

Township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted in at any university for the degree.

Signature:  .

Date: April 2018

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PREFACE

This dissertation became a reality with the support and help of many individuals. I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to all of them.

Foremost, I want to thank God Almighty for the wisdom he bestowed upon me; the strength, peace of mind, and good health which enabled me to complete this research.

I would like to express my gratitude towards my family and in-laws for the encouragement which helped me in completion of my dissertation. My beloved and supportive husband, Kgomotso Lesabe, who was always by my side in times I needed him the most.

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ABSTRACT

Child trafficking is a form of modern day slavery of which the scope of the issue is not well conceptualised. It requires ongoing research to establish to what extent the problem is escalating and what interventions could be put in place to guarantee that policies on the issue are enacted. South Africa is described as the major trafficking destination in sub-Saharan Africa with women and children being trafficked from more than ten different countries.

This research study endeavours to expose the extent to which township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking influence curriculum making. The need for this is intensifying since child trafficking in its explicit form shows little evidence of its existence within the formal South African curriculum. The research study offers a new perspective on child trafficking in that it focuses on township high school learners and will thus provide another lens through which to consider child trafficking. Numerous policy documents and research reports recommend that more studies of a qualitative nature to be done in South Africa on child trafficking, as existing research focuses predominantly on statistical evidence and not lived experience or perceptions. Thousands of children die worldwide and millions more are physically, emotionally, or socially scarred by the harmful practices of trafficking.

The aim of the study was to firstly explore what child trafficking is as a human rights violation, secondly to determine the township high school's learners' perceptions of child trafficking, and lastly how those perceptions influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation. A scholarly literature study was conducted to explore the background of human and child trafficking, a discussion on the act, means and purpose of trafficking, and child trafficking as a human rights violation. To think anew, I proposed a socially responsive curriculum perspective to respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation.

The study was conducted at two township high schools located in the Ikageng township in the Potchefstroom region, North West. The study employed a qualitative phenomenological methodology, framed within an interpretivist paradigm. Convenience sampling was used where Grade 11 learners, consisting of 6 boys and 6 girls, were sampled. Data was generated using semi-structured one-on-one and focus group interviews.

To arrive at the main findings depicted in Chapter 5, themes in Chapter 4 were clustered. From the main findings of this research study it seems that township high school learners perceived child trafficking to be fuelled by ecological factors. As most of the learners came from a low socio-economic background, they mostly associated child trafficking with poverty and financial gain to the traffickers. Learners also understood human rights violations in terms of the

Constitution of South Africa, although the focus was mainly on their rights, as opposed to also perceiving rights with having responsibilities. Regarding the curriculum, learners referred to child trafficking within the context of the hidden curriculum, where media played a major role in their understanding of child trafficking.

The main findings showed the importance of awareness raising to combat child trafficking as a human rights violation through including child trafficking within the formal school curriculum and approaching the curriculum as socially responsive.

Upon reflection on my research study, I make recommendations for further research.

Keywords: township high school learners, child trafficking, curriculum making.

I dedicate this dissertation to my mom, Rosina Ramosepele, who believed in me, always encouraged me and made this journey possible. Thank you for your unwavering support.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

South Africa is the major trafficking destination in sub-Saharan Africa, with children being trafficked from more than ten different countries (UNICEF, 2008:90). South Africa is described as the major trafficking destination in the southeast sub-region, with women and children being trafficked from more than ten different countries (ibid.). Having this in mind women and children are often trafficked for the purpose of exploitation (Bermudez, 2008:53). Forms of exploitation include sexual exploitation, labour exploitation, muti murders¹, and organ exploiters (Kruger, 2010:44). Research undertaken by a child rights nongovernmental organisation (NGO), called *It's Your Move*, in Cape Town showed that the causes for an increase in the phenomenon in South Africa relate to the country's economic situation and lack of knowledge in schools, coupled with factors such as the breakdown in extended and nuclear families and changes in cultural attitudes and practices (Songololo, 2005:51).

This research study endeavours to expose the extent to which township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking influence curriculum making. The need for this is intensifying, due to the fact that limited evidence of the existence of child trafficking in its explicit form appears within the formal South African curriculum (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:105). A study by UNESCO (2007), entitled *Human trafficking in South Africa: root causes and recommendations*, recommends that more research be done in South Africa on child trafficking. Similarly, the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (2010) makes the same recommendation on account of South Africa's focus on democracy and human rights. Based on these recommendations, this research study endeavours to firstly investigate the lack of research on child trafficking as a human rights violation in the formal school curriculum in South Africa and secondly to explore the possible ways in which child trafficking can be addressed in the curriculum (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:102).

The focus of this research study is on township high school learners in Grade 11 due to the fact that human trafficking is only mentioned once in the subject Life Orientation (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:103). Although the national curriculum does not give mention to child trafficking per se, it does draw on related content. The Grade 11 Life Orientation curriculum explicitly draws

¹ Muti murders refers to the removal of body parts for the purpose of financial gain within the realm of traditional medicine (Bermudez, 2008:8).

on content knowledge pertaining to unequal power relations, power balance, and the struggle between genders (South Africa, 2011:20). Power relations, including power abuse through social phenomena such as forced girl child marriage, forced prostitution of girls and forced labour, provides a curriculum that embraces the complexities of human rights violations that have proven to be problematic. Child trafficking is dealt with in a very opaque manner within the curriculum and is only mentioned once in the Grade 10 Life Orientation curriculum (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:103); hence further discussion is needed (Quinne, 2010). Child trafficking is a human rights violation that has myriad effects on the development of the child academically, socially, physically, and emotionally (ibid.).

This research study focuses on township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking, how child trafficking is addressed in the subject Life Orientation in the FET phase, and how learners' perceptions can influence curriculum making. The research study therefore does not only provide learners' perceptions of child trafficking, but also offers suggestions that can contribute to the development of curriculum in South Africa. This chapter provides the structure and understanding of what the study entails and therefore it will elaborate on:

- the general problem statement (1.2);
- clarification of terminology (1.3);
- research questions (1.4);
- research aims (1.5);
- research design, methodology and research processes (1.6);
- trustworthiness (1.7);
- ethical considerations (1.8); and
- a chapter outline (1.9).

1.2 General problem statement

Child trafficking is a global problem, dating back to ancient times (Glind & Kooijmans, 2008:150). It is an abomination that directly affects an estimated 1.2 million children at any given time (ILO, 2005:1). According to Kreston (2007:38), trafficking is a recognised problem in approximately half the countries in Africa, with the number of children trafficked double the number of trafficked women. Child victims of trafficking are often unaware of the exploitation and abuse that awaits. They see the opportunity for work in the city as a life strategy and view migration as an opportunity to earn money to provide for themselves and or for their families back home (Songololo, 2005:13).

Child trafficking can be defined as the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, or receipt of any person under the age of eighteen for the purpose of sexual or labour exploitation, forced labour or slavery, and other forms of exploitation (Gozdziak, 2008:904). Limited research on the issue of child trafficking within South Africa and across its borders makes it difficult to give an accurate overview of the extent of the problem (Horn, 2010:12). Child trafficking is a modern-day form of slavery and a global human rights violation in which children suffer from horrendous abuse, which includes emotional abuse, separation from family and the community, sexual and physical violence, torture, enforced detention, and risks to their lives (Bokhari, 2008:201). Trafficking in children violates the fundamental rights of children, including the right to family or parental care or to appropriate alternative care when removed from the family environment (Horn, 2010:9). Songololo (2000) states that children are in high demand in the South African sex industry. There are multiple reasons underlying this, which mainly include factors such as the belief that children are not carriers of HIV/Aids (Van Vuuren, Anthony & Koen, 2000:8).

While child trafficking has a devastating impact on individual victims, its impact also undermines the safety and security of all nations involved as it poses a global health risk. Moreover, it fuels the growth of global organised crime (Horn, 2010:14). Trafficking in human beings, especially in children, has become a matter of serious national and international concern (Roy, 2010:6). It is common for girls as young as five years old to be sold into sexual slavery, and boys as young as eleven years to be armed in the militia to serve as child soldiers or to perform forced labour (Jibril, 2007:170). As millions move around in search of employment or undertake desperate measures to support families, normal supervision and protection of children and young people have been compromised and thus young people's vulnerability to exploitation has increased (HSRC, 2010:116). South Africa has become a lucrative market for traffickers because, as the economic heart of Africa, it provides a market for the services of victims of trafficking (Horn, 2010:13).

To date, research on trafficking in children in South Africa has been primarily undertaken by four different organisations: Molo Songololo (2000), the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) (2003), UNICEF (2008), and the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (2007). The study by Songololo in 2000 primarily dealt with children trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation in South Africa (Songololo, 2000:1). In 2003 the IOM published studies on trafficking and in 2008 the UNICEF also published studies on trafficking. The IOM study in 2003, which focused on trafficking in women and children for sexual exploitation in Southern Africa, identified South Africa as a main trafficking destination for Southern Africa (IOM, 2003:7). The study also indicated that victims, both children and adults, are recruited. The IOM focused in part on child trafficking from Lesotho to the Eastern Free State of South Africa. It found that the child victims were both male and female, with half the children abducted and half deceived. The UNICEF study

dealt with trafficking throughout Africa and also identified South Africa as a country of destination, transit, and origin of victims. Moreover, it highlighted trafficking within the South African borders (UNICEF, 2008:4). Furthermore, it found that trafficking is a recognised problem in approximately half the countries in Africa, with children trafficked at twice the rate of women (Kreston, 2007:35). The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking focused on reducing both the vulnerability of potential victims and the demand for exploitation in all its forms, ensuring adequate protection and support to those who fall victim, and supporting the prosecution of criminals involved, while respecting the fundamental human rights of all persons (2007:1) Further research by Songololo (2005:15) claims that trafficking in South Africa has been reported to take place in neighbouring countries, in particular Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Those trafficked into these neighbouring countries are commonly from regions such as Beaufort West, Cape Town Metropolitan area and the Southern Cape (Songololo, 2005:10). The largest movement of trafficked persons is from rural areas to cities (HSRC, 2010:16). Provincial hotspots for trafficking activity within the various provinces are identified as Gauteng (Pretoria and Johannesburg), North West (Rustenburg), Free State (Bloemfontein), KwaZulu-Natal (Durban), Western Cape (Cape Town), Limpopo (Musina), and the Eastern Cape (Port Elizabeth) (ibid.).

It seems evident that child trafficking is a demand driven global business with a huge market for forced labour and commercial sex work (UNESCO, 2007:7). Child trafficking entails taking children out of their protective environment and preying on their vulnerability for the purpose of exploitation (ILO, 2005:1). Child trafficking features in the everyday lives of global and national citizens (HSRC, 2010) as a result the formal curriculum can play a central role in creating awareness and combating child trafficking. However, this issue is only being engaged with in the formal South African Life Orientation and in the educators' manual for Life Orientation teachers (South Africa, 2011 & Anon, 2012). Although the educators manual does provide activities and assessments linked to child trafficking for Grades 10 to 12, child trafficking is only explicitly mentioned once (as human trafficking) in the formal Life Orientation curriculum (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:103, South Africa, 2011:12). It is referred to in Grade 10 under the topic "democracy and human rights" (South Africa, 2011:12). This topic engages with "diversity, discrimination and violations of human rights" relating to "race, religion, culture, language, gender, age, rural/urban, xenophobia, human trafficking and HIV and AIDS status" (ibid.) Although human trafficking is mentioned, it forms part of an extensive list and thus can easily fail to receive the attention it deserves. If omitted or not engaged with in enough detail, it could have myriad effects on the development of the child academically, socially, physically and emotionally therefore, further engagement to unlock its complexity is needed (Quinne, 2010). This also rings true at a national level because in the *National Development Plan vision 2030* it is envisioned that the curriculum will need to be tailored

to the needs of South African society. This will require principals and management teams to fulfil their roles as leaders in implementing the curriculum (South Africa, 2011:265). Hence, this research study will focus on Grade 11 township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking and how learners' perceptions can influence curriculum making. This deems valuable because these perceptions can influence how we design and implement our curriculum.

1.3 Clarification of terminology

To promote a better understanding of the research study, the following terminologies used in the study are briefly explained: township high school learners, perceptions, child trafficking, child, and curriculum making.

- For the purpose of this research study, the term **township high school learners** refers to learners in Grades 10-12 that attend a high school in a township where the schools sampled were classified under Quintile 1² in a specific region (South Africa, 2006:52).
- **Perceptions and the factors influencing these perceptions** can be identified as the recognition and interpretation of sensory information. Perceptions include how individuals respond to information. In addition, a perception is a process that takes sensory information from peoples' environment and then applies that information in order for people to interact with their environment (Moran, 2002:7).
- In this research study **child trafficking** is regarded as the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, or receipt of any person under the age of eighteen for the purpose of exploitation, for example sexual exploitation, forced labour, or slavery (Gozdziak, 2008:904). It can also be described as an action which involves the way in which a child is removed from his or her usual environment for subsequent exploitation by others, and which violates the child's human rights (Songololo, 2005:8). Furthermore, child trafficking can be classified into three categories, namely purpose, action, and means. The purpose would be to exploit through the action of recruiting, transporting, transferring, receiving, and harbouring by means of force, deceit, abuse of power and abuse of vulnerability (Kruger, 2010:44).
- A **child** is defined as any person younger than eighteen years of age (ILO, 2005:1).

² Quintile is an indication of socio-economic status of the school; Quintile 1 schools are the poorest. Schools in quintiles 1 to 3 are no fee schools, and schools in quintiles 4 and 5 are fee-charging schools (DoE, 2004)

- **Curriculum making** refers to the creative act of interpreting a curriculum specification or scheme of work and turning it into a coherent, challenging, engaging and enjoyable scheme of work (Hlebowitsh, 2009:204).

1.4 Research questions

The following research question was constructed to further support the incentive for this study: **To what extent can township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking influence curriculum making?**

To fully explore the primary research question the following questions need to be addressed:

- What is child trafficking as a human rights violation?
- What are township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking?
- How can these perceptions influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation?

1.5 Research aims

This research study emanates from the observation that child trafficking (in its explicit form) has limited inclusion within the formal South African national curricula (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:105). Performing this study on township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking generates another lens for showing how learners perceive child trafficking as a human rights violation and how their perceptions might influence curriculum making.

The aim of the study was therefore to firstly explore what child trafficking as a human rights violation entails. Secondly, the study aims to determine township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking, and thirdly, to establish how learner's perceptions can influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation.

1.6 Research design, methodology and processes

Punch (2006) states that there are five elements of research design, namely research methodology, paradigm, sample, data collection methods, and data analysis. Each of these will be elaborated on in the following sections.

1.6.1 Methodology

A qualitative research methodology was utilised in this study. Qualitative research methodologies are based on a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand a phenomenon in context

(Nieuwenhuis, 2016a:53). This research study followed a phenomenological methodology. The focus of my research study was to explore and understand a central phenomenon, namely the inclusion of child trafficking within the formal South African school curriculum. Phenomenology is a significant methodology for this research study, as the research focuses on the nature of a phenomenon and explores how people perceive and experience this through their senses (Creswell, 2008:259).

According to Creswell (2008:260), there are three major procedural steps in the process of phenomenology. Firstly, the researcher determines whether the research problem is best examined using a phenomenological approach. The type of problem suited for this form of research is one in which it is important to understand the perceptions of a group of individuals. Secondly, the researcher recognises and specifies the broad philosophical assumptions of the phenomenon. Thirdly, data is collected to explore the phenomenon. A phenomenological methodology therefore seems suitable for this study, as perceptions about child trafficking is explored, the broad philosophical assumptions of the phenomenon are received from the literature, and data, in this case being township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking, is collected to explore the phenomenon.

1.6.2 Research paradigm

The research paradigm for this research study was interpretivism. Nieuwenhuis (2016a:60) mentions that interpretivism foregrounds the meanings that individuals or communities assign to their experiences. Schwandt (2000) adds that interpretivism emphasises the goal of understanding lived experiences as they occur within a historical, social reality. The social context, conventions, norms, and standards of the particular person or community are crucial elements in assessing and understanding human behaviour (Jansen, 2007:21).

Interpretivism proclaims that individuals are able to construct their own social reality and that human behaviour can only be explained by observing humans in their natural setting (Hammersley, 2012:153; Wellington, 2000:198). Hence, this research study was conducted from an interpretivist paradigm, as it dealt with intersubjective meanings which are crucial in achieving understanding and meaning. Dealing with a social issue such as child trafficking through an interpretivist paradigm provided me with the opportunity to understand learners' perceptions about the phenomenon, as interpretivism deals with how people make sense of the world (Hammersley, 2012:154).

1.6.3 Sample and research environments

For the purpose of this study, convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling involves identifying participants that are both easily accessible and willing to participate in the research study (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:79). For this research study, two township high schools, located in the Potchefstroom region in North West, were used as the research environments. These schools were conveniently selected, because they were close to the primary school where I taught full-time from 2013 until 2016, making them easily accessible. In addition, I know the teachers and principals at those schools. In each school, Grade 11 learners were voluntarily invited to participate. From the learners who made themselves available and whose parents/guardians provided informed consent, twelve learners (6 learners from each school) were identified and invited to participate in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interview. The participants were selected based on diversity in terms of the various residential areas where they live, for example townships such as Ikageng, Kanana, and Promosa.

1.6.4 Data collection methods

The research process included both semi-structured one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews as data generation methods. An interview is “a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participant questions to collect data and to learn about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours of the participant” (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:92). Interviews in qualitative research enable the researcher to see the world through the participant’s eyes and can thus be a valuable source of information if it is used appropriately (ibid.). For the purpose of this research study, I used semi-structured one-on-one interviews first, and then moved on to the focus group interviews. The reason for conducting the individual interviews first, was to get learners’ perceptions on a one-on-one basis and to use these findings to inform the questions asked in the focus group interview. The same participants took part in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interviews.

1.6.4.1 Semi-structured one-on-one interviews

According to Azzara (2010:16), interviews allow for detailed exploration of single respondents’ reactions without contamination; they are particularly valuable when researchers want individual reactions placed in the context of the individual’s experiences. Interviews as a data-collection method are one of the most predominant modes of data or information collection in qualitative research (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2005:287). The aim is always to obtain rich descriptive data that will assist in understanding the participant’s construction of knowledge and reality (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:93). In a semi-structured interview the interview schedule specifies

key areas, but the order of questions is not fixed (Wellington, 2000:95). Rather, the interview follows in a more flexible manner where questions can be asked in a different order and where the participants can engage in open ended or in-depth responses (Gay *et al.*, 2006:419).

1.6.4.2 Focus group interviews

Focus group interviews were conducted after the semi-structured one-on-one interviews. Patton (2002) states that this type of interview generates high quality data in a social context where participants can consider their own views in the context of the views of others. Focus group interviews could contribute to participants feeling less interrogated, as they are participating as a part of a group (Lamenza, 2011:7). This type of participation could also give learners more confidence and comfort to express their views. Moreover, focus group interviews are valuable as they allow for group interaction amongst participants and a widening of the range of responses, activating forgotten details of experiences. Participants are able to build on each other's ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view not attainable from individual interviews (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:95). Both the semi-structured one-on-one interview and the focus group interview was therefore significant for determining the township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking.

1.6.5 Method of data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is aimed at examining meaningful and symbolic content of qualitative data. It tries to establish how participants make meaning of a specific phenomenon by analysing their perceptions, attitudes, understandings, feelings, values, and experiences in an attempt to approximate their construction of the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:109).

Patton (2002:432) maintains that, when qualitative data is analysed, it becomes transformed into findings. Qualitative data analyses can be done in numerous ways; however, there are general principles and guidelines which can be followed in doing it systematically and reflectivity (Wellington, 2000:134). According to Henning (2004:101), data analyses requires craftsmanship and the ability to capture understanding of the data being analysed.

Data from both the semi-structured one-on-one and focus group interviews were analysed by means of content analysis. Content analysis is a systematic approach to qualitative data analysis as a process of looking at data from different angles with a view to identify codes in the text that will assist in understanding and interpreting the raw data (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:111). Content analysis is an inductive and iterative process where we look for similarities and differences in the

data that would corroborate or disconfirm theory (ibid.). Hence, this process allowed me to identify themes and arrive at main data findings.

1.7 Trustworthiness

Nieuwenhuis (2007c:113) explains that trustworthiness involves the researcher not being too subjectively involved and not letting his/her own bias influence the findings of the research study. In this study I used the following strategies (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c:113) to ensure the trustworthiness of my data: verifying raw data, keeping notes of research decisions taken, coding of data multi-methods to validate data, and making use of verbatim quotes to support findings. See Chapter 3 (3.9) for more information on these strategies and how they were employed in this research study.

1.8 Ethical considerations of the research

Aurelis (2007:54) argues that ethics are sets of moral principles, rules, or standards governing a person or a profession. The following ethical considerations were taken into account during this research study (Punch, 2006:57; Henning, 2004:73): informed consent, confidentiality, privacy, voluntary participation, and honesty. See Chapter 3 (section 3.10) for further details on these considerations and how they were employed by this research study.

