Support for Child Trafficking Victims" has a reference. The Research, Information and Knowledge Management unit acknowledges the above request.

The DHA, through the Research, Information and Knowledge Management unit has approved your request to conduct research in the department to fulfill the requirements of your research project. The approval is based on your submission of all required documents.

It is our understanding that the interviews will be conducted using the interview guide submitted to the department to ensure that the security of the department is not compromised. Upon completion of your studies, the DHA requests that you furnish the departmental Information Resource Centre with a copy of your research report, which can be shared with the entire departmental staff.

I wish you all the best in your studies.

Regards

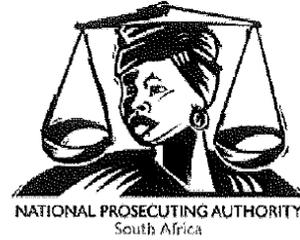
Signature: 

Deputy Director-General: Human Resource Management & Development

Date: 30/05/2017

ANNEXURE H: NPA PERMISSION LETTER

Sexual Offences and Community Affairs Unit



Tel: +27 12 845 6000
Fax: +27 12 845 7291

Victoria & Griffiths
Mxenge Building
123 Westlake
Avenue
Weavind Park
Silverton
Pretoria

P/Bag X752
Pretoria
0001
South Africa

www.npa.gov.za

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to confirm that Ms K.P Ramokolo was granted permission to conduct research on the topic: **Aftercare support for the victims of child trafficking** with the National Prosecuting Authority. The approval is subjected to the department terms and conditions that the researcher collects and use information only for her study, publish information for academic purposes only, follows ethical standard and professional conduct when collecting information from the organisation and upon the completion of the study the researcher will share the information with the department before publishing it.

Regards



PN Mogale
Senior State Advocate

ANNEXURE I: DoJ&CD PERMISSION LETTER



NATIONAL OFFICE

PRIVATE BAG X81, PRETORIA, 0001. Momentum Centre, 329 Pretorius Street
Tel (012) 315 4840,

Ref: HRD/11/03
Enq: (012) 315 4840
E-mail: MLEbaka@justice.gov.za

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This serve to confirm that the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development has given Ms K.P Ramokolo permission to conduct Academic Research in the Department.

Ms Ramokolo's research topic is "**After care support for child trafficking victims**".

Ms Ramokolo's approval is on condition that:

- (a) She only collects information that is relevant to her academic research.
- (b) She share the information obtained from the Department for academic purpose only.
- (c) She maintains, uphold and stick to strict confidentiality on all information obtained from the Department.
- (d) She should not publicly publish the findings and recommendations of the research without prior approval of the Department. The publishing should only be limited to the Academic Institution's requirements.
- (e) She shares her findings and recommendations of her research with the Department.

Best regards,

Dr Moses Lebaka
Director: Human Resource Development

2016 -11- 03

Date

ANNEXURE J: SAPS (DPCI/HAWKS) PERMISSION LETTER



1 CRESSWELL ROAD, SILVERTON, 0127
PRIVATE BAG X1500, SILVERTON, 0127
TEL: (012) 846-4315/4356
FAX: (012) 846-4442
E-MAIL: matthewsr@saps.gov.za
sehumeB@saps.gov.za

Ms K P Ramokolo
PO Box 2577
Stellenbosch
Cape Town

Dear Mrs/Ms Ramokolo

RE: FORMAL RESEARCH APPLICATION: EXPLORATORY STUDY ON THE AFTER CARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS

1. Your application dated 06 June 2017 refers
2. Approval has been granted for you to conduct research in the Directorate for Priority Crime Investigation with the following conditions:
 - a. The research will be limited to the information provided by yourself unless otherwise agreed with Major General Ledwaba who will be your contact Senior Officer.
 - Email address: DPCI:Head Organised Crime@saps.gov.za
 - Telephone Number: 012 401 3246
 - b. The final draft will be tested with the Acting National Head: DPCI Lt General Matakata to confirm that the research conditions have been adhered to.
3. A copy of your final research document should be submitted to this office for record purposes.


