

Kodila-Tedika, Oasis; Kabange, Martin Mulunda

Working Paper

Slave trade and Human Trafficking

AGDI Working Paper, No. WP/16/002

Provided in Cooperation with:

African Governance and Development Institute (AGDI), Yaoundé, Cameroon

Suggested Citation: Kodila-Tedika, Oasis; Kabange, Martin Mulunda (2016) : Slave trade and Human Trafficking, AGDI Working Paper, No. WP/16/002, African Governance and Development Institute (AGDI), Yaoundé

This Version is available at:

<https://hdl.handle.net/10419/149926>

Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Die Dokumente auf EconStor dürfen zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden.

Sie dürfen die Dokumente nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, öffentlich zugänglich machen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Sofern die Verfasser die Dokumente unter Open-Content-Lizenzen (insbesondere CC-Lizenzen) zur Verfügung gestellt haben sollten, gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der dort genannten Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

Terms of use:

Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes.

You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public.

If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.

AFRICAN GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT
INSTITUTE

A G D I Working Paper

WP/16/002

Slave trade and Human Trafficking

Oasis Kodila-Tedika¹

University of Kinshasa
Department of Economics, DRC
oasiskodila@yahoo.fr

Martin Mulunda Kabange

University of KwaZulu-Natal
tino_kab4@yahoo.co.za

¹Corresponding author.

AGDI Working Paper

Research Department

Slave trade and Human Trafficking

Oasis Kodila-Tedika & Martin Mulunda Kabange

February 2016

Abstract

The literature has not sufficiently engaged in the emergence and expansion of the phenomenon of slave trade. This article estimates whether or not slave trade affects human trafficking using an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) with standard errors that are consistent with heteroscedasticity. The paper also checks for the robustness of the OLS model. The findings of the paper reveal that the effect of slave trade on human trafficking is positive and statistically significant. The more one is exposed to the phenomenon of slave trade, the more human trafficking is important. The paper also deduces that developed countries that experienced slave trade record low level of human trafficking nowadays, while developing countries continue to record high level of human trafficking. Additionally, institutions were found to be statistically very significant, and essential to be politically and socioeconomically consolidated and promoted, mainly in developing countries in order to alleviate the level of human trafficking.

JEL Classification: I20; I29; N30

Keywords: Human Trafficking; Slavery

1. Introduction

From Nunn's (2008)² empirical and significant work, numerous literature on the consequences of slavery have emerged. Bezemer et al. (2014) for instance, assessed the long-run effect of politico-economic development from an African indigenous slavery system. Similarly, Nunn and Wantchekon (2011) found that current disparities in levels of trust with Africa can be traced back to the Indian Ocean and transatlantic slave trade. Whatley and Gillezeau (2010, 2011a) established a positive connection between the restricted geographic scope of the 20th century ethnic groupings and the number of slaves that left the African West coast. Moreover, Whatley and Gillezeau (2011b) looked into the evolutionary processes facilitated by encounters of the indigenous African population with colonial powers. As a result of their investigation, the main effect of slave trade in African economies is perceived as a consistent illustration of the resource curse.

Additionally, Phillippe (2010) discovered that slave trade was negatively correlated with the level of education and the quality of some infrastructure at the beginning of last century in the French western African region. Bertochi and Dimico (2014) linked the USA slavery to the concept of income inequality. This latter study suggested that the slavery experience could explain, for instance, the persistent educational gap observed between black and white Americans (Bertochi and Dimico, 2012). The impacts of slave trade are numerous. In light of this, slave trade has impacted on local economic development and institutions. Slave trade has also impacted on demographics, family structure, and gender role (Bertocchi, 2015).

Throughout the present study, the emphasis is placed on the effect of slave trade on human trafficking. The extent of human trafficking is significant considering that the literature is quiet limited on this subject. Therefore, one can say with Hernandez and Rudolph (2015) that the causes of human trafficking are relatively well-known. Additionally, Hernandez and Rudolph (2015) have succeeded to put in place some empirical evidence on slavery and human trafficking in the European framework. Whereas, Akee et al. (2010a) based their studies precisely on the determinants of trafficking in children and female. Some of their findings revealed that by using cross-national data, the most marginalized people, that is, women or children in a source country of international trafficking and trafficking hubs have high probabilities of working in the agricultural sector. Their results also indicate a higher dependency proportion of children population belonging to the source countries and

² For an introduction to Nunn's research work, read Kodila-Tedika (2011)

trafficking hubs in comparison to host countries. Other studies by Rudolph and Schneider (2013) proposed a large measure of human trafficking and determinants in a cross-section.