1.9 Chapter outline

The overall structure of the study takes the form of five chapters, including this introductory chapter. In this chapter the research problem was stated and terminology used was clarified. The primary research question was presented, together with the secondary questions. The research aims were then explained, as well as the research design, methodology and processes followed. After clarification of the research paradigm, the sample and research environments, data collection methods and the method of data analysis were described. Lastly, the strategies applied for trustworthiness and ethical considerations were explained.

In Chapter 2 a detailed literature review is presented. The background of human and child trafficking is discussed and the act, means, and purpose of trafficking in persons are elaborated on. Child trafficking as a human rights violation is also discussed in the context of the curriculum, and lastly curriculum making to respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation is alluded to.

In Chapter 3 the research design, methodology and research processes are elaborated on. A qualitative research design was conducted and phenomenology was adopted as the methodological approach. The philosophical underpinning for this methodology was interpretivism. A convenience sampling was used and the data collection methods consisted of semi-structured

one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews. Content analysis was used to analyse the data. My role as researcher is also elaborated on in this chapter. The trustworthiness of the research study is explained as well as the strategies I employed to ensure that I had adhered to ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 explains the presentation of data findings and their interpretations. The research environment and the context of the participants are provided to sketch the profile of each township high school and the learners that participated. Verbatim responses that emerged from the interviews are given. From this, themes of main findings could be conceptualised to respond to the research questions and aims.

Chapter 5, the final chapter, consists of an overview of the research study, as well as significant findings. Recommendations for further research are given, and the limitations and challenges for the research study are elaborated on.

CHAPTER 2

CHILD TRAFFICKING AND THE CURRICULUM

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the scholarly literature on child trafficking applicable to this study is discussed. Boote and Beile (2005:3) suggest that a literature review enhances the collective understanding of scholars, by summarising the past and current state of research on a certain topic (Creswell, 2014:96), and provides the foundation for contributing to the knowledge base (Merriam, 2009:7). In addition, Burns and Grove (2009:92) define a literature review as an organised written presentation of what has been published on a topic by scholars, which thus includes a presentation of research conducted in the selected field of study. The literature review therefore gives scientific background to the study. The four main aims of this chapter are:

- to provide a background of human trafficking and child trafficking (2.2);
- to focus on the act, means, and purpose of trafficking in persons (2.3);
- to discuss child trafficking as a human rights violation and its role in the curriculum (2.4); and
- to develop curriculum to respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation (2.5).

2.2 Background of human and child trafficking

Human trafficking is a form of modern-day slavery and is often collectively referred to as a human rights violation (HSRC, 2010:5). However, human trafficking is more complex than what this statement suggests. Human and child trafficking, which forms part of the broader international discourse that engages with aspects such as immigration and criminology, for example, transpire in contexts where people are denied basic human rights (UNESCO, 2007:16). This study highlights the ties between human and child trafficking and human rights violations in their broadest sense.

The United Nations has been attempting to prevent, combat, and protect persons from trafficking since the 1990s. In 1998 the general assembly established an intergovernmental committee to develop a comprehensive international convention that could aid in transnational organised crime and trafficking in persons (UN, 2004:41). By 2000 the *United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime* introduced two primary legislative policies. One is a protocol aimed at *Preventing, Suppressing and Punishing Trafficking in Persons*, especially the trafficking of women and children (UN, 2000). The other one is the *Convention against Transnational Organised Crimes* (UN, 2004). By the year

2000, 120 nations had committed to promoting these policies (including South Africa) and by 2003 many nations had begun to implement national legislative policies that address the aims of the UN (UN, 2004:42). These aims are to prevent and combat trafficking in persons, paying attention to women and children, to assist victims of such trafficking with due respect to their human rights, and lastly to promote cooperation among state parties in order to meet those objectives (ibid.). National legislation should be devised and underpinned by a common understanding of human trafficking in persons. According to the UN protocol, trafficking is (UNODC, 2009:1)

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

The above definition provides substantial evidence as to what human trafficking entails from an international and global perspective. In this research study I draw particular attention to the above definition of human trafficking because of its international stature and also due to the fact that child trafficking stems from how human trafficking has been conceptualised. Emanating from this perspective of human trafficking, South Africa has introduced an act entitled *Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act* (South Africa, 2013). Drawing from the UN's protocol (UNODC, 2009), South Africa's *Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act* 2013 defines child trafficking as

... any person who delivers, recruits, transports, transfers, harbours, sells, exchanges, leases or receives another person within or across the borders of the Republic for the purpose of any form or manner of exploitation, is guilty of the offence of trafficking in persons, any person who adopts a child, facilitated or secured through legal or illegal means or concludes a forced marriage with another person within or across the borders of the Republic for the purpose of exploitation of that child or other person in any form or manner is guilty of an offence. (South Africa, 2013:5).

The key difference between human trafficking and child trafficking is based on the notion that human trafficking focuses on the act, means and purpose of trafficking (see Table 2.1), whereas child trafficking focuses solely on the act and purpose of trafficking. Moreover, while human trafficking also includes issues of consent, child trafficking focuses on consent and assent (UNODC, 2014:23). The baseline established by the trafficking in persons protocol (UN, 2000:2) is

that the consent of an adult victim to the intended exploitation is irrelevant if any of the trafficking means are used. However, the assent of a child is irrelevant regardless of whether or not trafficking means have been used.

The issue of consent and assent leads to the question of human rights, as both adults and children can be exploited without consent and assent. According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (2009:10), the trafficking protocol states that the consent of a victim of human trafficking to the intended exploitation is irrelevant once it is demonstrated that deception, coercion, force, or other prohibited means have been used. Consent therefore cannot be used as a defence to absolve a person from criminal responsibility. Furthermore, in trafficking cases involving children, the trafficking protocol states that trafficking in persons is made out regardless of the use of prohibited means (UNODC, 2009:10). If consent is obtained through prohibited means such as threat, force, deception, coercion, or through abuse of power or position of vulnerability, the consent is negated. A child (below 18) is not capable of assenting to such conduct, regardless of whether it was obtained improperly, because the law affords them special status due to their unique position as vulnerable persons. Negated consent is, for example, thinking that you will be offered employment, but when you arrive at the destination, the employee exploits you. This is sometimes done by demanding money for the transportation or for food given along the journey. In short, no person can consent to being exploited. In the case of adults (over 18), consent has been negated through the use of improper means. However, in the case of children (under 18), their vulnerability makes it impossible for them to provide assent in the first place.

Factors that make children victims of trafficking are their vulnerability, immaturity, and lack of legal empowerment (UN, 2012:15). As mentioned before, child trafficking is defined by the act and the purpose of trafficking (ILO, 2009:14). Of particular importance in this regard is the South African legislation on human trafficking. South Africa was assigned tiers in 2005 (HSRC, 2010:70). Tier 1 status indicates complete compliance with international legislative standards (HSRC, 2010:70). South Africa was assigned tier 2 watch list status by the US department of state office to monitor and combat trafficking in persons for the years of 2005–2008. Tier 2 countries are those whose governments do not fully comply with the minimum standards but are making significant efforts to bring themselves into compliance with those standards (HSRC, 2010:1). Countries whose governments do not fully comply with the minimum standards and are not making significant efforts to do so are referred to tier 3, countries such as Burundi and Zimbabwe.

As part of its efforts to comply with international legislative standards, Act no. 7: *Prevention and Combating of Trafficking of Persons* was passed in South Africa in 2013 to address trafficking, including child trafficking (South Africa, 2013:14). The aim of the act was to give effect to the

country's obligations concerning the trafficking of persons in terms of international agreements; to provide for an offence of trafficking in persons and other offences associated with trafficking in persons; to provide for penalties that may be imposed in respect of the offences; to provide for measures to protect and assist victims of trafficking in persons; to provide for the coordinated implementation, application and administration of this act; to prevent and combat the trafficking in persons within or across the borders of the Republic; and to provide for matters connected therewith (South Africa, 2013:3).

2.3 The act, means and purpose of trafficking in persons

This research study made use of the act, means and purpose of trafficking model, as it reflects clearly what comprises human trafficking. The model, referred to as the A-M-P model, was first established as a Polaris project in understanding trafficking (Stauss, 2007:2). The A-M-P model should not be seen as three silos, as each of the elements are interrelated and they often overlap due to the complexity of trafficking in persons. Hence, I am fully aware that child trafficking, or any other trafficking, is complex and that the act, means and purpose of trafficking happen simultaneously. For analytical purposes and to unpack the theory, each aspect is discussed separately, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Act, means and purpose of trafficking

2.3.1 Act	2.3.2 Means	2.3.3 Purpose
2.3.1.1 Recruit	2.3.2.1 Force	2.3.3.1 Sexual exploitation
2.3.1.2 Transport	2.3.2.2 Fraud, deception and abduction	2.3.3.2 Labour services and slavery
2.3.1.3 Transfer and deliver	2.3.2.3 Abuse of vulnerability and threat of harm	2.3.3.3 Removal of organs and muti-murders
2.3.1.4 Harbour, sell, and exchange		2.3.3.4 Forced marriages

2.3.1 The act of trafficking

The act of child trafficking alludes to what is being done when trafficking takes place. According to the United Nations (UNODC, 2009:2), trafficking can comprise the following acts: recruitment, transportation, transfer and delivery, as well as harbouring, selling, exchange and leasing.

2.3.1.1 Child trafficking recruitment methods

Songololo (2005:8) maintains that recruitment involves the way in which a child is removed from his/her usual environment, and subsequently is exploited by others. Recruitment methods vary and are dependent on the type of trafficking operation, as well as sectors that children are trafficked into (Songololo, 2005:16). The following recruitment methods have been identified (Songololo, 2005:17):

- (a) Strangers, individuals and others who are linked to gangs or syndicates forcibly recruit children to work in the sex industry.
- (b) Agents and recruiters recruit children into the domestic service and agricultural sectors. In some instances, their family members recruit them. This is done through deception and coercion.
- (c) New or relatively established business ventures advertise in national and local newspapers for teenage girls of working age to work in the hospitality or film industries.
- (d) The cross-border trafficking of children in South Africa is organised by crime syndicates and individuals in the countries of origin where trafficking is high and in South Africa. Little information is available on the nature and extent of these operations.
- (e) South African children are recruited into sex industries in Europe. At present, this trafficking appears to be the work of individual pimps. It seems that children are recruited by these pimps, who come to South Africa and negotiate agreements with the children's parents, promising to send the parents money on a regular basis.

Not only is it possible to discern these child trafficking recruitment methods; the factors underpinning these methods can also be established. Trafficking in persons is essentially a phenomenon that is fuelled by both supply and demand factors. In South Africa, supply and demand factors have been identified by researchers such as Songololo (2005).

Often traffickers target urban and rural areas with the aim of recruiting women, men, and children who are poverty stricken and unemployed. Culture and religion also play an important role as a supply factor. For example, a pretentious priest can easily lure women, girls, and men into being trafficked, as often people believe what they say. Demand factors include the fact that the more the economy appreciates, the more traffickers want to fend for themselves, increasing crime rates. Thus, changes in the economy has increased the demand for cheap labour (Bales, 2007:269).

Trafficking is not only characterised by supply and demand factors, but by the pull and push factors as well. UNICEF (2008:5) has identified the following push and pull factors as characteristics of trafficking worldwide: poverty; family break up; violence or other dysfunction; lack of job opportunities; low education levels, or the wrong skills for the jobs available; family pressures, or a sense of responsibility to provide for the family; and discrimination or marginalisation, including the very fact of being female. The supply and demand factors, combined with these pull and push factors, culminate in the phenomenon of trafficking in persons including women and children, which leave them vulnerable to exploitation (Nair, 2007:2). The offense of trafficking essentially includes the following:

Firstly, the displacement of a person from one community to another; meaning it could be from one house to another, one village to another, one district to another, one state to another, and one country to another. Secondly, it includes the exploitation of the trafficked person. This is manifested as in a brothel, or latent as in certain massage parlours and dance bars where it is placed under the facade of a legitimate commercial activity. Lastly, it includes commercialisation of the exploitation and commodification of the victim. In this regard, the trafficked victim is exploited as if she or he is a commodity and the exploiters generate revenue out of the exploitation.

Many children are moved away from their homes and are exploited in the informal economy where they are even more difficult to trace and are at high risk of many forms of violence (Gallinetti, 2008:10). Child trafficking begins when a child is recruited by someone, or in some cases approached by a recruiter (ibid.). Recruitment happens in many different ways. Recruiters might pretend to inform children about how to move to find work, and children hope to be able to leave the place where they are for opportunities elsewhere. They may be under pressure from their families to find work to help support the family and there may not be work available locally (Songololo, 2005:8).

2.3.1.2 Child trafficking and transportation

Transportation is defined as children being transported from one location to the other (Kreston, 2007:36). Yet, transportation does not necessarily require children to be transported to another location, or that international borders are crossed. Trafficking can occur both internationally or domestically (Kreston, 2007:37). Moving trafficked persons away from familiar surroundings is an important strategy for traffickers. It restricts the victim's scope for seeking help or escaping, and facilitates the exploitation of trapped victims (HSRC, 2010:4). According to the HSRC (2010:7), victims trafficked within South African borders are generally recruited from a region with lower socio-economic status to a region with a higher economic status.

According to the ILO (2009), recruiters are diverse: it can be an elderly woman in the village who in fact makes her living out of recruiting and transporting vulnerable children and putting them into the hands of others who will exploit them, or an adult or older children who have returned from being trafficked and know that there is money to be made in encouraging another child to follow the same path. Recruiters may obtain fake documents that allow them to enter a country fraudulently, or they may enter with a tourist visa and then not leave the country when the visa expires. Sometimes they may enter the country using a route that avoids official border crossings so that they arrive without any entry papers, thus remaining undocumented (ILO, 2009:16).

Women and girls are at risk of being lured by men who show an interest in them and promise them love, a good job, or even marriage (ILO, 2009:27). Occasionally, a child of working age may decide to leave home and move away to find work or a better life and will approach someone she or he knows can arrange transport and who promises help with finding a job at the destination (ILO, 2009:28). Sometimes a child is lured by men for employment purposes in other places, and the child believes that she/he is beginning a new life in that place.

Very young children may be trafficked with their parents and siblings as the whole family is recruited and promised opportunities elsewhere. However, very often families are split up even before arriving at the destination (Gallinetti, 2008:11). The ILO (2009:28) also indicates that there are instances of children being kidnapped or abducted into trafficking. Baby recruitment, for example, may happen through kidnapping or abduction. In some cases, agents effectively buy them from adolescents, young women, or families who do not want them or cannot support them, and need to earn enough money to survive (ILO, 2009:29). In other instances babies are adopted by paying parents (Witte, 2012:50).

2.3.1.3 Child trafficking transferring and delivering

Victims of transferring and delivering can be young or old, female or male, informed or uninformed, from any culture or country. Victims are transferred into many different countries and for many different purposes.

The core problem with children being trafficked is their vulnerability, because as children are transferred and delivered from one place to the other, their vulnerability increases (Cucumanova, 2010:3). Araujo (2011:4) points out the difference between smuggling and transferring, stating that a smuggler would typically facilitate the movement of humans who have procured their services and would collect their payment once the migration has taken place. The safety of the individual being smuggled is therefore a high priority for the smuggler. For a trafficker, on the other hand, the focus is on transferring and exploiting the trafficked at any cost, and as such the well-being of the

victim is not of concern. Even though these parties have their own unique roles, both the smuggler and the trafficker are involved in the transferring and delivery of victims (Araujo, 2011:4).

2.3.1.4 Child trafficking harbouring, selling, exchanging, and leasing

Trafficking in persons is a real and growing problem all over the world. Human beings are bought and sold as commodities (UN, 2009:5). As mentioned before, the criminals responsible for these human rights violations are buying and selling human beings for the purpose of exploitation, such as sexual exploitation, labour exploitation, removal of organs, muti-murders, and forced marriages. One example is a case of reported transplant tourism, which involves the trafficker travelling to provide organs which have been trafficked from patients from outside a country or within their own country (UN, 2009:13).

Harbouring practices that lead to human trafficking often occur before employment begins, whether through misrepresentation of contract terms or the confiscation of identity documents. Sellers at times promise individuals a high paying job, good benefits, and reasonable working conditions to induce them into taking employment. Thereafter they are sold as victims of trafficking (SAWC, 2014:17). Victims could also be exchanged. This occurs when the individual is sold to an agent, who sells the victim to a trafficker. In essence, South Africa serves as a destination, transit, and source country for victims of trafficking to be exchanged (HSRC, 2010:21). The country serves as a trafficking hub for many reasons, including its geographical makeup with its borders and seaboard access and its international access by land, sea, and air transit (Araujo, 2011:6). Kruger (2012:5) asserts that leasing any property for the purpose of harbouring a trafficked child or distributing alluding information leading to trafficking should be prohibited.

2.3.2 The means of trafficking

The means of trafficking in persons alludes to how trafficking is being done. The United Nations (UNODC, 2009:2) indicate that trafficking can comprise the following means: force, fraud, deception and abduction, abuse of vulnerability, and threat of harm. The means of trafficking are mentioned in this research study; however, they are not applicable to child trafficking. Child trafficking only comprises the act and the purpose; the means is exempt due to children's vulnerability and them being under age (below 18) (UNODC, 2009:2). Yet, giving mention to the means remains important, as it enables a deeper understanding of how child trafficking stems from the conceptualisation of human trafficking.

2.3.2.1 Trafficking by means of force

According to the ILO (2007), human trafficking includes all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, debt bondage and serfdom, and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment. In human trafficking the focus is on protecting victims from exploitation and abuse by prohibiting certain forms of labour practices and regulating working conditions (UNICEF, 2008:37). However, many trafficked people are not adequately protected by these regulations. This is particularly the case for children who are not covered by existing labour legislation (article 2 of the ILO Convention No: 138) (ILO, 2007). Very young children who work in the informal sector because they do not meet official minimum age requirements, or children who are trafficked for begging, domestic labour, or other forms of exploitation in the informal sector, fall within this category (UNICEF, 2008:39).

Force is carried out by various exploitations, some of which are forced labour and forced marriages. Any person who subjects another person to either forced labour, forced marriage, or sexual exploitation threatens to cause serious harm to a person, such as physical and emotional restraint (UNODC, 2014:44). Migrants working in domestic service, many of whom are women, are especially at risk of becoming victims of forced labour, because domestic service occurs mostly in the informal sector and in the private sphere. Moreover, children are particularly vulnerable to exploitation in domestic service. Some children may even be subjected to the worst forms of child domestic labour as a result of trafficking and/or debt bondage. They may be sexually abused or exploited, suffer practices similar to slavery, or be forced to undertake hazardous work (ILO, 2005:45).

Forced marriage is characterised by coercion, where individuals are forced to marry against their will, under duress and/or without full, free, and informed consent from both parties. Men and women of all ages, from varied cultural, religious, and socio-economic backgrounds experience forced marriage (UNODC, 2014:43). Duress can include physical, psychological, financial, sexual, and/or emotional pressure. A marriage in which the bride and groom are under the age of 18 is considered a forced marriage, regardless of whether the child has given consent.

Child brides who are forced into marriage also find their health at risk as they tend to have children very young, usually before their bodies are ready for childbirth. They also have a higher chance of contracting HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases (SAWC, 2014:25).

2.3.2.2 Trafficking by means of fraud, deception and abduction

Deception or fraud can refer to the nature of the work or services that the trafficked person engages in. For example, a person may be promised a job as a domestic worker but could be forced to work as a prostitute (UNODC, 2014:12). Often people are promised better lives in the form of jobs, but then perpetrators abduct them and deceive them. The victims would be vulnerable and eager to receive an income, which leads them to being trafficked (UNICEF, 2008:43).

The largest movement of trafficked persons is from rural areas to cities. It is believed that it is easier to lure people in rural areas, as they become desperate for a better life (HSRC, 2010:16). Domestic trafficking includes trafficking for prostitution, domestic servitudes, forced labour, begging, drug trafficking, criminal activity, removal of body parts for muti (this concept is elaborated on in 2.3.3.3), or for sacrifice in rituals (HSRC, 2010:16). Parents, bogus employment agencies, and tout acting on behalf of agencies and local gangs are the primary traffickers of children, sometimes in collusion with each other. Traffickers in South Africa are predominantly locals (Songololo, 2005:14) who have been known to recruit children into sectors such as domestic service and agricultural labour. In some instances their family members recruit them. This is done through deception and coercion (Songololo, 2005:14).

2.3.2.3 Trafficking by means of abuse of vulnerability and threat of harm

Abuse of vulnerability is defined as any situation in which the person involved has no real and acceptable alternative but to submit to the abuse involved, due to being threatened (UN, 2009:13). Bermudez (2008:12) maintains that human trafficking is a multi-dimensional social phenomenon that is perpetuated by the socio-economic challenges faced by populations which make them vulnerable to recruitment, also known as push factors. There is also a demand for the exploitative use of individuals, whether in forced labour or the commercial sex industry, known as the pull factors. South Africa has the potential for high levels of internal trafficking because of its unique socio-political history and stark economic inequalities (Bermudez, 2008:13). Challenges include gender violence, a factor that often increases vulnerability to being trafficked. Threat of harm entails threatening people into actions beyond their control. Perpetrators often threaten to murder victims (or their loved ones) should they not do what they require them to do. Threat of harm could also involve physical or sexual violence or emotional torture like blackmail or the use of abusive language (UNODC, 2014:16).