**SECTION HEAD: MANAGEMENT INFORMATION AND STRATEGIC PLANNING:
DIRECTORATE FOR PRIORITY CRIME INVESTIGATION
RM MATTHEWS**

BRIGADIER

Date: 2017-07-24

ANNEXURE K: SAPS (DETECTIVES SERVICES: FAMILY VIOLENCE AND CHILD PROTECTION UNIT) PERMISSION LETTER

South African Police Service



South Afrikaanse Polisie

Privaatsak Private Bag X94	Pretoria 0001	Faks No. Fax No.	(012) 393 2126
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Your reference/U verwysing:

My reference/My verwysing: **3/34/2**

THE DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: RESEARCH
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
PRETORIA
0001

Enquiries/Navrae: **Lt Col Joubert
Intern Thenga
(012) 393 3118**
Tel:
Email: **JoubertG@saps.gov.za**

K P Ramokolo
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AFTER CARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS: MASTERS DEGREE: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: RESEARCHER: KP RAMOKOLO

The above subject matter refers.

You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2006.

Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following offices:

The National Head: Directorate for Priority Crime Investigation (DPCI):

- **Contact Person:** Maj Gen Ledwaba
- **Contact Details:** (012) 012 401 3246

The Divisional Commissioner: Detective Service:

- **Contact Person:** Maj Gen Senthumule
- **Contact Details:** (012) 012 393 4444

The office of the Acting National Head: DPCI has set the following conditions for the study:

- Information for the study should be agreed to with the contact senior officer, Maj Gen Ledwaba.
- The final draft of the research will be tested with the Acting National Head: DPCI Lt Gen Matakata to confirm that the research conditions have been adhered to.

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AFTER CARE SUPPORT FOR
CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS: MASTERS DEGREE: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA:
RESEARCHER: KP RAMOKOLO

Kindly adhere to paragraph 6 of our Attached letter signed on the 2017-06-22 with the same
above reference number.


LIEUTENANT GENERAL
DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: RESEARCH
DR BM ZULU

DATE: 2017/08/04

ANNEXURE L: IOM PERMISSION LETTER



International Organization for Migration (IOM)

The UN Migration Agency

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

15th September 2108

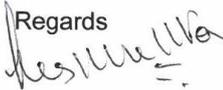
This is to confirm that Ms K.P Ramokolo has been granted permission to conduct research topic **Aftercare support for the victims of child trafficking** with IOM

The approval is on the condition that:

1. She collects information only relevant to her study
2. She shares and publish information for academic purposes only
3. She uphold to ethical standard and professional conduct when collecting information from the organisation

The approval was based on the submission of required documents from UNISA

Regards


Resh Mehta

Irregular Migration Unit

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

Mailing Address: PO Box 55391, Arcadia 0007, Pretoria, South Africa

Tel. +27-(0)12-342-2789

Fax. +27-(0)12-342-0932

E-mail. rmehta@iom.int



ANNEXURE M: UNODC PERMISSION LETTER

UNITED NATIONS ON DRUGS AND CRIME (UNODC)

P.O BOX 12673

HATFIELD,

PRETORIA

0028

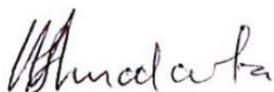
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to confirm that Ms K.P Ramokolo was granted permission to conduct research topic **Aftercare support for the victims of child trafficking** with UNODC

The approval was given on the condition that she:

1. collects and use information only for her study
2. publish information for academic purposes only
3. follows ethical standard and professional conduct when collecting information from the organisation
4. Will share the collected information with the organisation for future purposes

Regards



.....
SAMANTHA MUNODAWAFA

**ANNEXURE N: LANGUAGE AND TECHNICAL EDITING
CONFIRMATION LETTER**

Barbara Shaw

Editing/proofreading services

18 Balvicar Road, Blairgowrie, 2194

Tel: 011 888 4788 Cell: 072 1233 881

Email: bmshaw@telkomsa.net

Full member of The Professional Editors' Group

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to inform you that I have done language editing, formatting and reference checking on the following thesis:

Name: **Kholofelo Portia Ramokolo**
Student no.: **44446578**
Qualification: **Masters of Arts in Criminology**
Title: **EXPLORING AFTERCARE SUPPORT FOR CHILD TRAFFICKING VICTIMS**



Barbara Shaw

19 November 2018