The current study intends to contribute toward existing literature of slavery and human trafficking and seeks to add the historical dimension to the determinants of slavery and human trafficking. Reasons behind this hypothesis are twofold: firstly, the relationship between the slave trade and human trafficking can be an illustration of stable equilibrium. Davis and Weinstein (2002, 2008) supported this argument in observing that Japanese towns of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, which were bombarded during the World War II returned to their initial state as before the bombardment (e.g. industrial composite and population-wise). Miguel and Roland (2011) provided similar results with Vietnam. Somehow, there is a state equilibrium to which one country seems to return to. The type of relation we put forth refers to the so-called “path dependence” or a typical case of looking back to the past.

Secondly, the way through which slave trade explains human trafficking, nowadays, could be linked to culture. For instance, a study by Miguel et al (2008) have shown that the most violent football players, in European leagues in general, come from countries with civil war histories. Additionally, Fisman and Miguel (2007) discovered that diplomats from countries experiencing a high level of corruption are those who accumulate unpaid parking tickets in the United Nations parking bay. In considering the control of other probable bias variables, one can conclude that culture plays a major role in daily decision-making. Moreover, it is possible that countries that have experienced a historical phenomenon, such as slave trade, could develop some reasonable understanding regarding practices that explain a high tendency to engage into human trafficking activities today. Tabellini (2010) and Guiso et al. (2013) substantially emphasised on the importance of history in the determination of cultural norms and actual behaviours.

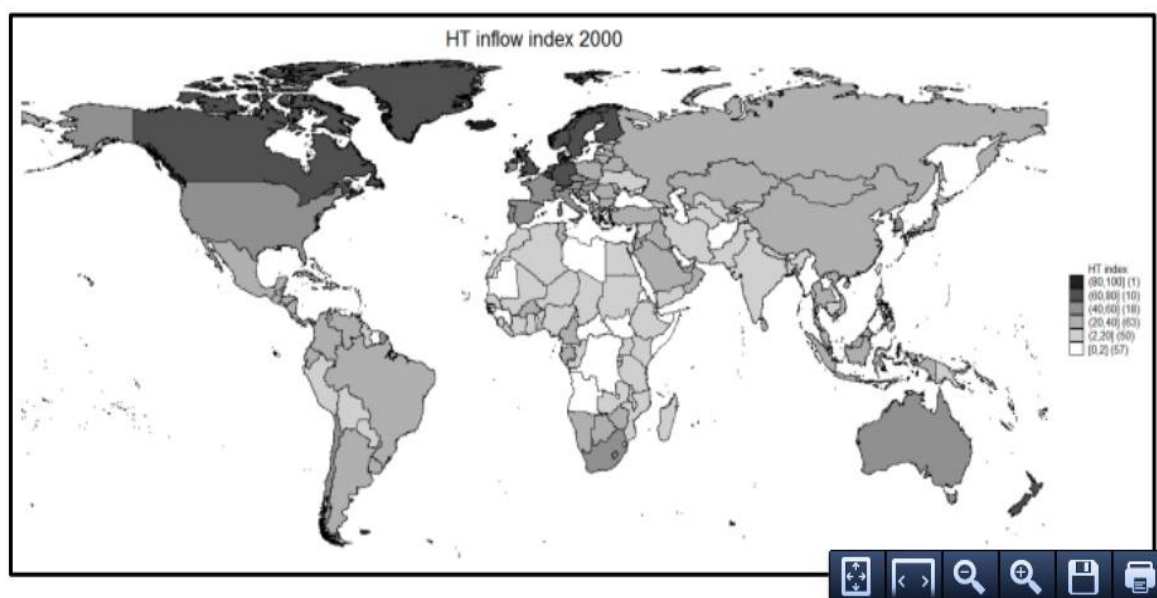
The rest of the research paper is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses the data and methodology used while Section 3 presents the empirical analysis and check for the robustness of the results. Section 4 discusses the results obtained, while the conclusion section is provided in section 5.