2.3.3 The purpose of trafficking

The purpose of child trafficking constitutes why child trafficking is done. The United Nations (UNODC, 2009:2) indicate that trafficking can comprise the following purposes: sexual exploitation, labour trafficking, removal of organs, multi-murders, and forced marriages.

2.3.3.1 Child trafficking and sexual exploitation

Sexual exploitation means the commission of any sexual offence referred to in criminal law or any offence of a sexual nature in any other law (South Africa, 2013:12). Sexual exploitation is by far the most commonly identified form of trafficking worldwide (HSRC, 2010:6). This form of trafficking occurs with women, men, and children (UN.GIFT, 2007:1). The core of the problem with trafficking of human beings concerns their vulnerabilities. Essentially, trafficking does not begin with the traffickers themselves, but with the conditions that cause the victims to be vulnerable to exploitation (Cucumanova, 2010:1). According to the HSRC (2010:7), trafficking victims, particularly women and children, for sexual exploitation often involves ancillary criminal activities, including the use and distribution of narcotics. South African women and girls are trafficked internally and occasionally by organised crime syndicates to countries including, but not limited to, Europe and Asia for sexual exploitation (Kreston, 2007:38). Although Kreston (2007) places an emphasis on women and children, the IOM (2008:17) states that there has been an increased recognition in recent years of male victims, not only minors but also increasingly adult males. The UNODC (2014:5) identified eighteen percent of males being trafficked in the year 2011, and twelve percent of boys also being trafficked for sexual exploitation in the same year globally.

Trafficking of South African children predominantly occurs within the boundaries of the country, with girls being the primary targets, and parents and local criminal gangs being the primary traffickers (Gallinetti, 2008:10). According to the UNODC (2014:5) statistics, girls constitute twenty one percent of victims trafficked globally. There are various factors causing or facilitating in country sexual exploitation, some of which are an increase in unemployment and poverty, high drop-out rates at primary and secondary school level, inadequate service provision and poor understanding of policy implementation on the part of service providers, inadequate legislation, an increased demand for sexual exploitation and trafficking, and a lack of arrest and convictions of traffickers and sex offenders (Gallinetti, 2008:11). Trafficking for sexual exploitation typically includes physical, emotional, and psychological abuse within the commercial sex industry, which can take place in private homes or public places and can involve demanding both sex and other labour forms such as domestic work (HSRC, 2010:5).

2.3.3.2 Child trafficking and forced labour services and slavery

Forced labour is the condition of a person who provides labour or services and who, because of the use of force or threats, is neither free to cease providing labour or services, nor to leave the place or area of providing labour or services (UNODC, 2014:17). When trafficking is viewed as a labour issue, efforts to address it tend to focus on combating the demand for cheap labour and advocating for the enforcement of labour standards and improvements in working conditions (UNICEF, 2008:39). According to the ILO (2007), labour exploitation includes all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, debt bondage, and serfdom.

Slavery means a situation under which powers generally exercised towards property are exercised over a person, in which matter substantive control over the life or a person or denial of his liberty is deemed (UNODC, 2014:22). In child labour the focus is on protecting children from exploitation and abuse by prohibiting certain forms of child labour and regulating working conditions (UNICEF, 2008:37). Trafficked people, however, are not adequately protected under this legislation. This is particularly true for children who are not covered by existing labour legislation, including very young children who work in the informal sector because they do not meet official minimum age requirements, or children who are trafficked for begging, domestic labour, or other forms of exploitation in the informal sector (UNICEF, 2008:39).

The ILO (2009:3) states that children are frequently trafficked into labour exploitation in agriculture, both long term and on a seasonal basis. Children are also being trafficked into the militia and armed gangs in conflict zones (ILO, 2009:3). Trafficked children are totally at the mercy of their employers or the people who are controlling their lives, and so risk sexual aggression, starvation, loss of liberty, and other forms of violence (ILO, 2009:18). For example, research done by Bermudez (2008:53) showed how boys (at the average age of 12 years old) in rural areas are promised payment to work on farms during school holidays, but then they are only provided with food. According to the UNODC (2014:16), there are five elements that can point to a forced labour situation, namely physical or sexual violence, the use of abusive language, restriction of movement or confinement to the workplace, withholding of payment, retention of passport or identity so that the worker cannot leave, and lastly threat of denunciation to the authorities.

2.3.3.3 Child trafficking and removal of organs and muti-murders

Aronowitz and Isitman (2013:80), as well as Budiani-saberi and Mostafa (2011:27) note that an alternative method of obtaining an organ is through deception and fraud. Donors are often illiterate or ignorant about health and medical issues. Several cases have been documented where donors were told that if they donate a kidney, another one will grow back to replace it, or that one kidney

works while the other one sleeps and that the 'sleepy' kidney will be removed, leaving the donor with a good one. However, in the most common form of trafficking the recipient agrees to the sale (Aronowitz & Isitman, 2013:80).

The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) (2008:8) points out that, in the context of trafficking for the purpose of organ removal, there are various ways that organs can be procured, including the following:

Kidnap, killing and sale of people especially children for organs; removal of kidneys through deception or coercion; victim is recruited and taken abroad for an unspecified job that then fails to materialize; such a person may be kept in safe houses and are psychologically coerced into remaining there; in some cases victims may be put under anaesthetic and wake to find their kidney has been removed; persons may be given option to sell a kidney or heavily threatened into doing so through violence; person may be deceived by a surgeon or a broker as to procedures and consequences of the organ removal; victims may agree to sell their organs and not be paid in full or not be paid at all; and organs are removed from bodies of people who have been declared brain dead premature.

The United Nations has reported the occurrence of child trafficking for organ harvesting, stating that many abducted or missing children have subsequently been found dead, their bodies mutilated, and certain organs removed. This practice has also been associated with the African traditional practice of voodoo, in which certain body parts are sold and used by practitioners to increase fertility, health, wealth, or influence of a paying client. The practice can be thought of as muti-murder (Aronowitz & Isitman, 2013:79).

Muti³ is the Zulu word for medicine and in the traditional sense refers to the use of potions made from indigenous herbs to cure common illness (Minaar, 2001:2). Muti-murder may be loosely defined as a murder where the intention is to gather human body parts for use in traditional African medicine. The principle of muti has been expanded to include the use of human body parts, which are believed to cure ailments ranging from HIV and AIDS to infertility, and to increase wealth and influence (Bermudez, 2008:60). In a muti-related crime, a victim is targeted and specific body parts are removed for the purpose of financial gain. According to Bermudez (2008), Limpopo is the place with the highest incidence of muti-murders. Muti-related crime cases reported in Limpopo include the case of a man who had his arms chopped off and a woman who had her tongue cut out (Bermudez, 2008:62). The removal of body parts for the purpose of financial gain within the realm

³ Muti is the word commonly used for traditional medicine in South Africa (Hepburn & Simon, 2013:269)

of traditional medicine is a unique issue facing South Africa (Bermudez, 2008:63). The HSRC (2010:9) asserts that muti-murders are difficult to prosecute, partly because witnesses are afraid to testify for fear of retribution. Muti-related killings have been documented in the provinces of Limpopo, Free State, Kwazulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and the North West, and have often been confined to more rural and informal settlements (HSRC, 2010:8).

In South Africa and other African countries, the use of human body parts for medical purposes is based in the belief that it is possible to appropriate the life force of one person through its literal consumption by another (Vincent, 2008:43). Unlike human sacrifice, where death is the purpose of the act, in muti-related killings death is an anticipated and accepted by product of the garnering of human organs, not the main aim. It is believed that when body parts, including internal organs, are removed while the victim is still alive, the power of the resultant medicine will be greatly enhanced (Vincent, 2008:44). Hence, there is a specific relation between muti-murders and organ removal.

2.3.3.4 Child trafficking and forced marriages

According to SAWC (2014), a forced marriage is described as one lacking free and informed consent with an element of physical force or psychological pressure. It is also defined as a practice whereby a woman or child has no right to refuse her promised or given marriage on payment of a considerable amount or in kind to her or his parents, guardian, or family (UNODC, 2014:17).

Once in a forced marriage, children often face physical and psychological violence, their documents are removed, and their movements closely monitored, so that they cannot leave or seek help (US Department of State, 2010:15). After the marriage ceremony, these young girls may be left in the country abroad, sometimes never to return to the country of origin (Lyneham, 2013:1). In the case of girls falsely promised marriage, but trafficked into sexual exploitation, the motives are ones of pure financial profit for the traffickers at the cost of human suffering and abuse on the part of the victim (SAWC, 2014:16).

Where poverty is acute, a young girl may be regarded as an economic burden and her marriage to a much older person sometimes may be seen to benefit the child and her family both financially and socially (Ross, 2008:633). Being trafficked for forced marriage includes a range of human rights abuses against children, including rape and sexual assault, emotional and psychological abuse, enforced pregnancy and abortion, domestic violence and domestic servitude, denial of education, isolation and restrictions on freedom of movement (ibid.).

Unpacking the A-M-P model in section 2.3 has been insightful for grasping the core elements of human and child trafficking. In section 2.4 this conceptualisation of child trafficking is positioned

within the contexts of human rights violations so as to consider its implications within a rights context. Thereafter mention is made of the curriculum. This deems fitting due to the focus of this research study on exploring the possibilities of a socially responsive curriculum to create awareness of child trafficking amongst school children.

2.4 Child trafficking as a human rights violation and the curriculum

Trafficking of human beings can be seen as both a violation of human rights and a form of gender-based discrimination and violence against women, men and children (NGO Council, 2012:1). According to the UN (2014:4), the following human rights are most relevant to trafficking:

... the prohibition of discrimination on the basis of race, colour, sex, language, religion or other status; the right to life; the right to liberty and security; the right not to be submitted to slavery, servitude, forced labour; the right not to be subjected to torture, inhuman, degrading treatment or punishment; the right to freedom of movement; the right to freedom of association; the right to adequate standard of living, homophobic violence; and the right of children to special protection.

Thousands of children die worldwide and millions more are physically, emotionally, or socially scarred by the harmful practices of trafficking, which are often perpetrated by parents, relatives, community leaders, and other adults (ibid.). All actions undertaken in relation to child victims and children at risk should be guided by the applicable human rights standards, in particular, the principles of protection and respect for children's rights, as set out in the 1989 UN Convention on the *Rights of the Child* and in its optional protocol on the *Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography* (UN, 2011:28).

In light of this, many countries in the world, including African countries, have specific legislation which criminalises trafficking, in line with the provisions of the Palermo Protocols. Nigeria, Ghana, and Tanzania, among other countries, enacted various laws to combat human trafficking (Aransiola, 2014:517). South Africa has also enacted various laws, including the *Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act* (2013) and the *Children's Act* (2005). This legislation is related to child care, child justice, and sexual offences with the intention to comprehensively address the problem (South Africa, 2013:14). The objectives of these acts are:

... to give effect to South Africa's obligations concerning the trafficking of persons in terms of international agreement; to provide for the prosecution of persons who commit offences referred to in the act; to provide for the prevention of trafficking in persons and for the protection of and assistance to victims of trafficking; to provide services to

victims of trafficking; to provide for effective enforcement measures; and to combat trafficking in persons in a co-ordinated manner. (South Africa, 2013:14)

It is important to note that having trafficking legislation may not eradicate human rights abuses associated with trafficking, although it has the potential to improve the rights of any rescued victim (South Africa, 2013:15). This calls for additional proactive and practical measures to be put in place for optimum effectiveness of the new law. At the border between Zimbabwe and South Africa there are trafficking syndicates called Ngumaguma or Malaisha (traffickers) who pretend to assist people to cross into South Africa illegally, but who in the end exploit them (Aransiola, 2014:518). Child trafficking syndicates have many tactics and are dynamic in their operations (ibid.).

Child victims are entitled to special protection measures, irrespective of their legal status both as victims and as children, in accordance with their special rights and needs (ibid.). Rojas (2011:1) asserts that children's rights need to be measured and monitored independently from other overall human rights, because they constitute a vulnerable sector of the population that needs special protection. Rojas (2011:15) maintains that children's human rights and humanitarian violations include

... the recruitment of children into armed forces and irregular forces; violations against humanitarian rules that protect them in conflict situations; child labour and enslavement; child pornography and prostitution; as well as the trafficking of children through child abduction, civil rights violation, torture and mutilation.

UNICEF (2001a:3) emphasises that human rights legislation and enforcement mechanisms need to be developed specifically for vulnerable sectors like children. Although child trafficking is seen as a human rights violation, it is also seen as a social problem. Therefore it is of utmost importance within the curriculum. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (South Africa, 2010:23) notes that issues of human rights should be infused throughout the curriculum and across the entire environment of education. This also includes providing curriculum content and teaching guidelines on how this can be achieved. However, in its present form, South Africa's explicit curriculum shows little evidence of child and/or human trafficking content, while human rights aspects are emphasised. One can argue that human and/or child trafficking is part of the null curriculum, that which is not taught for whatever reason (Quinne, 2010:613).

In addition, school-based research indicates that little progression occurs when human rights are dealt with in the curriculum (Du Preez, 2012; Kutu, 2013). It is important to recognise that addressing human rights in the curriculum creates an "organic space" for child trafficking to be integrated (Du Preez, 2012:51). This is an ideal opportunity to introduce a contextualised and

authentic example of human rights violations that could facilitate learning about this complex social problem. It might also ensure that content on child trafficking is addressed in the formal curriculum and done in a manner that allows for conceptual progression. Conceptual progression is seen as that which facilitates progressively more complex, deeper and broader knowledge, skills, and attitudes for learners to acquire from grade to grade (Naidoo, 2009:7). Du Preez (2008:107) argues that “this might only be possible if infusing schools with a culture of human rights is not limited to teaching learners about rejecting all forms of discrimination, but to teach them to reject it in practice too. A culture of human rights is a local as well as a global ideal that unites ethical communities open to dialogue about human rights.” In the next section I contemplate how curriculum making can respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation through the theory of a socially responsive curriculum.

2.5 Curriculum making to respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation

Pinar (2007) argues for the intellectual advancement of curriculum making through disciplinarity. Such a stance is underpinned by the intellectual labour of reaching understanding through comprehension, critique, and reconceptualization of what constitutes the discipline of disciplinarity (Pinar, 2007:xii). This is possible when engaging with curriculum discipline-specific historical contexts and current societal conditions in order to advance curriculum making scholarship (Pinar, 2007:xi). For Pinar (2007), the cultivation of vertical and horizontal conversations is key to the intellectual advancement of curriculum making. Vertical conversations are thought of as the intellectual history of the discipline through which its disciplinarity resonates (Pinar, 2007:xiii). Horizontality, on the other hand, approaches curriculum making from the periphery instead of the centre. Its focus is analysing present circumstances in conjunction with the social and political milieus which influence and structure this set of circumstances (Pinar, 2007:xiv). Pinar (2007:xv) stresses that, without participating in these conversations, one cannot contribute to the field, nor can one claim expertise in its scholarship.

The question of conversations is significant in the wider discourse of the knowledge economy. The growing knowledge economy necessitates that democratic, ethical, and social issues be acknowledged (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007:2). These three dimensions require profound engagement with theory by the active knowledge producers in society. The curriculum has been proposed as a powerful means, with the potential to initiate social transformation and addressing conversations in the society (ibid.). It reflects the dominant social, democratic, and ethical discourses, and for this reason it seems reasonable to see child trafficking under a socially responsive curriculum, linking it to a broad curriculum as they are both inquiry driven and influenced by socio-political context.

Teachers should ask questions such as “how”, “what”, “when”, and so on. Freire’s (1970) critical pedagogy is focused on the application of dialogue in posing problems.

To explore the possibilities of curriculum making to respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation from a critical pedagogy perspective this section of the chapter will begin by positioning child trafficking as a human rights violation within the broad and narrow curriculum perspectives, a position is then taken for a socially responsive curriculum, which leads to concluding this section with making a case for a critical perspective to curriculum making.

The next section begins by positioning child trafficking as a human rights violation within the broad and narrow curriculum perspectives, a position is then taken for a socially responsive curriculum, which leads to concluding this section with making a case for a critical perspective to curriculum making.

2.5.1 Broad and narrow curriculum perspective

Graham-Jolly (2012:231) regards the broad curriculum as interrelated and inclusive of elements such as teaching-learning, pedagogy, assessment, development, design, and evaluation. This broad perspective on curriculum emerged in response to critiques of a narrow perspective on curriculum during the 1970s and 1980s. A narrow curriculum perspective engages with the elements of curriculum as distinct and isolated components of curriculum. Moreover, within a narrow perspective, curriculum is viewed as a product to be examined or measured, while from a broad perspective, curriculum is perceived as a process influenced by socio-political context. According to Toombs and Tierney (1993:175), the idea of a curriculum has been differentiated across a wide range of meanings. One basic view is that curriculum is “what is taught” (ibid.). This supports a narrow view of curriculum as “the body of courses that present knowledge, principles, values, and skills that are the intended consequences of formal education” (Graham-Jolly, 2012:231). However, from a broad perspective, even the set of choices from which the curriculum can be defined is broad. For Toombs and Tierney (1993) this necessitates that “the curriculum will have to be conceived as the name for the total active life of each person in school”.

It is not useful to think of child trafficking in terms of a narrow curriculum perspective, as this perspective is thought of as a policy artefact to be "examined" or measured (Graham-Jolly, 2012:249). A narrow curriculum perspective uses terminology such as the explicit curriculum, the formal curriculum, the syllabus and the subjects taught (Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2016; Wilson, 2005). Within this line of thinking, curriculum is a policy artefact to be implemented at micro (classroom) level. It is equated with the subjects and content that appear in written documents

issued on a meso (school) and macro (government) level. Curriculum as a policy artefact rejects the idea that experiences are part of the curriculum (Jacobs *et al.*, 2016:74).

By contrast, the “broader” interpretation of curriculum is inquiry driven and is influenced by “its socio-political context” (Graham-Jolly, 2012:249). From a broad curriculum perspective, it could be useful to engage with complex issues in the curriculum, including child trafficking as a human rights violation from the perspective of a socially responsive curriculum, because it focuses on complex conversations between teachers, learners, and community members in conversations that challenge ideas and how learners think.

2.5.2 Socially responsive curriculum

Torres and Moraes (2006:248) suggest that socially responsive curricula involve democratic participation of the parties involved in the planning of curriculum, as well as learners’ experiences and interests as part of the curriculum implementation. The ultimate goal of these curricula is to educate learners as citizens to be committed and active participants in making the society more democratic, just, and peaceful. These curricular goals are in sharp contrast with the corporate ideology (Torres & Moraes, 2006:249). Teachers need to ally with parents and other conscientious people from their communities to create a counter-hegemony by starting to build a socially responsive curriculum based on participatory democratic and humanistic values as an alternative to market for-profit values (Torres & Moraes, 2006:244).

According to Pinar (2012:xv), expressing one’s subjectivity through academic knowledge about those issues is how one links the socially responsive curriculum with the planned one, how one demonstrates to learners that scholarship can speak to them, how in fact scholarship can enable them to speak. Subjectivity is an abstract noun for the verb that means being alive and living to tell about it. Lived experience is not preconceptual, but always already linked to our representations of it (Pinar, 2012:52).

The socially responsive curriculum recognises lived experiences and is associated with social responsibility and social accountability. Social responsibility implies an obligation or duty to society for actions intended to serve it (Boelen & Wollard, 2009:887). Social accountability involves a commitment to respond as best as possible to the educational needs and societal needs of learners. A curriculum to teach social responsibility must be based on specific desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Boelen and Wollard (2009:287) maintain that a socially responsive curriculum is built upon the humanistic principles of quality, equity, and relevance. This understanding of a socially responsive curriculum is not the curriculum as laid out in a plan, but a plan more or less lived out (UNITEC, 2012:4).

A broad curriculum is linked to a socially responsive curriculum because of its focus on conversations between teachers, learners, and other relevant stakeholders in the community as partners to challenge ideas and provoke new thinking (Graham-Jolly, 2009:248). The broad curriculum, together with the critical perspective, asks us to question the authority of experts in curriculum making and urges for a more democratic relationship between teachers and learners in order to provoke new thinking and to lead to a praxis approach (Posner, 2012:248).

A praxis approach is not simply action based on reflection; rather it is action which embodies certain qualities. These include a commitment to human well-being and the search for truth and respect for others (Carr & Kemmis, 1986:190). Moreover, praxis is always risky as it requires that a person makes a wise and a prudent practical judgement about how to act in a situation (Carr & Kemmis, 1986:190). Curriculum as praxis is a conceptualisation of curriculum derived from an orientation towards human well-being and which makes an explicit commitment to emancipation of the human spirit (Grundy, 1987:102). Hence, it moves the teaching and learning process to critical pedagogy, as Grundy (1987:103) describes: "... a process which takes the experiences of both the learner and the teacher through dialogue and negotiation". Grundy (1987:104) notes that critical pedagogy "places control of knowledge (that is, both the production and application of knowledge) with the learning group rather than elsewhere". The purpose of critical pedagogy is to enrich learners' overall life. In such an approach, learners are given the chance to challenge others' accepted hypotheses and also to explore the relationship between their society and the content of their educational environment. Through these opportunities learners can comprehend their position in the society and they can take positive steps to amend their society and ultimately eliminate problems, inequities, and oppressions in their future life (Grundy, 1987:104).

Freire (2010) assert that critical pedagogy is a process which helps learners to be empowered with and capable of achieving self-awareness and self-actualisation to transform their inappropriate conditions. It can be said that the focus of Freire's (2010) critical pedagogy on critical thinking is based on the objective realities in an individual's life. Unlike other methods, the posed-problem method that has been introduced by Freire requires exchange of thoughts and beliefs through dialogue in which both teachers and learners have critical cooperation. As a result, they will be motivated to think critically about their lives. Finally, the process results in praxis which is the final purpose of education from a Freirian perspective (Pozter, 1993:38).

Learners and teachers are encouraged to confront real problems together. They are encouraged to think and reflect critically and develop these skills further (Grundy, 1987:250). In working together, they develop an understanding of their respective pedagogical roles and what others expect of them in the learning process. As a learning group, they need to work out an action proposal for

essential “content” and for outcomes of the educational encounter (Grundy, 1987:251). The learning process and outcomes are continually evaluated based on the dynamic interaction of the learning group. Hence, the curriculum itself develops with the learning process. As Grundy (1987:261) puts it, “the curriculum is not simply a set of plans to be implemented, but rather is constituted through an active process in which planning, acting and evaluating are all reciprocally related and integrated into the process”. As such, praxis takes place in the real world and at the centre of praxis is informed and committed action. The key concern here is for learners to make sense of the concepts and theories as well as find meaning and connection to real world applications of knowledge in their learning journey.

2.5.3 Critical perspective to curriculum making

Paulo Freire, one of the leading scholars who promotes critical awareness and consciousness raising in and through education, provides key insights when engaging with curriculum making from a critical perspective. His ideas have been expressed in some of his key works: *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (Freire, 1970), *Education For Critical Consciousness* (Freire, 1974), and *Pedagogy of Hope* (Freire, 1994). In this study, pedagogy forms part of what Graham-Jolly (2009:247) regards as the broad curriculum. Taking a broad perspective on curriculum, Crabtree, Sapp and Licona (2009:1) regard pedagogy as the art, craft and science of teaching. As an art, education must be based on a plan, on principles aimed at developing human nature in such a way that human destiny is realised, instead of being purely experimental grounds of incidental discovery (Munzel, 2003:16). As a craft, it can be seen as a form of self-expression that can be a way of learning sensitivity towards different cultural or ecological phenomena, reflecting on culture and society, and better understanding cultural differences (Hickman, 2013:190). Lastly, as a science, pedagogy focuses on its eclectic character, reflecting deep confusion of thought and of aims and purposes relating to learning and teaching (Simon, 1981:1). Pedagogy derives from, amongst others, Lusted’s (1986:3) notion of pedagogy as addressing the transformation of consciousness that takes place in the intersection of three agencies, namely the teacher, the learner, and the knowledge they produce. Pedagogy emphasises the conditions and means through which knowledge is produced, shared, and interpreted (Lather, 2006:35).

At the centre of Freire’s scholarship is the importance of anti-authoritarian and interactive approaches, aimed to examine issues such as relational power, inequality, and social justice. For Freire (1972:243), the fundamental goal at the centre of curricula should be making explicit and aiming to address social and political critiques of everyday life. This requires an engagement with praxis, as reflection and action, through designing and developing curricula as socially responsive. Freire’s (1972:243) advocacy for praxis requires the implementation of a range of educational

practices and processes with the aim of creating not only a better learning environment but also a better world. Freire maintains that a critical perspective to curriculum making should not merely entail an educational technique, but a way of living in our diverse educational environment. From a critical pedagogical position, this promotes that learners recognise the connections between their individual problems and experiences and the social contexts in which they are embedded (Posner, 2012:248). Critical pedagogy explores the dialogic relationships between teaching and learning (Apple, 1995:229). Teaching and learning should be a process of inquiry, of critique; it should also be a process of constructing, of building a social imagination that works within a language of hope. If teaching is cast in the form of "a language of possibility," then a greater potential exists for making learning relevant, critical, and transformative (Posner, 1995:230). Knowledge is relevant only when it begins with the experiences learners bring with them from the surrounding culture; it is critical only when these experiences are shown to sometimes be socio-political (i.e. racist and sexist), and it is transformative only when learners begin to use the knowledge to help empower others, including individuals in the surrounding community (McLaren, 1994:197).

Freire suggests that the whole curriculum of the classroom must be re-examined and reconstructed, whereby the teacher's role would be to critically navigate the way learners perceive the world (Freire, 1970:246). He favours a change of role of the learners from passive to active. In doing so, he suggests that learners undergo a struggle for ownership of themselves (ibid.). He states that learners have previously been lulled into a sense of complacency by the circumstances of everyday life, and that through the processes of the classroom they can begin to envision and strive for something different for themselves (Freire, 1970:247). As such, Freire (1970:247) is critical of what he calls the banking concept. The banking concept critiques the traditional education system, which refers to the metaphor that learners are containers into which educators must put knowledge (Freire, 1970:242). In contrast with the banking method, Freire's problem-solving method requires dialogue in which the teacher and learners are critical co-investigators. In transformation leading to a socially responsive curriculum, learners come to see the world not as static reality but as a reality in process (Freire, 1970:244).

For a critical perspective to resonate within curriculum making, Freire (2010) advocates for an emancipatory approach that emphasises critical reflection by teachers and learners in their own concrete situation. They both develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world in which they find themselves (Jansen, 2009:258). Problem-posing education bases itself on creativity and stimulates true reflection and action upon reality, thereby responding to the vocation of persons as beings who are authentic only when engaged in inquiry and creative transformation. This requires thinking of curriculum making as critical consciousness. It contrasts with the banking concept which advocates that it is the duty of the learner to remember and accurately recall the

information provided by the teacher (Freire, 1970:240). They are not asked to participate in any other way, but merely to absorb information (ibid.). In this type of approach, the world is seen as unchangeable, and learners are simply supposed to fit into it as it is (Posner, 2012:241). Banking education resists dialogue; problem-posing education regards dialogue as indispensable to the act of cognition which unveils reality (ibid.). Banking education treats learners as objects of assistance; problem-posing education makes them critical thinkers (Freire, 1970:243). Banking education inhibits creativity and domesticates (although it cannot completely destroy) the intentionality of consciousness by isolating consciousness from the world, thereby denying people their ontological and historical vocation of becoming more fully human (Freire, 1972:83).

Based on Freire's (1970) critique of the banking concept, he suggests four key steps for thinking differently about curriculum making. The first step places emphasis on teachers helping learners to generate themes, while the second step emphasises that through dialogue themes are formed in order to develop instructional material. The third step involves learners using those themes in cultural circles as the focus of discussions. Finally, all of these steps lead to having a praxis based curriculum making within a focus on critical reflection (Posner, 2012:248).

One way of developing a curriculum from a critical approach is to utilise these four steps or themes, as they aim to address social, economic, and/or political issues. Thus, they can be used to embrace hegemonic and ideological curriculum questions within a critical interest (Posner, 2012:248). These different approaches to curriculum making further accentuate curriculum change.

A socially responsive curriculum, together with the critical perspective to curriculum making, include teacher and learner dialogue, or what can be thought of as complicated conversations (Pinar, 2007), and through these themes can be identified and used to inform curriculum making (Posner, 2012:248). Both the socially responsive curriculum and the critical perspective to curriculum making emphasise that if we desire a more peaceful society, one in which learners are active participants and not just depositors of knowledge, we cannot merely speak about problems that hinder social cohesion. We need to delve deeply to find the elements that initially created and now perpetuate the problem. For a broad curriculum to be embraced, we cannot view subject areas as isolated spaces, since this might create artificial boundaries that can hinder us from understanding our theoretical stance. Curriculum theory should evolve to respond to the changing social needs of a society.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter the scholarly literature of child trafficking was discussed with the focus being the act, means, and purpose of child trafficking, as well as child trafficking as a human rights violation. The

focus of this chapter was to elicit the background of human and child trafficking and more specifically the act, means, and purpose of trafficking in persons. This chapter also explored child trafficking as a human rights violation. How curriculum making can respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation formed the concluding part of this chapter. Emphasis was placed on curriculum making that is socially responsive and critical in nature. Based on critical pedagogy, schools should be considered as places for social change and evolution. Critical pedagogy promotes social reformation. Schools should not only foster critical thinking through the curriculum, but they should also teach learners how to change their surrounding environments. The purpose of critical pedagogy is to enrich learners' overall lives. In such an approach, learners are given the chance to challenge others' accepted hypotheses and to explore the relationship between their society and the content of their educational environment. As Freire (1972) advocates, we should reject traditional education methods and introduce revolutionary methods to change educational structures and systems through critical curriculum making. This chapter endeavoured to unlock the importance of a critical pedagogy for socially responsive curriculum making.

Chapter 3 explains the research design, methodology, and processes employed by this research study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND PROCESSES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the qualitative research design, methodology, and processes employed in the research study. According to Boeije (2010:24), a research aim directs the entire research study, including the data analysis (1.5). Therefore, asking relevant questions is essential for gathering applicable data and consequently to provide the analysis with the necessary input to ultimately answer the research questions (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:73). In devising the research design, predetermined plans and procedures must be chosen that compliment a study the best (Creswell, 2009:3). With these plans and procedures, the researcher puts forward certain aims and goals for the envisaged research study (ibid.). This chapter provides the structure and explains what the research study entails, and therefore it will elaborate on the following:

- research design (3.2);
- methodology (3.3);
- research paradigm (3.4);
- sample and research environment (3.5);
- data collection methods (3.6);
- method of data analysis (3.7);
- researcher's role (3.8);
- trustworthiness (3.9);
- ethical considerations of the research study (3.10);
- anticipated research problems (3.11); and
- conclusion (3.12).

3.2 Research design

A research design is a plan or strategy which moves from the underlying philosophical and methodological assumptions to specifying the selection of respondents, the data gathering techniques to be used, and the data analyses to be done (Nieuwenhuis, 2016a:72). A research design can also be described as a plan, strategy, and procedure for research, encompassing all

decisions from the onset, including methods of data generation and data analysis (Creswell, 2009:1). While there are a wide range of research designs that one can choose from, it is important that researchers keep both their philosophical assumptions and research questions in mind when selecting a research design (ibid.). Deciding what the purpose of the study will be is a very important aspect when conducting research (Patton, 2002:214). Not only will it lead you into the desired direction (Punch, 2006:48), but it will also enable you to decide on the research design that will be relevant for the particular study (Patton, 2002:214). Punch (2006) mentions five elements of research design, namely research methodology, paradigm, sample, data collection methods, and methods of data analysis.

3.3 Methodology

Mamabolo (2009:42) maintains that a qualitative research design refers to inductive, holistic, emic, subjective, and process-oriented methods used to understand, interpret, and describe a theory on a phenomenon or setting. It is a systematic approach used to describe lived experiences in an attempt to make meaning of it. Qualitative research is mostly associated with words, language, and experiences rather than measurements, statistics, and numerical figures (ibid.).

For the purpose of this research study, a qualitative research design was utilised. Qualitative research is a means of exploring and understanding the meaning that individuals give to situations or circumstances they are in (Creswell, 2009:5). Denscombe (2010:272) reminds us that qualitative research is described as taking the form of words (spoken or written) and visual images (observed and creatively produced). Common methodologies include case studies, grounded theory, ethnography, and phenomenology and data collection methods such as interviews, documents, and observations. Nieuwenhuis (2016a:53) observes that qualitative researchers are mostly interested in how humans arrange themselves and their surroundings and how inhabitants of these settings make sense of their surroundings through symbols, rituals, social structures, and social roles.

The advantages associated with a qualitative research methodology are listed below (Denscombe, 2010:304):

- (i) There is richness and detail to the data. The in-depth study of relatively focused areas, the tendency towards small scale research and the generation of thick descriptions mean that qualitative research scores well in a way it deals with complex social situations.

- (ii) There is tolerance for ambiguity and contradictions. This is so because social existence involves uncertainty, and accounts of that existence ought to be able to tolerate ambiguities and contradictions.
- (iii) There is the prospect of alternative explanations. It draws on the interpretive skills of the researcher and opens up the possibility of more than one valid explanation.
- (iv) The data and the analysis are usually grounded. A particular strength associated with qualitative research is that the descriptions and theories are grounded in reality. The data and the analysis have their roots in the conditions of social existence.

This research study followed a phenomenological methodology. According to Patton (2002:104), phenomenology engages with questions that seek to reveal meanings and lived experiences. To elicit responses, researchers could ask: "What is the meaning, structure and essence of the lived experience of this phenomenon for this person or group of people?" (Patton, 2002:105). As described by Patton (2002), phenomenology focuses on two different aspects: first, on describing the subjective perspective of how people experience the world (the descriptive part), and second, on analysing what this experience means to them (the analytical part). The idea is to discover essences of shared experiences among the studied group of people.

Schutz (1962:59) points out that the phenomenological methodology provides a rich and complete description of human experiences and meanings. Findings are allowed to emerge, rather than being imposed by an investigator. Careful techniques are used to keep descriptions as faithful as possible to the experiential raw data. This is accomplished by extreme care in moving step by step and in being ever mindful not to delete from, add to, change, or distort anything originally present in the initial "meaning units" of the participant transcripts. The investigator attempts to "bracket" presuppositions and biases to hold them in consciousness through all phases of the research and minimise their influence on the findings (ibid.).

Schutz (1962:60) further mentions that, although phenomenology has its strengths, it also has its limitations, one of which is that it depends on the articulate skills of the participants who provide the information. Logistical and generalisation issues are connected with this. Conclusions depend on the particular participants chosen for the study (ibid.). In its orientation toward a particular time frame or moment, the method may miss information about broader periods, or information about the development (time course) of an experience. In focusing on a rich description of an experience, the methodology may miss information about what led up to that experience, what the outcomes or consequences might be, and what the concomitants and other factors associated with the experience are. There is little interest in conceptualising the experience or in "explaining" it.

Phenomenology aims to develop a complete, accurate, clear, and articulate description and understanding of a particular human experience or experiential moment (Creswell, 2013:13). A research problem for a phenomenological study is focused on what is essential for elucidating the meaning of the event, episode, or interaction, and also focuses on understanding the participants' voices (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:346). The researcher listens closely to how participants describe their everyday experiences relating to the phenomenon and must be alert for subtle yet meaningful cues in participants' expressions, pauses, and questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:147).

The simple goal of phenomenology is to condense the personal experiences with a phenomenon to an explanation of a common essence (Creswell, 2013:13) of the meaning of the interaction between the individual and the world (Merriam, 2002:93). Phenomenology is therefore a study of essences (Creswell, 2013:76). According to Creswell (2003:13), the understanding of the lived experiences of an individual characterises phenomenology as a methodology and a philosophy. A person cannot reflect on lived experiences while living through the experience; thus, phenomenological reflection is not introspective but retrospective (Van Manen, 1990:10).

A phenomenological study consists of several activities, listed below (Creswell, 2003:13). The researcher

- determines if the research problem could best be examined using a phenomenological approach,
- collects information about the context of these stories of the lived experiences,
- analyses the participants' stories and then re-story them into a framework that makes sense, and
- collaborates with participants by actively involving them in the research.

The focus of this research study was to explore and understand a central phenomenon, namely child trafficking as perceived by township high school learners. The ultimate goal in carrying out phenomenological research is to gain an in-depth understanding of the lived experiences of the learners. Phenomenological research should consider the following principles, explained below: nature of conscious experience, intentionality of directed action, person in context, and situated human experience (Finlay, 2009:6). To be *aware* of oneself is not to capture a pure self that exists separately from the stream of *experience*; rather, it is to be *conscious* of one's *experience*. The first principle, the nature of conscious experience, is one of the most basic principles of phenomenology. Van Manen (1990:10) observes that to be conscious is to be aware in some sense of some aspect of the world. Since phenomenology deals with examining a specific phenomenon as experienced by individuals, it is important to consider the nature of conscious experience and its potential impact on research. Within the aspects of our experiences with a

phenomenon, our consciousness regarding the experience may function on multiple levels (Van Manen, 1990:11). At any given time, while participating in an activity, there may be aspects of the phenomenon of which we are fully conscious, semi-conscious, or even completely unconscious. The second principle of phenomenology is the concept of intentionality (Giorgi, 2008a:34). Not to be confused with the more common definition, meaning the performance of a planned action, intentionality suggests that every human experience and action is directed toward something in the world. The third principle of phenomenology emphasises the importance of individual context, which refers to being aware of one's self and one's lived experiences. The fourth principle of phenomenology is the situatedness of the human experience. The situatedness of human experience is significant only in the unique way it is experienced by the person. The phenomenological researcher is interested in the person and the meaning embedded in his or her experience. Employing the four phenomenological principles promoted by Finlay (2009), this research study was able to focus attention on consciousness of experience, intentionality of directed action, context, and situatedness in order to attain the research aims.

Phenomenological researchers generally agree that the central concern is to return to embodied, experiential meanings aiming at fresh, complex, rich description of a phenomenon as it is concretely lived (Finlay, 2009:6). However, debates on and criticism about the use of phenomenology have also emerged. For Finlay (2009), this requires asking four contested questions: What counts as phenomenology? Should we always aim to produce a general normative description of the phenomenon? To what extent should interpretation be involved in our descriptions? Should we set aside researchers' subjectivity?

The first question, 'What counts as phenomenology?', focuses on whether phenomenology pivots on the issue of lived experiences. Specifically, is it sufficient to strive for rich description of lived experience, or are additional aspects required such as having a special phenomenological stance or attitude? (Finlay, 2009:7).

The second question addresses the extent to which phenomenology describes the experience in general as one that is shared by many, or whether it is focused on explicating individual experiences instead. It also focused on the sample – whether or not having few participants would be enough for a research study. For Halling (2008), the choice of a single case may provide sufficient access to a phenomenon, depending on the epistemological goals of that particular research study and the rigor of the approach adopted.

The third question addresses 'the involvement of interpretation'. Phenomenology is descriptive in the sense of aiming to describe rather than explain. Some scholars and researchers distinguish between descriptive phenomenology and interpretive (Finlay, 2008:17). Van Manen (1990:16)

suggests that when description is mediated by expression, including nonverbal aspects, action, artwork, or text, a stronger element of interpretation is involved.

The fourth question, 'Should we set aside researcher's subjectivity?', enquires whether it is possible for researchers to set aside their experiences and understandings. Rather, researchers need to come to an awareness of their pre-existing beliefs which can enable them to examine and question these beliefs in light of new evidence (Finlay, 2009:108).

Throughout this research study I was cognisant of these four contested questions and how they influenced how I employed phenomenology.

3.4 Research paradigm

Maree (2016:33) suggests that research is ultimately about one's understanding of the world and the purpose of this understanding. Similarly, Hammersley (2007:154) points out that interpretivism is focused on people and how they interpret and give meaning and value to their environment and themselves. This also includes the way in which their understanding is shaped by the particular cultures in which they live.

Interpretivists argue that one cannot understand why people do what they do or why particular institutions exist and operate the way they do, without grasping how those involved interpret and make sense of their world (Hammersley 2012:142). According to Schwandt (2007:314), interpretivism emphasises understanding of the lived experiences of individuals within particular historical, political, and social realities.

Jansen (2016:23) mentions that interpretivism foregrounds the meaning that individuals or communities assign to their experiences. Hence, dealing with a social issue such as child trafficking through an interpretivist paradigm will provide the opportunity to understand learners' perceptions about the phenomenon, as interpretivism deals with how people make sense of the world (1.8.2). According to Nieuwenhuis (2016a:61), the interpretivist paradigm is based on the following assumptions:

- Human life can only be understood from within. It focuses on people's subjective experiences, on how people construct the social world by sharing meanings, and how they interact with or relate to each other.
- Social life is a distinctively human product. Observing people in their social contexts, there is a greater opportunity to understand the perceptions they have of their own activities.

- The human mind is the purposive source or origin of meanings. Through uncovering how meanings are constructed, we can gain insights into the meanings imparted.
- Human behaviour is affected by knowledge of the social world. Interpretivism proposes that there are multiple rather than single explanations for phenomena.
- The social world does not exist independently of human knowledge. Our knowledge and understanding are always limited to the things to which we have been exposed, our own unique experiences, and the meanings we have imparted.

Nieuwenhuis (2016a:62) asserts that the aim of interpretivism is to offer a perspective of a situation and to analyse the situation under study to provide insight into the way in which a particular group of people make sense of their situation or the phenomenon they encounter. Similarly, the interpretive paradigm provides a means by which these experiences can be interpreted to make meaning. From the perspective of description and interpretation of experiences and meaning making, one can describe phenomenology as a methodology for making meaning while an interpretive paradigm can be viewed as a lens for interpreting this meaning to make sense of it.