2. Empirical strategy and data

2.1 Data

Data on human trafficking are extracted from the Rudolph and Schneider (2013) study which suggested a new database. This database were also in various studies, such as Avdan(2012); Njoh and Ayuk-Etang (2012) as well as Potrafke (2013). The measurement of human trafficking uses an index which ranges between 0 and 100. This measurement means that the more a country's score is near 100, the lower it experienced human trafficking. Similarly, high levels of human trafficking are recorded in countries where the human trafficking index is near 0. Figure 1, represents an illustration of the intensity of human trafficking all over the world.

Figure 1. Development of Human Trafficking intensity in destination countries



Source: Rudolph and Schneider (2013)

Figure 1 clearly indicates that human trafficking is quiet high in sub-Sahara Africa and in the northern part of Africa. This could be justified by the fact that most countries in these regions have experienced, in the past or continue to experience today, severe periods of civil wars. A clear example of these countries include: Angola, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Libya and South Sudan, as shown in Fig1.

For several years in the past, slaves were essentially regarded as “free labour” used by European colonies and the colonial USA to keep the colonial economy moving forward. As such, slave trade is estimated as the number of people sold to another colonial territory between 1400 and 1900. The estimate of the number of slaves is obtained from Nunn and

Puga (2012)'s study. Moreover, the study also made use of the “mean ruggedness” which is the mean value of an index on landscape ruggedness (relative to hundreds of meters above the sea level) for a nation. The mean ruggedness is calculated using geospatial surface undulation indicators based on a one degree resolution from the Geographically based Economic data (G-Econ) project (Nordhaus, 2006). This variable depends on a more spatially disaggregated elevation at a ten-minute resolution (New et al., 2002). The grid-cell-level appreciation of ruggedness is consolidated up to national level by averaging across the grid cells which are located within the borders of a country. We invite the interested reader to gain more insights into the computation on the website of the G-Econ project. This variable has been employed in Nunn and Puga (2012) in the stream of literature on slave trade. Data on agricultural transition are extracted from Putterman (2008)'s study. Data on institutions are obtained from Kaufmann, Kraay & Mastruzzi (2010) data base and the log of GDP per capital for the year 2010 is extracted from Penn World, Table 8.1.

2.2. Empirical specification

The specification of the regression model in Eq. (1) examines the effect of slave trade on human trafficking across 140 countries.

$$HT_i = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 ST_i + \alpha_3 \mathbf{X}_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

Where: HT_i (ST_i) represents a human trafficking (slave trade) indicator for country i , α_1 is the intercept coefficient, \mathbf{X}_i is the vector of control variables, and ε_i the error term. HT represents human trafficking, the dependent variable, ST represents the slave trade, and \mathbf{X}_i comprises: Mean index of ruggedness, Agricultural transition, Institution, GDP per capita and a dummy variable for continents which one assigned a value of 1 if the base or reference category (continent) is Europe, and 0 otherwise. In line with the underlying literature, the interest of Eq. (1) is to estimate whether or not slave trade affects human trafficking using an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) with standard errors that are consistent with heteroscedasticity.

The multiple regression (OLS) used, is subdivided into three models for comparison purpose. We firstly present the OLS results in Table 1, then check for the robustness of the results in Table 2.

3. Empirical Results

The OLS regression in Table 1 estimates three models (Model 1, Model 3 and Model 3). The variable ‘slave trade’ was found to very significant in all three models. This indicates that after running a simple multiple regression, one found out that there is a strong relationship between slave export and human trafficking. Table 1, also indicates that the estimated coefficients for institution in Model 2 (0.319) and Model 3 (0.331) are both statistically significant (p-value = 0.01).