3.5 Sample and research environments

Sampling refers to various strategies for selecting the participants who will take part in the research study (Hultsch, 2002:345). Sampling is a process of selecting participants to take part in a research investigation on the ground that they provide information considered relevant to the research problem (Oppong, 2013:203). In qualitative studies, researchers tend to study individual behaviours as they occur in their natural settings (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319). For the purpose of this research study, convenience sampling was utilised. According to Maree and Pietersen (2016c:197), convenience sampling refers to situations where population elements are selected based on the fact that they are easily and conveniently available to the researcher. Therefore, convenience sampling is built upon selections which suit the convenience of the researcher and are first at hand (Denscombe, 2010:37). For this research study, two township high schools located in the Potchefstroom region in North West Province were used as the research environment. These schools were convenient, because they were close to the primary school where I taught full-time from 2013 until 2016, making them easily accessible. In addition, I knew the teachers and principals at those schools (1.6.3). I identified 12 Grade 11 learners (6 learners in each school) and invited them to participate in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interview. The participants included 6 girls and 6 boys, and they were invited to participate based on diversity in terms of the locations where they lived. Learners came from

various township residential areas such as Ikageng, Kanana, and Promosa as such their perceptions are based on living and going to school in a township.

Convenience sampling appears to be one of the least demanding methods, given that the researcher has to select the most researchable participants. Within this research study, access to the learners was not problematic. The only challenging factor was that the research study was conducted after the academic timetable of the school day. Some learners needed to go home to look after their siblings and to perform other domestic duties, whereas other learners were involved with extramural activities, and some learners had transport restraints.

3.6 Data collection methods

Boeije (2010:57) maintains that in qualitative research, human experiences gathered during data collection could be used as data, whether in the form of texts such as interview transcripts, documents, diaries, letters and notes taken during focus groups, or visuals such as video-recordings, photographs, drawings, and paintings. In this research study, both semi-structured one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews were included as data generation methods. For the purpose of this study, I made use of Semi-structured one-on-one interviews first, followed by the focus group interviews. The aim of conducting the one-on-one interviews first was to get learners' perceptions on a one-on-one basis. The focus group interviews that followed enabled learners to dialogue about the phenomenon being studied. The findings from the semi-structured one-on-one interviews also directed the questions asked during the focus group interviews.

3.6.1 Semi-structured one-on-one interviews

There are various forms of interviews within qualitative research, namely structured interviews, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and unstructured interviews. In a structured interview the questions are asked in the same order and in the same way to all participants of the research, with little flexibility available to the researcher (Edwards & Holland, 2013:30). In an unstructured interview the researcher has clear aims for the research and a topic of study, but the importance of the method is to allow the interviewee to talk from their own perspective using their own frame of reference and ideas and meanings that are familiar to them (ibid.).

In a semi-structured interview, the researcher has a list of questions that need to be covered in the interview, but there is flexibility in how and when the questions are put and how the interviewee can respond. The interviewer can probe answers, pursuing a line of discussion opened up by the interviewee, and a dialogue can ensue (Edwards & Holland, 2013:29). In semi-structured one-on-one interviews, the researcher must be attentive to the responses of the participants to identify

emerging lines of inquiry that are directly related to the phenomenon being studied, and to explore and probe these (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:93). A semi-structured one-on-one interview was employed in this research study. Creswell (2009:181) and Descombe (2010:173) assert that in semi-structured one-on-one interviews the purpose is to obtain participants' experiences, views, behaviours, feelings, beliefs, opinions, ideas, emotions, and depictions about their own and others' lives. These interviews create the space for relationship building between the researcher and the participants (Howell, 2013:198) and applies skills such as attentiveness; sensitivity in terms of dealing with the feelings of participants; bearing with participants in times of silence; using skills, such as encouraging participants in revealing their stories; being complimentary when they respond, thus making it easier to verify what the respondents have said; and using probing strategies (Descombe, 2010:182-183).

Twelve semi-structured one-on-one interviews were employed in this research study followed by focus group interviews with the same learners. These interviews were conducted after school hours. The interview questions were compiled before the interview took place (Howell, 2013:198). This data generation method was also adaptable to provide space during the interview for the participants to draw on ideas and respond more broadly to the phenomenon being explored (Descombe, 2010:175). Moreover, due to the open-ended nature of this type of interview, participants were able to elaborate in breadth and depth on the topic and the researcher was able to use probing (Descombe, 2010:175; Howell, 2013:198).

3.6.2 Focus group interview

Following the semi-structured one-on-one interviews, focus group interviews were conducted with the same learners in each school. These interviews were also conducted after school hours.

The focus group interview data collection method is based on the assumption that group interaction will be productive in widening the range of responses, activating forgotten details of experiences and releasing inhibitions that may otherwise discourage participants from disclosing information (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:95). To generate a dialogue, I started the focus group interview with a broad set of questions and then used the responses to ask more specific questions (Nieuwenhuis, 2016b:96).

The advantages of using a focus group is that participants can learn from each other and in turn may assist in resolving certain issues experienced in the group. It allows for the collection of evidence about the feelings and opinions shared and experienced by people (ibid.). Patton (2002) maintains that it also allows the researcher to seek clarification, identify different types of behaviour, to deepen the researcher's understanding, and to add a human dimension to the data

that has been generated. It also provides the opportunity to explore and verify certain perspectives and experiences that come to light during a discussion, and it enables participants to build on and contribute to each other's contributions, which may lead to debates and discussions that would not otherwise have occurred (ibid.). Possible disadvantages of focus group is that there can be disagreement and irrelevant discussion which may distract from the main focus, the group might be hard to control, and some might find a focus group situation intimidating as others might feel under pressure.

Using focus group interviews was of value for this research study, as it allowed me to gain further insight into key aspects that were alluded to by the participants during the semi-structured one-on-one interviews. Moreover, it provided participants with an opportunity to interact in dialogue.

3.6.3 Recording the collecting data

A voice recorder was utilised to capture the responses in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and in the focus group interview so as to privilege the voice of the participants. This enabled an in-depth understanding of their perceptions about child trafficking. Recording of data is one of the key elements when one is busy with the data generation process. Nieuwenhuis (2007b:89) argues that "recording an interview must be done in a meticulous manner"; hence, the use of a voice recorder to accurately capture the data. One first needs permission from the participant before the interview can be voice recorded (Nieuwenhuis, 2007b:89) (see section 3.10.2 for further details on how the research study ensured this). The advantages of using a voice recorder is that it provides the researcher with the original data for use at any time and the researcher can concentrate on how the interview is proceeding and where to go next (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:298). Voice recorded interviews also made it possible to make meticulous transcriptions of the interviews.

All interviews were conducted in Setswana, which is also the medium of instruction for the interviewees. The voices of learners formed the basis for the interviews. Each interview followed the procedure below. As interviewer, I:

- introduced myself and exchanged greetings with the participants;
- explained the research study and its purposes;
- requested permission from the participants to use a voice recorder;
- explained the issue of confidentiality of the participants;
- emphasised that the interview was voluntary, as any of the participants were allowed to withdraw their participation or to gain access to the data at any given time;

- motivated the participants to open and express their thoughts; and
- pursued the actual interview and expressed my appreciation for participating.

3.7 Method of data analysis

Qualitative data analysis claims that some principles are pivotal during the data analysis processes (Descombe, 2010:272–273). Firstly, the analysis should reiterate the topic; secondly, data can be analysed from the particular to the general; and thirdly, data analysis should take into account the researcher’s positionality, for instance his/her values, experiences, self-identity, and how these aspects might influence the study. According to Denscombe (2010:274), qualitative data needs to be prepared and organised before it can be analysed. Data analysis in phenomenology focuses on how individuals experience the world (Nieuwenhuis, 2016c:105). However, it is important for the researcher to try to bracket the self out and enter into the other person’s perspective and experience, in other words to truly see the world through the eyes of others (ibid.). Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:101) advise that certain stages be considered at the start of the data analysis. These stages involve being immersed and reflecting on the transcriptions. Immersion in terms of my research study meant that I had to gain a general overview of the transcripts to make meaning of the data. Reflection required me to gather my thoughts on how I would make use of the data to answer my research questions. Thereafter I employed content analysis to analyse the transcribed data of the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interviews.

Content analysis is described as the scientific study of content of communication. It is the study of the content with reference to the meanings, contexts, and intentions contained in the data (Prasad, 2008:173). Within content analysis, information should be coded. I therefore manually coded the transcribed text into workable units with a highlighter. This was to enable me to look for patterns, similarities, and differences. Below are the procedures that I followed (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007:111):

- transcription of the data;
- reading of the transcript;
- organisation and coding of the data; and
- interpretation of the themes.

Writing the main data findings is defined as a method of observation in the sense that instead of asking people to respond to questions, it takes the communications that people have produced and asks questions of communications (Prasad, 2008:1).

According to Prasad (2008:8), there are advantages and disadvantages to content analysis. The advantages are listed below:

- (1) It goes beyond the impressionistic observations about the phenomena and can help you make a qualitative expression about the phenomenon.
- (2) It is an unobtrusive research technique useful to study sensitive research topics.
- (3) It is context-sensitive and therefore can process symbolic meanings of data.
- (4) It is a safe method in the sense that if the researcher found that a portion of the necessary information was missing or incorrectly coded, it is possible to return to the text and supplement the missing data.
- (5) It can deal with large volumes of data.
- (6) It is typically labour-intensive and requires minimum capital investment.

The following are the disadvantages of content analysis:

- (1) Its inferences are limited to the content of the text only. Similarly, symbols are processed and coded according to the attribution given by the researcher or coder. There is no guarantee that the sender or receiver shares the same attributed meaning.
- (2) When it deals with semantic differences or differences in regard to the meanings of words, the findings can be less valid and reliable.
- (3) It is argued that content analysis which confines itself to counting the individual units and their frequency of occurrence, for example the number of times the word 'globalisation' appeared, may fail to capture the meaning or significance with which these symbols are used in the texts analysed.
- (4) The reliability and validity issues in content analysis still remain unresolved.
- (5) The method cannot be used to test casual relationships between variables.

The objective of content analysis is to convert recorded "raw" phenomena into data, which can be treated in essentially a scientific manner so that a body of knowledge may be built up (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007:111). In employing content analysis, I was able to arrive at key themes to answer my research questions and attain my research aims.

3.8 Researcher's role

In this research study I took responsibility for collecting, analysing, and interpreting the data. I also adopted the role of the interviewer. My role as the researcher was therefore to:

- obtain ethical clearance,
- gain access to research sites and participants,
- formulate interview questions,
- conduct semi-structured one-on-one interview and focus group interviews,
- transcribe the data, and
- analyse and interpret the data.

Considering my philosophical position in this research study, I acted as an outsider with the aim of empirically investigating and understanding the participants' perceptions of child trafficking. I am also aware of my position as a researcher who is familiar with the schools (principals and teachers) where the research took place and I was able to avoid bias within this research study, due to my transparency.

3.9 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is of the utmost importance in qualitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2016c:123). Research projects adopt trustworthiness strategies that have been agreed on in the literature in relation to whether the research is qualitative, quantitative or mixed method (Anney, 2014:272). Each research study therefore employs a different strategy to ensure the rigour of the inquiry, because different philosophies and methodologies guide different research studies. There are a variety of strategies one can use to enhance the trustworthiness of a research study. For the purpose of this research study, the following strategies were: verifying raw data (3.9.1), keeping notes of research decisions taken (3.9.2), coding of data (3.9.3), multi-methods to validate data (3.9.4), and making use of verbatim quotes to support findings (3.9.5). These will now be presented.

3.9.1 Verifying raw data

Verifying raw data can be done in earlier interviews, or during informal conversations with participants, by sounding out initial understandings with them to verify whether the researcher's interpretations of what they said is correct (Nieuwenhuis, 2016c:114). As stated in section 3.9.5 the interviews were conducted in the learners' home language, which is also my home language. This

allowed me to ensure that my interpretations of their responses were accurate. In addition it was also important that meticulous transcriptions of the semi- structured one-on-one and focus group interviews were made.

3.9.2 Keeping notes of research decisions taken

The analysis process should be documented, so that another person can see the decisions that were made, how they were arrived at, how the analysis was done, and how the researcher arrived at the interpretations (ibid.). For the purpose of this research study, record was kept of all the decisions made during the research process.

3.9.3 Coding of data

According to Gibbs (2007) coding is the process of organising and sorting your data. Codes serve as a way to label, compile, and organise data. This strategy allows one to summarise and synthesise what is happening in the data (ibid.). Using an inductive approach, I clustered similar ideas and related concepts together to analyse the data better. After that, I coded my own data and developed categories from the text.

3.9.4 Multi-methods to validate data

Qualitative research studies aim to engage in research that probes for a deeper understanding of a phenomenon, and not to search for casual relationships (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:121). Rather than examining the observable features of a phenomenon, qualitative research sets out to penetrate the human understandings and constructions about it. For the purpose of this research study, multi-methods were used in gathering data through the use of semi-structured and focus group interviews.

3.9.5 Making use of verbatim quotes to support findings

It is important for the researcher not to use the participant's words out of context and to avoid making generalisations. The goal of qualitative research is not to generalise findings within what the participants are saying (Nieuwenhuis, 2016c:115). For this reason I had to be absolutely clear why I have chosen each quote and had to provide a contextualised understanding of why I included it (ibid.). In addition, the trustworthiness of the verbatim quotes also had to be ensured in terms of language. The participants' responses were in Setswana, as this is their medium of instruction and the home language of the majority of them. My home language is Setswana, and I am a junior lecturer of African languages at the North West University. As the researcher who

conducted the interviews, analysed the data, and wrote it up, I am proficient in Setswana, English, Sesotho, Sepedi, and IsiZulu. This enabled accurate translations to be made of the data.

The five strategies discussed above were all employed throughout the research study to ensure trustworthiness and validity.

3.10 Ethical considerations of the research study

It is expected of social researchers to conduct research ethically (Descombe, 2010:329). Ethics is rooted in the ancient Greek philosophical inquiry of moral life. It refers to a system of principles which can critically change previous considerations about choices and actions; it deals with dynamics of decision making concerning what is right and wrong (Fouka & Mantzourou , 2011:4). According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2008:55), ethics include at least six important criteria. Firstly, risk to participants should be minimised, which means that risks that may occur are reasonable in relation to the benefits that are anticipated. Secondly, selection should be equitable, which implies that the research study cannot discriminate among individuals in the population. Thirdly, vulnerable individuals, including children, mentally disabled, or economically disadvantaged, should be protected. Fourthly, participants should grant informed consent, as they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Fifthly, it is important to monitor the data being collected to ensure the safety and anonymity of the participants. Lastly, the privacy and confidentiality of the research participants must be maintained. In addition, research ethics also require the protection of participants' dignity and accurate publication of the information in the research (ibid.).

Before this research study could commence, the ethics committee of the Faculty of Education of the North-West University provided ethical clearance (Addendum A). This was followed by the letter of approval from the Department of Basic Education (DoBE) (Addendum B). Immediately after the approval from the DoBE, I sought approval from the school principals of the participating schools, then the parents/guardians of the learners and learners themselves (Addendum C). This also involved a brief explanation of what the study entailed. Explaining to participants what the study entailed, I emphasised that their participation was voluntarily and that they were free to withdraw at any phase of the interview without consequences.

Additionally, I sought the permission from the participants to use a voice recorder. I explained to them that the raw data would be kept by my supervisors for the period of 5 years. Furthermore, I explained to them that no one, except my supervisors and I, would have access to the raw data generated in this research. To ensure confidentiality, I did not use the names of schools or learners during interpretation and presentation of the study. Thus, the selected schools were referred to as Schools A and B and participants were referred to as Learners 1 to 12.

The following ethical considerations were applied in this research study: informed consent (3.10.1), confidentiality (3.10.2), privacy (3.10.3), voluntary participation (3.10.4), and honesty (3.10.5).

3.10.1 Informed consent

According to Denscombe (2010:332), a crucial aspect of a research study is that participants must be informed about the study being conducted, so that they can decide whether they want to participate or not. Boeije (2010:45) states that informed consent is intended to ensure that the participants are placed in a situation where they can decide, in full knowledge of the risks and benefits of the study, whether and how they would like to participate. Therefore, as already mentioned above, informed consent was sought from the school principals and parents/guardians, and assent from the learners participating.

3.10.2 Confidentiality

Confidentiality concerns how the data are dealt with. It is connected to anonymity, which means the participants' names and other unique identifiers are not attached to the data (Boeije, 2010:46). The participant is entitled to expect that such information will not be revealed to anyone else. Confidentiality should be maintained at every stage, especially when the research findings are documented.

Lamenza (2011:7) asserts that it is important to ensure confidentiality as well as comfortability amongst the participants. In this study, the following steps were taken to ensure comfortability:

- I obtained introductory information.
- To ensure confidentiality it was important to provide the name of a contact person with a telephone number to call for questions either before or after participating in the study. I also outlined the reason to interview individuals.
- I described the interviews and what participants would need to do.
- I ensured that I described what participants would do during the study or what data would be collected. It was important to also provide the location of the interviews and the time commitment required. The participants were also informed about their audio recorded responses for the purpose of compiling accurate transcriptions.
- I outlined who will have access to any information collected.

- I told individuals that only persons involved in collecting and compiling the information would have access to it. Furthermore, I described how I stored the information and who would have access to it. I also told the participants how I would inform them of the study results. I asked participants not to reveal to anyone else who participated in the group or what each participant said during the interviews. Lastly, I informed the participants how the results of the study would be used or published and assured them that those published reports would keep participants' identities confidential.

3.10.3 Privacy

Sieber (2004) mentions that privacy refers to the interest of individuals to control the access that others have to them. This required not invading participants' privacy and not asking questions of a personal nature which could contribute to making them feel uncomfortable during the interviews.

3.10.4 Voluntary participation

No attempt should be made to force people to participate, to do anything unsafe, or do something unwillingly. Participants were therefore invited to participate voluntarily in my research. They were informed that they were free to withdraw at any stage of the interviews without consequences (Denscombe, 2010: 298).

3.10.5 Honesty

Honesty must be top priority, in that no attempt should be made to deceive or take advantage of participants (Descombe, 2010:299). Thus, relevant information about the nature and purpose of the research was expressed clearly and explicitly to make sure that the research purpose was clearly stipulated, and so that the participants knew what level of participation was expected of them at all times.

3.11 Anticipated research problem

During the process of this research study, one of the anticipated research problems was learners' availability to take part in the research study. As the research study was conducted after school, some learners could not participate, because they needed to go home to look after their siblings and perform other domestic duties, were involved with extramural activities, or had transport restraints.

3.12 Conclusion

This chapter explained the research design, methodology, and processes employed by the study. It also described the sample of the research and the sampling technique employed and explained how data were generated and analysed. Furthermore, the ethical aspects that applied to the research study were described, as well as how trustworthiness of the research was ensured by presenting information exactly as it was captured. Lastly, the anticipated research problem was stated.

Chapter 4 elaborates on the presentation of data findings and the interpretations thereof.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF DATA FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

Previous chapters have laid the groundwork for the dissertation, providing an explanation of the purpose behind the research, an outline of the research questions explored, and a description of how the dissertation fits with the overall body of the research related to the topic under consideration. This chapter presents the data findings and interpretation. It comprises the presentation of the main verbatim research findings for the secondary questions, which are the following: What is child trafficking as a human rights violation? What are township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking? How can these perceptions influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation? (1.4). In this chapter the data is presented, described and interpreted. The three main aims of this chapter are to discuss the:

- research environment and research participants (4.2);
- presentation of data (4.3); and
- themes of main findings (4.4).

4.2 Research environment and research participants

It is necessary to provide a brief overview and context of the township high schools that were used in this study. Information about these schools was derived from discussions with the school administrative staff. The profiles of the schools obtained were used to contextualise the data analysis, interpretations, and discussions.

The biographical information of both School A and School B comprises the province where both of these schools are located, the district, the region, the township, the type of schools they are, grades offered in the schools, medium of instruction, total number of learners, total number of teachers, gender of principals, socio-economic status of parents/guardians, language diversity of learners, and language diversity of the teachers.

Consider the below table presenting a profile for School A and School B, and the narrative of the two schools will follow (see 4.2.1 and 4.2.2).

Table 4.1 Profiles of School A and School B

	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B
PROVINCE	North West	North West
DISTRICT	Dr Kenneth-Kaunda District	Dr Kenneth-Kaunda District
REGION	Potchefstroom	Potchefstroom
TOWNSHIP	Ikageng	Ikageng
TYPE	Public Technical High school, Quintile 1	Public Commercial High school, Quintile 1
GRADES	8-12	8-12
MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION	Setswana	Setswana
TOTAL LEARNERS	1214	1350
TOTAL TEACHERS	55	48
GENDER OF PRINCIPAL	Male	Female
SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF PARENTS/GUARDIANS	Low	Medium to Low
LANGUAGE DIVERSITY OF LEARNERS	Setswana IsiXhosa Sesotho	Setswana
LANGUAGE DIVERSITY OF TEACHERS	Setswana English IsiXhosa Afrikaans Sesotho	Setswana English Afrikaans

4.2.1 School A

School A is situated in the Ikageng township in the Potchefstroom region, Dr Kenneth Kaunda District, North West. The school is a public technical high school, therefore its curriculum stream comprises technical subjects such as technical drawing, civil technology, mechanical technology, electrical technology, and engineering graphics and design. Learners from Grades 8–12 are enrolled at the school. The medium of instruction is Setswana. The school comprises 1214 learners and 55 teachers. The principal is male. The socio-economic status of the parents/guardians is low, as most depend on social grants. The home languages of learners range from Setswana to IsiXhosa and Sesotho, while the teachers mainly speak Setswana, English, IsiXhosa, Afrikaans, and Sesotho.

4.2.2 School B

School B is situated in the Ikageng township in the Potchefstroom region, Dr Kenneth Kaunda District, North West. The school is a public commercial high school, therefore its curriculum stream comprises commercial subjects such as economics, business studies, accounting and tourism. This school has 1350 learners from Grade 8–12 and 48 teachers. The medium of instruction is Setswana. The principal is female. The socio-economic status of the parents/guardians is medium to low, as most are unemployed. The home language of learners is Setswana and teachers mainly speak Setswana, English, and Afrikaans.

4.2.3 Research participants

The purpose of this section is to provide the biographical information of the participants. All the participants were in Grade 11. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the participants are referred to as Learner 1 (L1) to Learner 12 (L12). Table 4.2 below presents the biographical information of the twelve participants in School A and School B.

Table 4.2 Biographical information of the participants in School A and School B

Biographical information of the research participants						
Participant	Home language	First additional language	Gender	Location where they live	Parents/guardians	Income status of parents/guardians
SCHOOL A						
L1	Setswana	English	Female	Kanana	Guardian	Unemployed
L2	Setswana	English	Female	Skoti	Mother and father	Unemployed
L3	Sesotho	English	Female	Sonderwater	Mother	Employed
L4	IsiXhosa	English	Male	Extension 11	Mother	Employed
L5	IsiXhosa	English	Male	Kanana	Mother	Unemployed
L6	Setswana	English	Male	Berlin	Mother and father	Employed
SCHOOL B						
L7	Setswana	English	Female	Two-line	Mother	Unemployed
L8	Setswana	English	Female	Kanana	Mother and father	Employed
L9	Setswana	English	Female	Thabeng	Mother	Employed
L10	Setswana	English	Male	Difenseng	Mother	Unemployed

L11	Setswana	English	Male	Thabeng	Mother and father	Employed
L12	Setswana	English	Male	Two-line	Mother and father	Employed

It is evident from the table that most learners' home language is Setswana, with a minority speaking IsiXhosa as their home language. Their first additional language is English. Three girls and three boys from each school took part in the study. All of these learners live in Ikageng, although they are located in various sections of the location. The participants explained that their parents/guardians are mostly unemployed and that they mostly live with their mothers, because their fathers are either deceased or left when they were young. Their parents or guardians are mostly depended on the social grants as a means of income. The township high schools as depicted in Table 4.1 are Quintile 1 schools; hence, the learners do not pay school fees and most of their parents are unemployed. Whereas the schools are based at the entrance to Ikageng township, most of the learners do not live in that part of the township and have to walk far to reach the schools. School A is the only public technical high school in the location, meaning that all the learners who are interested in the technical stream would have to travel far to reach the school. Other schools in this region also offer commercial stream curriculum, therefore School B is not the only school of its kind. However, School B is perceived as the most disciplined school in the location; due to its strict ethos and dedicated staff. Hence, even learners from far are interested in the school.

4.3 Semi-structured one-on-one and focus group interviews

In Chapter 3 (3.6.1) the methodological stances employed in this study was elaborated on and described within the theoretical underpinnings of this research. The purpose of a semi-structured one-on-one interview is to use an intimate one-on-one interview setting to explore and reveal participants' unique experiences, views, behaviours, feelings, beliefs, opinions, ideas, emotions, and depictions of how they and others perceive child trafficking as a human rights violation. To further explore the participants' perceptions, a focus group interview proceeded the semi-structured one-on-one interviews. This provided further clarification and insight into aspects that were raised in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews, leading to a more in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study. Focus group interviews also allowed for the participants to engage in discussions with their peers and for me to gain their perceptions through these group dynamics.

In this section of the chapter, the verbatim responses gained from the semi-structured one-on-one (4.3.1.1), as well as the focus group interviews (4.3.1.2) that were conducted at Schools A and B, will be presented. Thereafter the data was analysed and interpreted to arrive at main themes (4.4).

4.3.1 Presentation of the semi-structured one-on one interview data from Schools A and B

The data obtained through the semi-structured one-on-one interviews are presented in the form of tables with the intention to display the data in a coherent and accessible manner. The tables consist of initial codes that were identified when the verbatim transcriptions of the interviews were analysed. Four key codes were identified, namely comprehending the term child trafficking; incorporation of child trafficking in the curriculum; child trafficking in the community; and understanding the term human rights violation.

The data of the two township high schools will be presented separately. The interviews were conducted in the participants' school environment, as this setting contributed to making the participants feel comfortable. The interviews were conducted in the afternoon after school, to not interfere with their school work. The interviews were conducted in Setswana (3.9.5), as it is my home language as well as the home language of most of the participants. This further contributed to making the participants feel comfortable with sharing their perceptions with me.

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 highlight the verbatim responses that emanated from the semi-structured one-on-one interviews.

4.3.1.1 Responses from the semi-structured one-on-one interviews for School A

Three girls and three boys from School A participated in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews. The semi-structured one-on-one interviews gave me the opportunity to engage with the learners on a one-on-one basis and to develop an understanding of how they perceive child trafficking as a human rights violation. Table 4.3 below represents the verbatim responses of participants in School A.

Table 4.3 Verbatim responses of the semi-structured one-on-one interviews in School A

A1	Comprehending the term child trafficking	<p>L2 comprehended the term child trafficking by saying “It’s like maybe when someone steals a girl child then make her do some things like maybe become a prostitute to make money.”</p> <p>L3 said child trafficking “Is when a person takes children and make them do certain jobs like make them prostitutes then he benefits from that certain job that they would be doing for him or her; it was mentioned once when we did an assignment about it in Grade 10.”</p> <p>For L4 “it’s when your stolen then they do certain things to you”.</p> <p>L5 said it is “when they take children and make them sell their bodies, drugs and make them prostitutes”.</p> <p>L6 said “child trafficking it’s when they kidnap kids more especially girls then they take them to another country”.</p>
A2	Incorporation of child trafficking in the curriculum	<p>L1 motivated that “Yes child trafficking needs to be incorporated in the curriculum because it will help many people because they will know it’s not right to hike, many people go to hikes due to financial strains and it will help one know what child trafficking is so that they could be prepared about life”.</p> <p>L2 said that “Yes child trafficking needs to be incorporated in the curriculum as it will provide guidelines so that we don’t find ourselves being used.”</p> <p>L3 mentioned that “especially because things like these are alive and it would be beneficial if there is someone who knows what to do should it occur in our neighbourhood.”</p> <p>L4 said that “child trafficking needs to be incorporated in the curriculum so that people could be aware and know that something can happen at any time.”</p> <p>L5 said “Yes child trafficking should be incorporated in the curriculum because we would know more about it.”</p> <p>L6 “agreed by saying it should be included in the curriculum to alert people about it because it is dangerous.”</p>
A3	Child trafficking occurrence in the community	<p>L2 is “not sure of it” for the reason that they are “not aware” of whether child trafficking occurs in their community or not.</p> <p>L5 said “yes child trafficking occurs in the community.”</p> <p>L6 said “no I have not heard of it in my community.”</p>
A4	Understanding the term human rights violation	<p>L1 mentioned that “human rights violation is when you somewhere somehow you meet a person then the person wants to have sex with you then that person would stamp on top of your rights because you would have said no, we did a project on it.”</p> <p>L3 said “I am not sure what human rights violation are but I think it’s when you violate someone’s right.”</p> <p>L5 said “human rights violation it’s maybe talking about what rights we have and what we should do. Stepping on top of your rights, we did it in Life Orientation.”</p> <p>L6 said “it is when your rights are being stepped on.”</p>

4.3.1.2 Responses from the semi-structured one-on-one interviews for School B

Three girls and three boys from School B participated in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews. These interviews allowed for a deeper understanding to make meaning of how learners perceive child trafficking as a human rights violation and the possible factors influencing their perceptions. Table 4.4 below represents the verbatim responses of participants in School B.

Table 4.4 Verbatim responses of the semi-structured one-on-one interviews in School B

B1	Comprehending the term child trafficking	<p>L7 said “child trafficking is when a person takes advantage of kids or rather a male taking advantage of a girl child and forcing yourself onto her just kidnapping them or doing things to her that she doesn’t like.”</p> <p>L8 said “child trafficking it’s kids who are not taken care of and then people who do naughty things take them and rape them and make them slaves.”</p> <p>L9 said “child trafficking is the transportation of young learners not knowing from one place to another.”</p> <p>For L10 it “is when a child is kidnapped and taken to another place then they call that child’s parents and demand ransom, so they are dealing with business.”</p> <p>L11 said “child trafficking refers to when learners’ are taken and stolen.”</p> <p>For L12 it “is when children are stolen and sold to other countries and made prostitutes and the money they receive they give to those pimps and kids get nothing.”</p>
B2	Incorporation of child trafficking in the curriculum	<p>L7 mentioned that “yes child trafficking should be incorporated in the curriculum so that we could be aware.”</p> <p>L12 said “yes so that kids can be aware of it and have knowledge on it.”</p>
B3	Child trafficking existence in the community	<p>L7 said “no child trafficking does not occur in our community only in movies.”</p> <p>L8 said “yes it could happen but you know kids now don’t speak.”</p> <p>L9 said “yes.”</p> <p>L10 said “no only in movies.”</p>
B4	Understanding of the term human rights violation	<p>L7 said “rights are things we live by, we have the right to shelter.”</p> <p>L8 said “everybody has the right to education.”</p> <p>L9 said “human rights violation is violating others’ rights.”</p> <p>For L10 it “is when someone doesn’t know their rights basically someone who hurts them.”</p> <p>For L11 it is when “people hurt kids and steal them.”</p> <p>L12 understood human rights violation “as when a child has no rights.”</p>

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 represent the various ways in which learners perceived child trafficking as a human rights violation. In School A, learners commonly associated child trafficking with prostitution and kidnapping. For example, Learner 2 from School A said that “it’s like maybe when someone steals a girl child then make her do some things like maybe become a prostitute to make money”, whereas Learner 7 from School B said that “child trafficking is when a person takes advantage of kids or rather a male taking advantage of a girl child and forcing yourself onto her just kidnapping them or doing things to her that she doesn’t like”. It was evident that learners from School B mostly associated child trafficking with girls being taken advantage of by a male counterpart. In both schools, one common understanding of child trafficking was its lack of existence within the learners’ community. Another understanding that emerged was that in both schools, when children are stolen, learners referred to it as child trafficking. In School A and B learners 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 said that “child trafficking does not occur in my community”. In School A, learners all agreed that child trafficking should be included in the formal school curriculum so as to make them aware of the phenomenon and in School B learners emphasised the fact that it should be included to alert them about the dangers of child trafficking. For instance, Learner 6 said child trafficking needs to be included in the curriculum “to alert people about it because it is dangerous”. Dangers include their human rights being violated when they are trafficked (L9). In School A, one learner mentioned that “child trafficking should be included in the formal school curriculum so that people can know more about it (L5)”, while another in School B said “so that kids can be aware of it and have knowledge about it (L12)”. The last code displayed learners’ perceptions of human rights. For learners in School A, this is when their rights are being violated, whereas in School B the focus was also on what their rights are, namely having the right to shelter (L7) and the right to education (L8). In both schools learners’ perceptions were similar in terms of the need for including the topic of child trafficking in the formal school curriculum to raise awareness thereof. Their perceptions mostly differed in terms of whether child trafficking exists in their own community.

4.3.2 Presentation of the focus group interview data from Schools A and B

The data obtained through the focus groups are presented in the form of tables. The tables consist of initial codes that were identified when the verbatim transcriptions of the interviews were analysed. Various key codes were identified for each school (4.3.2.1 and 4.3.2.2).

The data of the two schools are presented separately. The interviews were conducted in the participants’ school environment as this setting contributed to making them feel comfortable. The interviews were conducted in the afternoon after school, to not interfere with the learners’ school work. The interviews were conducted in Setswana (3.9.5), as it is my home language as well as

the home language of most of the participants. This further contributed to making the participants feel comfortable with sharing their perceptions with me (4.3.1).

The learners that participated in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews were the same participants that took part in the focus group interviews. One focus group interview was conducted in each school.

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 below highlight the verbatim responses that emanated from the focus group interviews.

4.3.2.1 Responses from the focus group interview for School A

Three girls and three boys from School A participated in the focus group interview. The purpose of conducting a focus group is mainly to deepen the understanding of how the participants perceive child trafficking and to allow for participants to express themselves within a group. Seven initial codes were identified from the responses in School A: understanding the term child trafficking; the existence of child trafficking in the community; how the families respond to child trafficking; the influence of media on child trafficking; the advantage associated with trafficked children; the contribution of child trafficking to the community; and the promotion and prevention of child trafficking. Each of these codes is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Verbatim responses of the focus group interview in School A

AA1	Understanding the term child trafficking	L1 said that child trafficking “is when boys are used for the selling of drugs and girls for sexual reasons, all of these occur due to poverty hence children end up selling themselves in town.” For L2 it “is when people make sacrifices with their human parts.” L3 said it “refers to the selling of a girl child for the purpose of receiving drugs from the trafficker.”
AA2	The existence of child trafficking in the community	L4 mentioned that “it happens but only in Ventersdorp, not in our community but the person who did it was later found .The person was a Nigerian so he abducted kids and hid them in a filthy place, it was shown in the news even. The police found used condoms and syringes that used to inject those kids.” L1 said “people from outside are the ones who come with all this but they usually have an inside guy in South Africa who helps them but in most cases people from outside are the ones who come up with all this things.”

AA3	How the families respond to child trafficking	L1 mentioned that “when you were the victim of child trafficking your family will treat you well, they would never abandon you.” L2 went on to agree with L1 by saying that “yes I agree family will stick with you while the community might blame you not even knowing if you were stolen or not.”
AA4	The influence of media on child trafficking	L3 said “so far in Potch it’s not there hence we are not taught about it? We only see it on Facebook.”
AA5	Financial aspects relating to child trafficking	L1 and L2 motivated that “children don’t benefit from being trafficked because it’s not their money.” For L1 “the children get supplied only with food.” L3 and L4 said “the pimp is the one who gets paid.” L2 went on to emphasize that “children just get supplied with drugs.” L4 said “most children receive drugs not even food, the society loses because that certain child could have been a police or something better now they get stolen and put on drugs so our society gains nothing.” L1 said went on to reiterate that “if the community benefits from trafficked children, they benefit not knowing what the person does for a living.”
AA6	The contribution of child trafficking to the community	L1 said “the community all it does is to increase the girl being trafficked because the girl would be in a relationship with my friend because they become friendly with the girls then get in a relationship with them and then they sell them while the girls enjoy receiving groceries and money from those guys.” L6 said “like at home there is nothing, so you become the bread winner.”
AA7	The promotion and prevention of child trafficking	L1 said “the police can promote child trafficking because they have knowledge about it they can go to the school and community halls and teach people about it so that they can be aware of it”. L1 said went on to say “for people to be aware and even those who are negative they should want to listen to us telling them how to prevent child trafficking.” L2 said “child trafficking can also be shown on 4stories for its promotion and prevention.” L3 said that “on stories shown they teach them how to traffic, not how to prevent it.” L4 said “like watching Generation only when you are aware of a certain topic that’s when you will notice it but besides that you wouldn’t know.” L5 said “but at the end of the story you will see the traffickers going to jail so drama series on television are informative actually.”

⁴ Stories referring to those shown on television; for example Learner 4 said “like watching generation.”

		<p>L6 said “they [police] show you steps on how to prevent being trafficked.”</p> <p>L4 went on to say “that’s why when you register even in school they say you must check if it’s under Umalusi to prevent yourself from being trafficked so back then people didn’t know but now they know but I go back to my point that departments must work together so that they know what happens in human trafficking and to child trafficking and by so saying the message will spread. And even on TV it must be advertised and dramatized in the community halls; our role is to spread the word.”</p> <p>L5 said “and through drama it’s easy to relate and people get knowledge, even on WhatsApp you can share status video about child trafficking, then people get intrigued.”</p>
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4.3.2.2 Responses from the focus group interviews for School B

Three girls and three boys from School B participated in the focus group interview. As stated above (4.3.2.1), the purpose of conducting a focus group is mainly to deepen the understanding of how the participants perceive child trafficking and to also allow for participants to express themselves within a group setting. Eight initial codes were identified for School B, which are: understanding the term child trafficking; the existence of child trafficking in the community; how children are trafficked; financial gain when children are trafficked; repercussions of being trafficked; awareness of child trafficking; impact of inclusion in the curriculum, and the gender that is most often trafficked. Each of these codes is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Verbatim responses of the focus group interview in School B

BB1	Understanding the term child trafficking	<p>L12 said “selling young children in exchange for money and those children serve as sex slaves and they sell and smoke drugs.”</p> <p>L8 said “they take young children and make them do certain things like sell sex and drugs.”</p>
BB2	The existence of child trafficking in the community	<p>L7 said “I do not think it is happening in our community unless child traffickers are roaming around looking for children they can take and sell.”</p> <p>L9 said “I think it is happening in Malawi.”</p> <p>L10 said “In countries like Nigeria it is happening as well as rural areas or villages.”</p>
BB3	How children are trafficked	<p>L11 said “the South Africans know the perfect spots where they can get young children and they abduct them and put them in a safe place where the internationals can come and collect them.”</p>

BB4	Financial gain when children are trafficked	L10 said “both the South Africans and Foreigners gain; South Africans gain money while the internationals gains even more, both children and the money because they sell those children. The money that is being paid to those children it goes back to them”. L11 went on to say “the internationals gains more because after buying the children from the South Africans they sell them again to other people.”
BB5	Repercussions of being trafficked	L9 said “yes one can get sick from STI’s.” L10 said “you can get HIV/AIDS.”
BB6	Awareness of child trafficking	L10 said “to make people aware of child trafficking one must make big posters that informs people about the issue and put them all over the community.” L7 said “to do a campaign with other community stakeholders such as the police would raise awareness.” L9 said “action must take place, such as a march to raise the matter to the people and also I can tell people, example if I tell friends they will tell other friends and at the end everyone will get the message.”
BB7	Impact of inclusion in the curriculum	L11 “child trafficking needs to be included in the curriculum to stop abuse.” L8 said “child trafficking needs to be included in the curriculum so that learners can learn to think exactly like the child traffickers and by so doing it will reduce child trafficking.”
BB8	The gender that is most often trafficked	L10 said “it happens mostly to girls.” L11 said “it happens mostly to girls because girls make more money than boys by being sexually trafficked.”

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 illustrate participants’ verbatim responses from the focus group interviews. It was evident that in School A learners were aware of the existence of child trafficking across the continent, but not in their own community. For instance, they mentioned a place like Nigeria. Learners from School B mentioned that child trafficking might be occurring in the community, but they were not aware of it. Learner 7 said, “I do not think it is happening in our community unless child traffickers are roaming around looking for children they can take and sell”. Regarding how people deal with child trafficking, learners from School A mentioned that family will support you when going through such an ordeal, while learners from School B indicated that the South African citizens work with abductors, helping them to secure a safe place from where they can later on transfer victims (children) to another country. Learners from both School A and School B emphasised that the community does not benefit when children are trafficked. The only benefit they mentioned, is when both countries are working together when trafficking children in terms of financial gain; however, the abductors receive money, while the community and children do not

benefit. Learners from School A revealed that they have never been taught about child trafficking. Instead, they have heard about it on social media and were only ever involved in writing an assignment about it at school in the subject Life Orientation. One cannot refer to an assignment as learning; learners needed more content knowledge about child trafficking. Learners from School A and School B mentioned making posters to raise awareness (L10) and also communicated that they had learnt about their human rights, for example the right to shelter (L7).

The data suggest that some perceptions of learners from School A are different from that of learners from School B, while some are similar. Different in that in School A they perceive child trafficking in terms of when a child is living in a low socio-economic environment they can be lured into trafficking and could also agree to having his/her organs trafficked due to poverty. In School B learners mostly perceive it in terms of kidnapping. Learners from both School A and School B are similar in terms of constantly referring to child trafficking as prostitution, emphasise the importance of making the community aware of child trafficking, feel that the topic of child trafficking needs to be included in the curriculum, indicated that at school the topic had been mentioned only once in an assignment, and suggested that South African citizens work with abductors in other countries to traffic children. Moreover, participants from School A and School B mentioned that children do not benefit from being trafficked, but can become infected with diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Learners declared that the only people who benefit are the traffickers, as they are the only ones who receive money.

4.4 Themes of main findings

The semi structured one-on-one and the focus group interviews were analysed using content analysis. Content analysis, described as the scientific study of content of communication (Prasad, 2008:173), was utilised to give learners a voice and elicit how they perceive child trafficking as a human rights violation. Firstly, the analysis reiterated the topic; secondly data was analysed from the particular to the general; and thirdly, data analysis took into account the researcher's positionality, such as her values, experiences, self-identity, and how these aspects might influence the research study (3.7). The verbatim responses were analysed to arrive at main themes, taking into consideration the research questions.

Based on initial codes identified from the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interviews, patterns, similarities, and differences could be identified to arrive at the following main themes:

- Learners associate child trafficking with prostitution (4.4.1).
- Child trafficking happens through the means of kidnapping (4.4.2).