Table 1: OLS results

	eq1	eq2	eq3
Slave trade	-0,000*** (3.42e-06)	-9.02e-06*** (1.70e-06)	-7.75e-06*** (2.10e-06)
Mean index of ruggedness (in 100m above)"		0,214 (0,828)	-0,513 (0,697)
Agricultural transition		-0,000 (0,000)	7.08e-06 (0,001)
Institution		0,319*** (0,072)	0,331*** (0,079)
GDP per capita		-0,033 (0,022)	-0,025 (0,022)
Africa			-15,635*** (3,348)
Americas			-11,625*** (3,537)
Asia			-14,924*** (2,383)
Europa			(dropped)
Oceania			-14,305*** (3,236)
_cons	30,612*** (1,435)	11,392*** (3,479)	25,385*** (6,129)
Number of observations	140	61	61
R2	0,047	0,519	0,577

note: .01 - ***; .05 - **; .1 - *;

Moreover, in considering ‘continent’ as a dummy variable, Model 3 shows that the slave trade difference between Africa and the reference category Europe has an estimated coefficient of -15.635 and p-value = 0.01, *ceteris paribus*. Similarly, the slave trade difference between America and Europe indicates a coefficient of -11.625; p-value = 0.01. The slave trade difference between Asia and Europe shows a coefficient of -14.924; p-value

= 0.05, while the one between Oceania and Europe shows a coefficient of -14.305; p-value =0.01, *ceteris paribus*. A robust test was conducted and the results are presented as follows:

Check for Robustness

Table 2 also compares three models (Model 4, Model 5, and Model 6) after checking for the robustness of the results. The results indicate more variability in Model 6 than in the two others. Slave trade was found to be statistically significant in all three equations (p-value = 0.01 and 0.05). Moreover, the estimated coefficients in all three equations were found to be very small and negatively associated with human trafficking. The results also show that the variable institution is statistically very significant (p-value = 0.01), with an estimated coefficient of 0.219 and 0.188 in model 4 and model 5 respectively. Thus, one can reject the null hypothesis that institutions have no effect on slave trade.

Similar to the result obtained in Table 1, the dummy variable 'continent' in Model 5 shows that the slave trade difference between Africa and Europe has a coefficient of -17.813 and p-value = 0.01, *ceteris paribus*. Similarly, the slave trade difference between America and Europe indicates a coefficient of -11.932; p-value = 0.01. Slave trade difference between Asia and Europe shows a coefficient of -13.358; p-value = 0.05, while the one between Oceania and Europe shows a coefficient of -14.868; p-value =0.01, *ceteris paribus*.

Table 2: Check for Robustness of Results

	eq4	eq5	eq6
Slave trade	-0,000** 4.29e-06	-8.21e-06*** 2.47e-06	-5.98e-06** 2.30e-06
Mean index of ruggedness (in 100m above)"		-0,085 (0,698)	-1,118 (0,698)
Agricultural transition		-0,000 (0,000)	-0,001 (0,000)
Institutions		0,219*** (0,041)	0,188*** (0,039)
GDP per capita		-0,036* (0,020)	-0,029 (0,018)
Africa			-17,813*** (5,910)
Americas			-11,932** (5,747)
Asia			-13,358**

			(5,424)
Europa			(dropped)
Oceania			-14,868**
			(7,388)
_cons	26,960***	14,783***	33,185***
	(1,246)	(2,586)	(6,591)
Number of observations	140	61	61
R2	0,039	0,469	0,580

note: .01 - ***; .05 - **; .1 - *;

4. Discussion of Results

As portrayed in the results section (Table 1 and Table 2), slave trade is a significant variable, very low in magnitude, and found to have a strong relationship with human trafficking. For instance, in Table 2, this indicates that the increase number of slave trade has slightly augmented human trafficking by $8.21e-06$ and $5.98e-06$ in models 5 and 6 respectively. The magnitude of these coefficients are considerably very small which can imply that the impact of slave trade on human trafficking is of concern. The inverse relationship observed between human trafficking and slave trade refers to the idea that although continents such as America, Asia, Oceania and Europe experienced slave trade, the level human trafficking in these continents is relatively low.

However, this is not the case for the African continent where a considerable number of people were sold to colonial territory as ‘free labour’, yet high levels of human trafficking continue to appear especially in the sub-Saharan Africa region and in the northern part of Africa. One could justify this high ratio of human trafficking happening as a result of problems such as poverty (Asongu & Nwachukwu, 2016a), severe violence (Asongu & Nwachukwu, 2015; Asongu, 2015; Asongu & Kodila-Tedika, 2016), most developing countries in these regions have experienced in the past or continue to experience today.

Moreover, institutions over the years have played a significant role in reducing the effect of slave trade on human trafficking from one continent to another. Thus, countries with strong political and socioeconomic institutions in continents such as America, and Europe, have succeeded to maintain an index of human trafficking close to 100, which correspond to a lower level of human trafficking. Whereas, developing countries which are well-known for their poor political and socioeconomic institutions continue to experience high levels of

human trafficking. The impact of institutions on human trafficking is considerable and cannot be neglected. Thus, promoting countries' political and socioeconomic institutions can be regarded as a major determinant to alleviating human trafficking which has a significant relationship with slave trade.

5. Conclusion

Slave trade has evolved quite significantly from one continent to another over the past centuries. Its main effect on human trafficking is regarded as an illustration of resource curse in the African economies. In the USA framework, slave trade is linked to the concept of income inequality between black and white. The findings of the paper reveals that the effect of slave trade on human trafficking is statistically significant. Moreover, the estimated coefficients of slave trade were found to be very small and negatively associated with human trafficking.

From the results of the paper, one can deduce that developed countries which experienced slave trade have a low level of human trafficking, while developing countries (including most African countries that experienced slave trade) continue to record a high level of human trafficking. Additionally, the institutional variable was found to be very statistically significant, and essential to be politically and socioeconomically consolidated and encouraged in all continents in order to alleviate the level of human trafficking in various countries around the world. An important contribution of this paper is to establish a systematic approach of combatting human trafficking. This systematic approach not only strengthens legal texts in countries by implementing a stricter enforcement of trafficking laws and heavier punishment for individuals involved in trafficking, but more importantly this systematic approach provides people with results that positively impact on their political, socioeconomic and informal institutions.

References

- Akee, R., A. Basu, A. Bedi and N. Chau (2010a). Determinants of Trafficking in Women and Children: Cross-national evidence, Theory and Policy Implications. *Frontiers of Economics and Globalization*, Volume 8, Migration and Culture, by Ira Gang and Gil Epstein.
- Asongu, A. S. Kodila-Tedika, O. and 2015. Intelligence and Slave Export Intensity: A Cross-Country Empirical Assessment, Working Papers 15/029, African Governance and Development Institute.
- Asongu, S. A., 2015. A Good Turn Deserves Another: Political Stability, Corruption and Corruption-Control, *Economics Bulletin*, 35(4): 2037-2048.