- Poverty is a push factor of child trafficking (4.4.3).
- Financial gain sustains the practice of child trafficking (4.4.4).
- Human rights are violated during child trafficking (4.4.5).
- Child trafficking is included in the formal curriculum (4.4.6).
- Learners' perceptions of child trafficking are formed through the hidden curriculum (4.4.7).

Each of the themes is subsequently elaborated on.

4.4.1 Learners associate child trafficking with prostitution

Learners associating child trafficking with prostitution is a prominent theme that emerged from the verbatim responses. When prostitution was mentioned, one of the learners in School A said, "It's like maybe when someone steals a girl child then make her do some things like maybe become a prostitute to make money" (L2). In similar fashion, another learner from the same school emphasised that "they take children and make them sell their bodies, drugs and make them prostitutes" (L5). Child trafficking is a modern-day form of slavery and a global human rights violation in which children suffer from horrendous abuse, including emotional abuse, separation from family and the community, sexual and physical violence, torture, enforced detention, and a risk to life (1.2). Prostitution can emerge amongst other forms of sexual exploitation, including tourism, pornography, survival sex, and online sexual exploitation as one such form of abuse, as children are forced to sell their bodies, as stated by the learners (McClain & Garrity, 2011:242). While twenty one percent of girls are being trafficked, twelve percent of boys are also being trafficked for sexual exploitation. Sexual exploitation is by far the most commonly identified form of trafficking worldwide (2.3.3). Trafficked children also suffer from emotional abuse, as they are removed from the family environment and are not taken care of. Trafficking is a recognised problem in approximately half the countries in Africa, with children trafficked at twice the rate of women. Trafficking in South Africa has been reported to take place to and from neighbouring countries, in particular Mozambique and Zimbabwe (1.2).

The literature revealed that women and girls are at risk of being lured by men who show an interest in them and promise them love, a good job, or even marriage (2.3.1.2). As a result, many women and girls become prostitutes and end up selling drugs. This was also evident in the responses from School B, as one learner communicated that "child trafficking is when children are stolen and sold to other countries and made prostitutes and the money they receive they give to those pimps and kids get nothing" (L12). Children are often forced to sell drugs and that results in forced labour. Like prostitution, forced labour is also one of the many purposes of child trafficking (2.3.3). It is the

condition of not being free to cease providing labour services and not to be free to leave the place or area where the person provides labour or services (2.3.3.2). Although mention was predominantly made of prostitution, other forms of trafficking include domestic servitude, forced labour, begging, drug trafficking, criminal activity, and removal of body parts for muti and other sacrifices (2.3.2.2.).

4.4.2 Child trafficking happens through the means of kidnapping

Child trafficking through the means of kidnapping and hiking also emerged as a prominent theme from the verbatim responses of learners. When asked to give clarity about the term child trafficking, a learner from School B said “it is when a person takes advantage of kids or rather male taking advantage of a girl child and forcing yourself onto her just kidnapping them or doing things to her that she doesn’t like” (L7). To add, a learner from School A mentioned that “hiking is not right, many people go to hikes due to financial strains” (L1). Hiking is a means of trafficking, as people are deceived to believe that they would arrive at the destination they had hiked to, only to be trafficked to another destination. Learners referred mostly to kidnapping and hiking, as these are the terms which are familiar to them and which they use on a daily basis; as most use public transport to get to school.

The participants’ responses indicate that the means employed to traffic children is to steal them. One learner referred to being stolen as kidnapping (L11). Kidnapping can bring about the means of child trafficking such as force. Any person who subjects another person to either forced labour, forced marriage, or sexual exploitation can threaten to cause serious harm to a person, such as physical and emotional restraint (2.3.2.1). In the case where hiking was mentioned, it was evident that hiking is predominantly the act of child trafficking, because the learners kept on emphasising it as the way in which child trafficking happens. Hiking, just like transportation and other acts of trafficking (2.3.1), involve moving children from one place to another and does not necessarily require children to be moved across borders. Trafficking can occur both internationally or domestically. Moving trafficked persons away from familiar surroundings is an important strategy for traffickers, as it restricts the victim’s scope for seeking help or escaping, and facilitates the exploitation of trapped victims (2.3.1.2).

4.4.3 Poverty is a push factor of child trafficking

Poverty is thought of as a push factor, because when a family has no source of income they might turn to selling their children to traffickers or become lured into promises made by traffickers for children to work and earn income as a means to support their families. According to the HSRC (2010:7), victims trafficked in South Africa are generally recruited from a region with lower socio-

economic status to a region with a higher economic status, meaning people in low socio-economic status are at a higher risk of being trafficked as they are not financially stable. A learner from School A mentioned that “people who sell their bodies in town its due to poverty” (L1). At times children may be under pressure from their families to find work to help support the family, and there might not be work available locally (2.3.1.1). There are various factors causing or facilitating in country sexual exploitation, such as an increase in unemployment and poverty, high drop-out rates at primary and secondary school level, inadequate service provision and poor understanding of policy implementation on the part of service providers, inadequate legislation, an increased demand for sexual exploitation and trafficking, and a lack of arrest and convictions of traffickers and sex offenders (2.3.3.1).

4.4.4 Financial gain sustains the practice of child trafficking

Financial gain for sustaining the practice of child trafficking also emerged as a prominent theme from the verbatim responses of learners. When financial gain was mentioned, L2 from School A said that “children do not benefit because it is not their money, the pimps are the one who gets paid”. Another learner from School B said that “both the South Africans and the international traffickers gain more because the money that has been paid to those children goes back to them” (L10). Trafficking in persons is a real and growing problem all over the world. Human beings are bought and sold as commodities (2.3.1.4). It is evident that South Africa has become a lucrative market for traffickers, because it serves as the economic heart of Africa and provides a market for the services of victims of trafficking (1.2). Financial gain is a factor of child trafficking, because the more the economy decreases, the more traffickers want to fend for themselves, increasing crime rates. Many children are moved away from their homes and are exploited in the informal economy where they are even more difficult to trace and are at high risk of many forms of violence (2.3.1.1). Victims trafficked internally from South Africa are generally recruited from a region with lower socio-economic status to a region with a higher economic status (2.3.1.2).

The criminals responsible for these human rights violations are buying and selling human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation, labour exploitation, removal of organs, multi-murders, and forced marriages (2.3.1.4). Sexual exploitation is thought of as the commissioning of any sexual offence referred to in criminal law or any offence of a sexual nature in any other law (2.3.3.1). The literature articulates that sexual exploitation serves as a purpose of child trafficking and comprises factors such as poverty, amongst others. This is also evident in the verbatim response of a learner from School A, who asserted that “others who sell at town it’s because of poverty” (L1). Labour exploitation emphasises the fact that children are frequently trafficked into labour exploitation in agriculture, both long term and on a seasonal basis (2.3.3.2).

Children are exploited, as they often do not receive any compensation and there would not be an agreement made between them and their employer. This was evident from L3's response that "child trafficking is when a person takes children and make them do certain jobs like make them prostitutes then he benefits from that certain job that they would be doing for him or her". Removal of organs refers to kidnapping, killing, and selling of people, especially children, for removal of organs through deception or coercion (2.3.3.3). This has financial implications, in that traffickers would sell the organs of the trafficked person and not pay him/her for those organs. The same applies to forced marriage, whereby a woman or child has no right to refuse her promised or given marriage on payment of a considerable amount or in kind to her or his parents, guardian or family (2.3.3.4). This practice also favours the traffickers and not the trafficked person, as the victim would not be receiving any payment from the marriage. Often vulnerable people eager to receive an income are promised a better life in a form of jobs, but then perpetrators deceive and abduct them, leading them to being trafficked (2.3.2.2). It is evident in the literature and in the verbatim responses of the learners that the traffickers are the only people who receive financial gain and not the children who are trafficked.

4.4.5 Human rights are violated during child trafficking

Child trafficking as a human rights violation was a prominent theme as the research question addressed it (1.4). In response to the question how they understood the term 'human rights violation', one learner from School A said it is "stepping on top of your rights" (L2). Another learner from School B specified that "human rights violations can be understood in terms of people having the right to shelter and the right to education" (L7). The literature emphasises that human and child trafficking transpire in contexts where people are denied basic human rights (2.2). Trafficking in children violates the fundamental rights of children, including the right to family or parental care or to appropriate alternative care when removed from the family environment (1.2).

In both School A and School B, many participants portrayed their understanding of human rights by referring to South Africa's democratic constitution. This includes reference to having the right to education and the right to shelter. Presenting their perceptions within the context of their country has interesting implications, in that South Africa has become a lucrative market for traffickers, because it serves as the economic heart of Africa and provides a market for the services of victims of trafficking (1.2).

One School A learner went on to mention that "child trafficking as a human rights violation must be included in the curriculum as it will provide guidelines so that we don't find ourselves being used" (L2). The literature states that issues of human rights should be infused throughout the curriculum and across the entire environment of education. This also includes providing curriculum content

and teaching guidelines on how this can be achieved (2.4). It is important to recognise that addressing human rights in the curriculum creates an organic space for the topic of child trafficking to be integrated (2.4). This is an ideal opportunity to introduce a contextualised and authentic example of human rights violations that could facilitate learning about this complex social problem. Little input was received from the participants regarding why they should honour their rights or be responsible for using their rights.

4.4.6 Child trafficking should be included in the formal curriculum

Inclusion of the topic of child trafficking in the formal curriculum emerged as a prominent theme. In School A, a learner mentioned that “child trafficking should be included in the formal school curriculum to provide guidelines so that we don’t find ourselves being used” (L2). Another learner in School B believed “child trafficking should be included in the formal curriculum so that kids can be aware of it and have knowledge on it” and went on to mention that they also did an assignment on it (L12). As stated within the literature, it is evident that the issue of child trafficking is problematic within the formal school curriculum, because it is only explicitly mentioned once (as human trafficking) in the subject Life Orientation in Grade 10 and in terms of power relations in Grade 11 (1.2). Learners also explicitly mentioned that they have only done “an assignment on child trafficking nothing in depth” (L4).

A UNICEF study (UNICEF, 2008:4) which dealt with trafficking throughout Africa, identified South Africa as a country of destination, transit, and origin for victims, as well as having trafficking within its borders (1.2). It also found that trafficking is a recognised problem in approximately half the countries in Africa, with children trafficked at twice the rate of women. Children are in high demand in the South African sex industry. There are multiple reasons underlying this, which mainly include factors such as the belief that children are not carriers of HIV/Aids (1.2). It is evident that there is a lack of knowledge where child trafficking is concerned. Horn (2010:12) asserts that limited research on the issue of child trafficking within South Africa and across its borders makes it difficult to give an accurate overview of the extent of the problem. While child trafficking has a devastating impact on individual victims, its impact also undermines the safety and security of all nations involved, as it is a global health risk and fuels the growth of global organised crime. Due to children being attractive to traffickers and central to sectors such as the sex industry, it is important for the formal curriculum to address the issue of child trafficking to raise learners’ awareness and to empower them. It is thus important to realise and comprehend how the perceptions of township high school learners can influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation. This is an ideal opportunity to introduce a contextualised and authentic example of human rights violations that could facilitate learning about this complex social problem (2.4).

4.4.7 Learners' perceptions of child trafficking are formed through the hidden curriculum

A hidden curriculum is the unspoken or implicit values, behaviours, and norms that exist in the educational setting. While such expectations are not explicitly written, hidden curriculum is the unstated promotion and enforcement of certain behavioural patterns, professional standards, and social beliefs navigating a learning environment (Jacobs, 2016:81). The formal curriculum, on the other hand, is the planned programme of objectives, content, learning experiences, resources, and assessment offered by a school (ibid.).

Child trafficking as a human rights violation is dealt with in a very opaque manner and because of its myriad effects on the development of the child academically, socially, physically and emotionally, further engagement to unlock its complexity is needed (1.1). Child trafficking within the hidden curriculum was addressed by learners when in School A they said that they only did an assignment on it, it was not taught to them (L4). In School A most learners mentioned that they have heard about it on social media platforms such as Facebook (L3). What became evident in both School A and School B was the impact of the media on learners' awareness of child trafficking. Learners also specified that awareness regarding the issue of child trafficking needs to be raised through the use of "posters, drama series in the community and involving friends to spread the word about child trafficking" (L10). The responses therefore reveals that to some degree learners are aware of child trafficking, although it is not part of the formal written curriculum.

4.5 Conclusion

The findings of the data that have been presented, described, and interpreted in this research study indicated the extent of the perceptions of township high school learners regarding child trafficking and the influence thereof on curriculum making. The factors that influenced those perceptions stemmed from comprehending the term child trafficking, incorporation of child trafficking in the curriculum, child trafficking existence in the community, the influence of media, the promotion and prevention of child trafficking, and understanding human rights violations.

It seems that most learners associate child trafficking with factors such as poverty, prostitution, and the selling of one's body. This indicates that their perceptions were loaded with what child trafficking is perceived to be according to the community, not to what they were taught at school. Most of the learners mentioned that, since they have not been taught about child trafficking, it would be ideal if it could be included in the formal school curriculum. It was also evident that child trafficking was not taking place in the community, since most learners seemed astonished when asked about it and some mentioned that they have never heard about it before, unless on social media through Facebook and Whatsapp. Since this was the case, learners mentioned that it would

be ideal if awareness regarding child trafficking could be promoted to prevent it using posters and drama series in the community. The findings also highlighted the manner in which these learners acknowledged human rights violations by referring to their own rights. I believe that this highlights the need for inclusion of the topic of child trafficking in the formal school curriculum.

In Chapter 5, the final chapter, I interpret the themes that emerged from the data and conclude with the findings and recommendations of this research study.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an overview of the research study to establish whether the research questions were addressed. Subsequently, an interpretation of the themes that emerged and the significant research findings are presented. The limitations for the research study are discussed, and finally recommendations are made to inform future research on this topic.

The research study sought to determine to what extent township high school learners' perceptions about child trafficking can influence curriculum making. The primary research question was guided by the following secondary questions:

- What is child trafficking, as a human rights violation?
- What are township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking?
- How can these perceptions influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation?

The four main aspects to be discussed in this chapter are:

- overview of the research study (5.2);
- significant findings (5.3);
- recommendations for further research (5.4); and
- limitations and challenges of the research study (5.5).

5.2 Overview of the research study

In Chapter 1 the research problem was stated and the terminology to be used was clarified. Subsequently the research question, with the primary and secondary questions, as well as the aims of the study were presented. Then the research design, methodology, and research processes were explained.

The background to the problem was discussed, which included, amongst others, the definition of child trafficking. Child trafficking is thought of as including the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of any person under the age of eighteen for the purpose of sexual or labour

exploitation, forced labour, or slavery and other forms of exploitation (Gozdziak, 2008:904). Child trafficking furthermore entails taking children out of their protective environments and preying on their vulnerability for the purpose of exploitation (ILO, 2005:1). Due to the fact that child trafficking features in the everyday lives of global citizens (HSRC, 2010), why then is child trafficking only being engaged with in the formal school curriculum in Grade 10? It is evident that the issue of child trafficking is problematic within the formal school curriculum, because it is only explicitly mentioned once (as human trafficking) in the subject Life Orientation in Grade 10 (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2013:103). While child trafficking has a devastating impact on individual victims, its impact also undermines the safety and security of all nations involved as it is a global health risk and fuels the growth of global organised crime. The appropriate research design, methodology, and research process were identified to suit this research study. The researcher's role was discussed and it was explained how trustworthiness and ethical considerations were adhered to in this research study.

A detailed literature review was presented in Chapter 2. Firstly, the background to human and child trafficking was discussed with the emphasis on the difference between human trafficking and child trafficking. Secondly, the act, means, and purpose of trafficking were discussed. Thirdly, child trafficking as a human rights violation was discussed in the context of the curriculum. Lastly, curriculum making to respond to child trafficking as a human rights violation was alluded to.

In Chapter 3 the research design, methodology, and research processes were elaborated on. A qualitative research design was utilised and phenomenology was adopted as the methodological approach. The philosophical underpinning for this methodology was interpretivism. A convenience sampling was used, and the data collection methods consisted of semi-structured one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews. Content analysis was used to analyse the data. MY role as researcher was also elaborated on. The trustworthiness of the research study was explained as well as the steps I had employed to ensure that I had adhered to ethical requirements.

Chapter 4 provided a presentation of the data findings and their interpretations. Profiles of the research environments and the participants provided the contextual setting. The verbatim responses of the twelve participants in the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interviews were presented by means of tables. The analysis revealed township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking, focusing on various codes and themes that emerged (4.3). In the section to follow, I clustered the main findings in terms of the literature review and findings presented in Chapter 4.

5.3 Significant findings

In this section, I will discuss the main research findings in relation to the body of scholarship. This is done by way of clustering the main themes that emerged from Chapter 4.

5.3.1 The push and pull factors and the act, means, and purpose of child trafficking

With regard to the push and pull factors and the act, means, and purpose of child trafficking, it came to the fore that child trafficking is a result of factors such as poverty (4.3.2.1) and financial gain, as depicted by the verbatim responses of the learners. UNICEF (2001:5) identified the following push and pull factors as characteristics of trafficking worldwide: poverty, family break up, violence or other dysfunction, lack of job opportunities, low education levels or the wrong skills for the jobs that are available, family pressures or a sense of responsibility to provide for the family, and discrimination or marginalisation including the very fact of being female (2.3.1.1). Because most of the learners came from a low socio-economic background, they mostly associated child trafficking with poverty and financial gain to the traffickers (4.2.2). Most learners did not perceive child trafficking in terms of family break up, but instead they saw fit that their families would support them if they were the victims of trafficking (4.3.2.1). Factors such as a lack of job opportunities, low education levels, family pressures, and discrimination did not emerge from the learners.

The push and pull factors depicted above were fuelled by the means and purpose of trafficking. The act of trafficking relates to the selling of children and drugs (4.3.1.1) as well as the transportation of the trafficked children (4.3.1.2). It was evident from the literature that moving trafficked persons away from familiar surroundings is an important strategy for traffickers as it restricts the victim's scope for seeking help or escaping and facilitates the exploitation of trapped victims (2.3.1.2). The means of trafficking relating to force also came to the fore. Force is carried out by various exploitations, such as forced labour and forced marriages (2.3.2.1). Any person who subjects another person to either forced labour, forced marriage, or sexual exploitation can threaten to cause serious physical and emotional harm to a victim (2.3.2.1). In this essence, force was mainly described by the participants in terms of sexual exploitation (4.3.1.2). Furthermore, it seemed that learners did not associate force with forced labour and forced marriage, but rather with muti-murders (4.3.2.1). Trafficking of South African children predominantly occurs within the boundaries of the country with girls being the primary targets and parents and local criminal gangs being the primary traffickers (2.3.3.1). These findings reveal a correlation between the push and pull factors together with the act, means, and purpose of trafficking.

5.3.2 Interconnectedness of child trafficking and human rights violations

As a result of the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interviews, attention was drawn to child trafficking as a human rights violation. Through the interviews conducted in both schools, one common perception of human rights violation was the fact that all learners understood human rights violation in terms of the Constitution of South Africa. This is a profound finding, as it acknowledges that learners view human rights violations as an important factor of child trafficking. As a result of a lack of human rights, children are more prone to being trafficked, to sell their bodies, use drugs, and/or become prostitutes.

These findings revealed that learners associated child trafficking as a human rights violation, based on the basic rights included in the Constitution (4.3.1.1 & 4.3.1.2).

5.3.3 Understanding child trafficking in relation to the curriculum

It became apparent through the semi-structured one-on-one interviews and the focus group interviews that learners associated child trafficking with the context of the hidden curriculum (4.3.1.1). It was mentioned that learners have not received formal education about child trafficking, but only had an assignment to do about it in Grade 10 (4.3.1.1). This explains why some learners understood the concept of child trafficking (4.3.1.1). The formal or written curriculum is the planned programme stipulating the objectives, content, learning experiences, resources and assessments offered by a school (4.4.7). Although learners indicated that they had done an assignment about child trafficking, that does not surpass the fact that they have not received formal training, which means that no planning was done and the assignment was not necessarily assessed.

5.3.4 Child trafficking and the socially responsive curriculum

The socially responsive curriculum recognises lived experiences of learners and is associated with social responsibility and social accountability (2.5.2). Social responsibility implies an obligation or duty to society for actions intended to serve the community (Boelen & Wollard, 2009:887). The learners indicated that child trafficking should be included in the curriculum so that the community can be aware of it (4.3.1.1). Social accountability involves a commitment to respond as best as possible to the educational and societal needs of learners (2.5.2). In reference to educational and societal needs, emphasis should be placed on the need for the promotion of awareness and prevention of child trafficking (4.3.2.1).

Child trafficking within the hidden curriculum was addressed by learners when they spoke about only having heard about it when they did an assignment (4.3.1.1). Most learners also emphasised that they have heard about it on social media platforms (4.3.2.1). What became evident was that

learners mentioned the impact the media has on their awareness of child trafficking. They also mentioned that awareness of child trafficking needs to be promoted and child trafficking should be prevented through the use of posters, drama series, and involving friends to spread the word about child trafficking (4.3.2.1). This reveals that to some degree learners are aware of child trafficking, although it is not part of the formal written curriculum (4.3.1.1).

Theoretical and empirical findings have addressed the research aims and questions in this research study (1.4 & 1.5). The findings have determined how township high school learners perceive child trafficking as a human rights violation and indicated the implication that those perceptions have on curriculum making. The recommendations for further research that emerged from this research study will be discussed next.