- Asongu, S. A., and Kodila-Tedika, O., 2016. Fighting African Conflicts and Crimes: Which Governance Tools Matter? *International Journal of Social Economics*: Forthcoming.
- Asongu, S. A., and Nwachukwu, J. C., 2015. Revolution empirics: predicting the Arab Spring, *Empirical Economics*. <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs00181-015-1013-0>
- Asongu, S. A., and Nwachukwu, J. C., 2016. Foreign aid and inclusive development: updated evidence from Africa, 2005-2012, *Social Science Quarterly*: Forthcoming.
- Avdan, N. (2012), Human trafficking and migration control policy: vicious or virtuous cycle? *Journal of Public Policy* 32: 171-205.
- Bertocchi, G. and Dimico, A. 2012, The Racial Gap in Education and the Legacy of Slavery, *Journal of Comparative Economics* 40, 581-595
- Bertocchi, G. and Dimico, A., 2014, Slavery, Education, and Inequality, *European Economic Review* 70, 197-209.
- Bertocchi, G., 2015. The Legacies of Slavery in and out of Africa, IZA Discussion Papers 9105, Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA).
- Davis DR and Weinstein DE. 2002. Bones, bombs, and breakpoints: the geography of economic activity. *American Economic Review* 92(5), 1269–89
- Davis DR and Weinstein DE., 2008. A Search for Multiple Equilibria in Urban Industrial Structure, *Journal of Regional Science*, 48(1), 29-65.
- Fisman, R. and Miguel, E. 2007. Corruption, Norms, and Legal Enforcement: Evidence from Diplomatic Parking Tickets, *Journal of Political Economy*, 115(6), 1020-1048.
- Guiso, L., Sapienza P. and Zingales, L. 2013. Long-term Persistence, EIEF Working Papers Series 1323, Einaudi Institute for Economics and Finance (EIEF).
- Hernandez, D. and Rudolph, A., 2015, Modern day slavery: What drives human trafficking in Europe? *European Journal of Political Economy*, 38, issue C, pages 118-139
- Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A., & Mastruzzi, M. (2010). The worldwide governance indicators: Methodology and analytical issues. Policy research working paper series 5430. The World Bank.
- Kodila-Tedika, O. (2011). Esclavagisme et colonisation : quelles conséquences en Afrique ? Résumé critique des travaux de l'économiste Nathan Nunn. *Revue Congolaise d'Économie*, 6(1), 41-61.
- Miguel, E. & Roland, G. 2011. The long-run impact of bombing Vietnam, *Journal of Development Economics*, 96(1), 1-15
- Miguel, E., Saiegh, S.M. and Satyanath, S. 2008. National Cultures and Soccer Violence, NBER Working Papers 13968, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc.
- Njoh, Amber J. AND Ayuk-Etang, E. (2012), Combating Forced Labour and Human Trafficking in Africa: The Role of Endogenous and Exogenous Forces, *African Review of Economics and Finance* 4, 1: 30-52.
- Nunn, N. (2008a), The Long-Term Effects of Africa's Slave Trades, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 123, No. 1, February, pp. 139-176.
- Nunn, N. (2013) Historical Development, in P. Aghion et S. Durlauf (éds.), *Handbook of Economic Growth, Volume 2*, North-Holland, Amsterdam, à paraître.
- Nunn, N., and Wantchekon, L. The Slave Trade and Origins of Mistrust in Africa,' *American Economic Review*, 101, no. 7 (2011), 3221–3252.
- Philippe, A. (2010), L'impact économique de l'esclavage dans les pays de l'ancienne Afrique Occidentale Française, *Mémoire de DEA*, Paris School of Economics.
- Potrafke, N. 2013, Human Anti-trafficking Policies: The Roles of Religion and Political Institutions, CESifo working paper No 4278.
- Putterman, L. 2008. Agriculture, Diffusion and Development: Ripple Effects of the Neolithic Revolution, *75(300)*, 729-748.
- Rudolph, A. and Schneider, F. (2013), International Human Trafficking: Measuring Clandestinity by the Structural Equation Approach, IZA DP No. 7867
- Tabellini, G. 2010. Culture and Institutions: Economic Development in the Regions of Europe, *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 8(4), 677-716, 06.

- Whatley, W. and Gillezeau, R (2011a), The Impact of the Transatlantic Slave Trade on Ethnic Stratification in Africa, *American Economic Review Papers and Proceedings*, pp.1-9.
- Whatley, W. and Gillezeau, R, (Forthcoming 2011b), The Fundamental Impact of the Slave Trade on African Economies, Rhode, P., Rosenbloom, J. et Weiman, D., *Economic Evolution and Revolution in Historical Time*, Stanford, Stanford University Press.
- Whatley, W. and Gillezeau, R. (2010), The Slave Trade and Ethnic Stratification in Africa, University of Michigan Working paper.

List of Countries

Albania ; Argentina ; Burundi ; Benin ; Burkina Faso ; Bangladesh ; Bolivia ; Brazil ; Botswana ; Central African Republic ; Chile ; China ; Cote d'Ivoire ; Cameroon ; Congo ; Colombia ; Costa Rica ; Dominican Republic ; Ecuador ; Egypt ; Ethiopia ; Georgia ; Ghana ; Guinea-Bissau ; Honduras ; Haiti ; Indonesia ; India ; Israel ; Jordan ; Japan ; Kenya ; Republic of Korea ; Sri Lanka ; Lesotho ; Morocco ; Madagascar ; Mexico ; Mali ; Mozambique ; Mauritania ; Malaysia ; Namibia ; Niger ; Nepal ; Pakistan ; Panama ; Peru ; Philippines ; Papua New Guinea ; Paraguay ; Rwanda ; Senegal ; Sierra Leone ; El Salvador ; Syria ; Chad ; Togo ; Thailand ; Tunisia ; Turkey ; United Republic of Tanzania ; Uganda ; Uruguay ; South Africa ; Zambia ; Zimbabwe