5.4 Recommendations for further research

The suggested recommendations based on the findings of this research study must be viewed in the context of the clustered themes discussed above. These suggestions contribute to the exploration of the perceptions of township high school learners about child trafficking and the implications thereof for curriculum making.

5.4.1 Awareness raising in relation to the act, means and purpose of trafficking

The act, means, and purpose of trafficking emerged as factors contributing to child trafficking. The act was categorised into four actions, namely recruitment, transportation and transferring, delivering and harbouring, and selling and exchanging (2.3). It came to the fore that acts such as the transportation of children, the transferring, selling and exchanging were aspects that learners considered as what is being done when child trafficking occurs (2.3.1 & 4.3.1.1).

The literature review addressed the recruitment methods and leasing, although little was mentioned through the verbatim responses on the recruitment methods as well as the leasing of children in child trafficking. These can be issues that need to be addressed in future research studies. By addressing such issues, children will be aware of the recruitment methods and will not be prone to being moved away from their homes and exploited in the informal economy where they are even more difficult to trace and are at high risk of many forms of violence (2.3.1.1). The means of trafficking also came to the fore, which includes force, deception, and abduction (2.3.4). This was mentioned in the learners' verbatim responses (4.3.1.1 & 4.3.1.2) as well as the literature review (2.3.2). Although this was the case, no mention of vulnerability and threat of harm surfaced in the verbatim responses of learners. Vulnerability and threat of harm is a factor which needs to

be thoroughly discussed as a matter of urgency, as children are prone to being more vulnerable (2.4).

The purpose of trafficking also emerged with regard to sexual exploitation (4.3.1.1) and multi-murders (4.3.2.1). Issues pertaining to forced labour, forced marriages, and removal of organs need to be addressed in further research. When trafficking is viewed as a labour issue, efforts to address it tend to focus on combating the demand for cheap labour and advocating for the enforcement of labour standards and improvements in working conditions (2.3.3.2). Labour issues should rather address the exploitation of children in the labour market and how to combat that. Moreover, forced marriages should be dealt with in future research studies, because where poverty is acute, a young girl may be regarded as an economic burden and her marriage to a much older person sometimes may be seen to benefit the child and her family, both financially and socially (2.3.3.4). More research should focus on aspects relating to forced marriages through providing an in-depth analysis into what goes on in a forced marriage and emphasis on the rights of children.

The literature revealed that several cases have been documented where donors were told that if they donate a kidney another one will grow back to replace it (2.3.3.3). This is a clear indication that people need to be made aware of issues pertaining to trafficking through campaigns on the subject of the removal of organs, so that people can have a thorough knowledge about it. Poverty and financial gain emerged as factors contributing to child trafficking for the purpose of the removal of organs (4.3.2.1). The two factors emerge in relation to the act, means, and purpose of trafficking. Factors such as family break up, violence, lack of job opportunities, and low education, amongst others, also need to be addressed by the learners, poverty is not the only factor contributing to financial gain.

5.4.2 Measures for combating child trafficking as a human rights violation

Children should not only perceive child trafficking as a violation of their basic rights, infused within the Constitution; they should also know their responsibility in curbing child trafficking and preventing other children from being trafficked. Further research study needs to focus on the curriculum and community responsibilities for addressing child trafficking as a human rights violation (4.3.1.1). This can be achieved by including the topic of child trafficking as a human rights violation in the formal school curriculum, not only addressing the rights infused in the Constitution, but also rights in relation to child trafficking specifically, as well as learners' responsibilities as members of a community (4.3.1.1). It was evident from the literature that children's rights need to be measured and monitored independently from other human rights, as they constitute a vulnerable sector of the population that needs special protection (2.4). The literature further revealed that having trafficking legislation may not eradicate human rights abuses associated with

trafficking, although it has the potential to improve the rights of any rescued victim (South Africa, 2013:15). This calls for additional proactive and practical measures to be put in place for optimum effectiveness of the new law (2.4). Furthermore, researchers should investigate the relation between child trafficking and human rights violations with the intension of raising awareness about these sensitive issues through class discussion (4.3.1.1).

5.4.3 The need for inclusion of the topic of child trafficking in the formal school curriculum

It became evident that children were only aware of child trafficking through the hidden curriculum, in terms of an assignment done, social media and what they have heard in their communities. The topic does not form part of the formal curriculum. The inclusion of the topic of child trafficking in the formal curriculum might assist in creating awareness of this issue, the importance of which was indicated by learners who said they wanted to gain more knowledge about it (4.3.1.1). Freire suggested that the whole curriculum of the classroom must be re-examined and reconstructed; whereby the teacher's role would be to regulate the way learners perceive the world (Freire, 1970:246). He favours a change of roles of learners from being passive to becoming active. In doing so, he suggests that learners undergo a struggle for ownership of themselves (2.5.3). For a broad curriculum to be embraced, we cannot view subject areas as isolated spaces, since this might create artificial boundaries that can hinder us from understanding our theoretical stance. Curriculum theory should evolve to respond to the changing social needs of a society (2.5.3). Educational researchers should therefore undertake more studies on the inclusion of the topic of child trafficking in the formal school curriculum. This will provide another lense on the importance of child trafficking as a human rights violation and evoking classroom conversations.

5.4.4 The socially responsive curriculum as a means of curbing child trafficking

Learners and teachers working together might develop an understanding of their respective pedagogical roles and what others expect of them in the learning process. As a learning group, they need to work out an action proposal for essential "content" and for outcomes of the educational encounter (2.5.2). Further research study need to focus on the socially responsive curriculum as a means of curbing child trafficking. It was evident that the horizontality approach to curriculum making would be a better fit to address the issues relating to child trafficking. Horizontality approaches curriculum making from the periphery instead of the centre. Its focus is on analysing present circumstances in conjunction with the social and political milieus, which influences and structures this set of circumstances (2.5.1).

It was evident from the main data findings that the curriculum has been proposed as a powerful means with the potential to initiate social transformation and addressing conversations in the

society. It reflects the dominant social, democratic, and ethical discourses. For this reason, it seems reasonable to see child trafficking under a socially responsive curriculum, linking it to a broad curriculum as both are inquiry driven and influenced by socio-political context. Teachers should ask questions such as “how”, “what”, and “when” (2.5.2). Teachers need to ally with parents and other conscientious people from their communities to create a counter–hegemony by starting to build a socially responsive curriculum based on participatory democratic and humanistic values as an alternative to market for profit values (2.5.2). For further research studies teachers, learners and the community need to work together were their perceptions would be heard and so as to contribute to curriculum making.

On the 31st of May Basic Education minister Angie Motshekga, Ministerial Task Team report (MTT) made a consideration that Life Orientation be phased out by the year 2025 so that it no longer is a compulsory subject for all learners as part of the formal curriculum. As a result we cannot solely rely on the formal Life Orientation curriculum to create awareness and combat child trafficking as a human right violation. A socially responsive curriculum would provide a better avenue on how child trafficking can be approached.

Further research study should emphasise child trafficking and the socially responsive curriculum to educate learners as citizens who are committed and active participants in making the society more democratic, just, and peaceful.

5.5 Limitations and challenges of the research study

This section highlights the challenges experienced during the course of the research study and indicates the limitations of the study.

5.5.1 Learner participation

It was difficult to recruit learners as participants in this research study as most of them seemed uninterested at first. In cases where they were interested, they asked questions such as what they would gain from it. In this sense I had to convince them as to the importance of the research study for their lives as well as for their communities.

5.5.2 Time period

Permission for time to conduct the research study at both schools was difficult to obtain, as most learners either had extracurricular activities at the time we had to meet, which was after school, or had the task of cleaning classrooms. I had to negotiate with their class teachers for the participants to not take part on that specific day so that the interviews could be conducted. Some learners

needed to go home to look after their siblings and perform other domestic duties; other learners were involved with extramural activities, whilst some learners had transport restrains.

5.5.3 The use of learners in one specific grade

During data collection, learners mentioned that they had done an assignment on the topic of trafficking in Grade 10. That made me realise that it might have been insightful to have recruited learners from various grades. It would have assisted in providing different perspectives based on various grades and ages.

5.5.4 The use of only technical and commercial high schools

This is a limitation, because the focus was only on those two township high schools, as opposed to having included a main stream school. The use of a main stream school could have perhaps provided a different perspective to the research study, as the curriculum stream is different to those of a technical and a commercial school.

5.6 Conclusion

The significant findings were presented in this chapter. The findings answered the themes that emerged in Chapter 4, as well as the research questions, as briefly discussed in the concluding paragraphs that follow.

The first research question addressed child trafficking as a human rights violation. This question was answered based on the literature and the findings of the data collected at both schools. It was clear that children are violated and more needs to be done to address child trafficking as a human rights violation. Children do not only have to perceive rights in terms of the Constitution, but also in terms of the responsibilities infused within them in making their community aware of child trafficking and the impact that awareness can have on the entire country.

The second research question was answered based on the data collected in both schools. It became evident that learners were not familiar with the issue of child trafficking, and if they were, it was mainly through the hidden curriculum and the media. This was a clear indication that child trafficking as a human rights violation needs to be thoroughly addressed in the formal school curriculum.

The last research question focused on how learners' perceptions could influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation. It was evident from the literature study, and from the findings indicating learners' lack of knowledge on the issue, that child

trafficking needs to be included in the formal school curriculum. The realisation that learners are not aware of child trafficking as a human rights violation makes this an imperative issue, especially to enhance the conversations of this topic between teachers and learners.

In concluding this research study, I wish to quote Freire (1968):

In the banking concept of education, knowledge is a gift bestowed to those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing. Attempting to liberate the oppressed without their reflective participation in the act of liberation is to treat them as objects that must be saved from a burning building. Why not establish an intimate connection between knowledge considered basic to any school curriculum and knowledge that is the fruit of the lived experience of these learners as individuals?

As the quote suggests, learners should not be seen as empty vessels or only as adaptable to knowledge, but rather as active participants within a community. Hence, Freire went on by suggesting that learners' lived experiences should be used as a departure point for the curriculum making processes. It came to the fore that conversations, with the idea of addressing child trafficking as a human rights violation within a democratic society, need to be held often, with the emphasis on the socially responsive curriculum. Based on learners' perceptions and the literature reviewed, this research study concludes that child trafficking as a human rights violation should be addressed in curriculum making.

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ADDENDUM A

ETHICS APPROVAL: NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY



Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom,
South Africa, 2520

Tel: (018) 299-4900
Faks: (018) 299-4910
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Research Ethics Regulatory Committee

Tel: +27 18 299 4849
Email: Ethics@nwu.ac.za

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE OF STUDY

Based on approval by the **Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences (ESREC) on 17/03/2016** after being reviewed at the meeting held on **25/02/2016**, the North-West University Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-RERC) hereby **approves** your study as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-RERC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the study may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Study title: Township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making.																															
Study Leader/Supervisor: Prof S Simmonds																															
Student: I Lesabe																															
Ethics number:	<table border="1"><tr><td>N</td><td>W</td><td>U</td><td>-</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>3</td><td>7</td><td>-</td><td>1</td><td>6</td><td>-</td><td>A</td><td>2</td></tr><tr><td colspan="3">Institution</td><td colspan="5">Study Number</td><td colspan="2">Year</td><td colspan="5">Status</td></tr></table> <small>Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation</small>	N	W	U	-	0	0	1	3	7	-	1	6	-	A	2	Institution			Study Number					Year		Status				
N	W	U	-	0	0	1	3	7	-	1	6	-	A	2																	
Institution			Study Number					Year		Status																					
Application Type:																															
Commencement date: 2016-03-17	Expiry date: 2018-12-16																														
Risk:	Minimal																														

Special conditions of the approval (if applicable):

- Translation of the informed consent document to the languages applicable to the study participants should be submitted to the ESREC (if applicable).
- Any research at governmental or private institutions, permission must still be obtained from relevant authorities and provided to the ESREC. Ethics approval is required BEFORE approval can be obtained from these authorities.

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The study leader (principle investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-RERC via ESREC:
 - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the study, and upon completion of the project
 - without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
 - Annually a number of projects may be randomly selected for an external audit.
- The approval applies strictly to the proposal as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the proposal be deemed necessary during the course of the study, the study leader must apply for approval of these changes at the ESREC. Would there be deviation from the study proposal without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-RERC via ESREC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-RERC and ESREC retains the right to:
 - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the study;
 - to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process.
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected,
 - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the ESREC or that information has been false or misrepresented,
 - the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately,
 - new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.
- ESREC can be contacted for further information or any report templates via Erna.Greyling@nwu.ac.za or 018 299 4656

The RERC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the RERC or ESREC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Prof Refilwe Phaswana-Mafuya
Chair NWU Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (RERC)

ADDENDUM B

FORMAL LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

School of Education Studies
Faculty of Education Sciences
Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520
Tel:+27(018) 299-4764

LETTER TO THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Dear Sir/Madam

Request for permission to conduct research in a high school in the North West Province

I hereby request permission for my student to do research at the school X.

Mrs. I.B Lesabe (22005889) is an MEd student at the School of Education at North-West University (Potchefstroom). The title of her dissertation is: *Township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making.*

She would like to conduct research in this school environment as it fits the profile required by the research project. Her research is centred on the perceptions of township high school learners of child trafficking. This research will therefore require the participation of twelve township high school learners in Grade 11 in semi-structured one-on-one and focus group interviews.

The aim of the research project is to, firstly, explore how child trafficking is addressed within Life Orientation (Grade 11) with due consideration to the topics within the subject; secondly, to determine township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking. Thirdly, to explore how these perceptions can influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation.

All the information that is gained from the school and the learners' will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. The participants will be free to withdraw from the research at any time with no consequences. Ethical considerations such as informed consent, voluntary participation and confidentiality will be adhered to.

I sincerely hope you will be able to accommodate her research study. Should you require any further details please do not hesitate to contact me shan.simmonds@nwu.ac.za / 0182994764 or l2lesabe@gmail.com/0822111101.

Regards

Prof Shan Simmonds

(Study leader)

ADDENDUM C

ETHICAL APPROVAL FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION



Education and Sport Development

Department of Education and Sport Development
Departement van Onderwys en Sport Ontwikkeling
Lefapha la Thuto le Tihabololo ya Metshameko
NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Temane Building
8 O.R. Tambo Street, Potchefstroom
Private Bag X1256,
Potchefstroom 2520
Tel.: (018) 299-8216
Fax: (018) 294-8234
Enquiries: Mr H. Motara
e-mail: hmotara@nwpg.gov.za

DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR

05 April 2016

Mrs I B Lesabe
Med Student Number: 22005889
North West University – Potchefstroom Campus

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON "TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILD TRAFFICKING: IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM MAKING" AT xxxxx SECONDARY SCHOOL AND xxxxx HIGH SCHOOL IN TLOKWE AREA OFFICE - DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT

The above matter refers.

Permission is hereby granted to you to conduct your research at xxxxx Secondary School and xxxxx High School in Tlokwe Area Office - Dr Kenneth Kaunda District under the following provisions:

- > The activity you undertake at the schools should not tamper with the normal process of learning and teaching; and will take place after school hours.
- > You inform the principals of your identified school of your impending visit and activity;
- > Learners are told prior to the interview that it is not compulsory but voluntary.
- > You provide my office with a report in respect of your findings from the research; and
- > You obtain prior permission from this office before availing your findings for public or media consumption.

Wishing you well in your endeavour.

Thanking you

**MR H MOTARA
DISTRICT DIRECTOR
DR KENNETH KAUNDA DISTRICT**

cc Ms S S Yssel – Area Manager: Tlokwe

ADDENDUM D
FORMAL LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT
RESEARCH TO THE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

School of Education Studies
Faculty of Education Sciences
Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
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Tel:+27(018) 299-4764

LETTER TO THE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Dear Sir/Madam

Request for permission to conduct research in a high school in the North West Province

I hereby request permission for my student to do research at the school X.

Mrs. I.B Lesabe (22005889) is an MEd student at the School of Education at North-West University (Potchefstroom). The title of her dissertation is: *Township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making.*

She would like to conduct research in this school environment as it fits the profile required by the research project. Her research is centred on the perceptions of township high school learners of child trafficking. This research will therefore require the participation of twelve township high school learners in Grade 11 in semi-structured one-on-one and focus group interviews.

The aim of the research project is to, firstly, explore how child trafficking is addressed within Life Orientation (Grade 11) with due consideration to the topics within the subject; secondly, to determine township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking. Thirdly, to explore how these perceptions can influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation.

All the information that is gained from the school and the learners' will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. The participants will be free to withdraw from the research at any time with no consequences. Ethical considerations such as informed consent, voluntary participation and confidentiality will be adhered to.

I sincerely hope you will be able to accommodate her research study. Should you require any further details please do not hesitate to contact me shan.simmonds@nwu.ac.za / 0182994764 or i2lesabe@gmail.com/0822111101.

Regards

Prof Shan Simmonds

(Study leader)

ADDENDUM E
FORMAL LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT
RESEARCH TO THE PARENTS/GUARDIANS



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

School of Education Studies
Faculty of Education Sciences
Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520
Tel:+27(018) 299-4764

Dear Parent / Guardian

Request for permission for learner to participate in this research project

I, Mrs Itumeleng Lesabe, hereby request permission for your child to participate in my research project. I am currently enrolled at North-West University where I am doing my MEd. The title of my dissertation is: Township high school learners' perception of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making.

The study will involve your child as a participant during a semi-structured one-on-one interview and a focus group interview where they will take part in a discussion on child trafficking. This discussion will take between 30-45 minutes. It can also be guaranteed that this discussion will not have any negative impacts on your child academic responsibilities. Your child's participation is entirely voluntary and he or she is free to withdraw from participating at any time with no consequences. Confidentiality of all participants' responses will be protected.

Should you require any further details please do not hesitate to contact me i2lesabe@gmail.com or 082 2111101.

Kind regards

Itumeleng Lesabe

If you are willing to give your child consent to participate in this research, please could you complete this section and send it to school with your child no later than (date needs to be inserted).

I _____ (parent/guardian name), give permission for my child

_____ (child's name) to participate in the research being conducted by Ms Itumeleng Lesabe in connection with her MEd dissertation. I have read the above letter and understand its contents.

Parents signature

Date

ADDENDUM F

FORMAL LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH TO THE PARTICIPANTS



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
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South Africa 2520
Tel:+27(018) 299-4764

LETTER TO THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS (LEARNERS)

Dear research participant

Assent to participate in the research study

You are invited to voluntarily participate in a research study conducted by Mrs. I.B Lesabe (22005889) who is an MEd student at the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus). The title of her dissertation is: *Township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making.*

Her research is centred on the of township high school learners' perceptions of child trafficking. This research will therefore require your participation in a semi-structured one-on-one and focus group interview.

The aim of the research project is to, firstly, explore how child trafficking is addressed within Life Orientation (Grade 11) with due consideration to the topics within the subject; secondly, to determine township high school learners perceptions of child trafficking. Thirdly, to explore how these perceptions can influence curriculum making to address child trafficking as a human rights violation.

All the information that you provide will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. Your participation in the research study is voluntary, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind and you may refuse to answer any questions you do not want.

I sincerely hope you will be provide assent to participate in this research study. Should you have any questions or concerns about the research study, please feel free to contact Prof Shan Simmonds (study leader) at shan.simmonds@nwu.ac.za / 0182994764 or myself at 0822111101.

Regards

Itumeleng Lesabe

If you are willing to participate in this research study, please could you complete this section.

I _____ (learners name), give assent to participate in the research study being conducted by Ms Itumeleng Lesabe in connection with her MEd dissertation. She has read and explained the above letter to me and I understand its contents.

Learners signature

Date

ADDENDUM G

SEMI-STRUCTURED ONE-ON-ONE AND FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS SCHEDULE

PARTICIPANTS BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Participants gender
2. Participants age
3. Participants home language
4. Participants first additional language
5. Location where they live
6. Parents/guardian
7. Income status of parents/guardian

SEMI-STRUCTURED ONE-ON-ONE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are your perceptions of the term child trafficking?
2. Have you ever heard or learned about child trafficking? Where? Please explain
3. Do you think child trafficking exists in your community? Please motivate
4. Do you think it should be included in your Life Orientation curriculum? (If so, why or why not?)
5. Do you think that how you perceive child trafficking has an influence on how it should be addressed in the curriculum? Please motivate why
6. What do you understand as human right violations?
7. Do you think child trafficking is a human right violation? Please elaborate by stating why or why not?

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How are children trafficked?
2. Are there advantaged or disadvantages when trafficked?
3. Why should learning about child trafficking be included in schools?
4. How do you understand the term human rights violation?

ADDENDUM H
CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING

Sanri Theron

Text Editing

Certificate in Text Editing: Methodology (University of Stellenbosch)

M A in African Languages (University of Stellenbosch)

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DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the thesis mentioned below was properly language edited. The “track changes” function was used and the author was responsible for accepting the changes, as well as for the correctness of the references. The editor will keep a copy of the version with track changes which was submitted to the author for six months from the date below.

Township high school learners’ perceptions of child trafficking: implications for curriculum making

by

I B Lesabe

Sanri Theron

Kuils River

23 April 2018