INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DRUG TRAFFICKING IN GHANA

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Rapheal Ewuntomah hereby declare that except for reference to other people’s work which have been duly acknowledged, this thesis is the result of my own research carried out at the Centre for Migration Studies, University of Ghana under the supervision of Dr Joseph Kofi Teye and Dr. Ebenezer Nikoi. I further assert that this work has neither been partially or wholly submitted at any other institutions for the award of my degree.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined international migration and drug trafficking in Ghana. It specifically described trends in reported drug trafficking cases in Ghana from 2009 to 2015 and the socio-demographic characteristics of the people involved. It also identified the specific vulnerabilities and the perceived socio-economic benefits that influence migrants to engage in drug trafficking. Lastly, it described policy interventions implemented to deal with drug trafficking in Ghana and the challenges associated with the control of drug trafficking in Ghana. Using security personnel from Narcotic Control Board (NACOB) and Ghana Police Service (GPS), simple random sampling technique was employed in sampling 230 respondents for the questionnaire survey. Key informant and personal interviews were also conducted with stakeholders and other Drug Enforcement Officers. The results indicate that 2011 recorded the highest drug trafficking cases in Ghana while 2013 recorded the lowest, drug trafficking cases in Ghana. Ghanaians and males were reported as the major drug traffickers relative to other nationals and females, respectively. The majority of security personnel sampled were of the view that drug traffickers are mostly the rich and literate relative to the poor and illiterate. Poverty, the need to get rich quick, unemployment and ignorance were cited as some of the main reasons why people engage in drug trafficking in Ghana. Even though Ghana has collaborated with the international community in ratifying relevant conventions and treaties which provide the impetus and capacity to combat drug trafficking in the country, it continues to serve as a drug transit country and of user country, given the porous nature of its land borders and ports. Inadequate financial motivations, lack of logistics, and Government/State interference are some of the major problems facing the law enforcement agencies in the discharge of their duties. The study recommends strengthening of law enforcement agencies in more selective points of entry which often serve as the gateway for drug traffickers via improved conditions of service and provision of advance logistics and equipment.
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents Mr and Mrs Martin Mbema Ewumontah and my whole Family for their support in pursuing this course.
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<tr>
<td>CEPS</td>
<td>Customs, Excise &amp; Preventive Services</td>
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<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
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<td>GPS</td>
<td>Ghana Police Service</td>
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<td>NACOB</td>
<td>Narcotics Control Board</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<td>UNODC</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

There has been an increase in drug trafficking worldwide (Akyeampong, 2005). For instance, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2008) estimated that, in the late nineties, drug business generated income of US$ 500 billion per year and almost doubled at the beginning of the 21st Century. The production, distribution and consumption of illicit drugs including cocaine, cannabis and heroine have attained increased international concern over the last couple of years (Ellis, 2009). Although drug trafficking comes with economic benefits, the gravity of the negative effects such as money laundering, human and state insecurities supersedes them (Mazzitelli, 2007).

Drug trafficking is defined as an illegitimate trade which involves cultivating, manufacturing, and distributing and selling substances, that are prohibited by law (World Drug Report (2010). Countries play different roles in the drug business. For instance countries such as Bolivia, Columbia and Peru produce cocaine in large quantities. On the other hand countries in south East Asia such as Afghanistan are known for the production of heroine (Akyeampong, 2005: Rawlings, 2014). Whereas most African states are noted for the production of cannabis, these drug are usually not consumed in the production countries (Ellis, 2009; Nayanka, 2012; Travis, 2012). They are usually trafficked to the United States and Europe for consumption. The means of getting the drug from the production point to the consumption areas that is distribution is the most crucial part. Many African countries serve as routes connecting these two stages in the drug trade and Ghana is one of such countries (UNODC, 2008; Max & Conor, 2013).
The war against drug trafficking is inextricably linked with migration. Mobility that is migration and travel are central to the drug trade (Akyeampong, 2005). Therefore, most immigrants from known production and transit countries are usually suspected of drug trafficking. The drug trade has therefore been detrimental to immigrants (Barkan, 2013). However, the conception that immigrants are drug smugglers is not altogether false. A study conducted on the border between Morocco and Spain showed that the majority of the smugglers arrested are into drug trade (Mouna, 2016). The media and law enforcement agencies in Europe routinely identify migrants particularly those who migrated recently, as the traders and traffickers of most illicit drugs consumed in Europe (Paoli & Reuter, 2008). Also statistics on the involvement of foreigners in drug trafficking in Europe shows an overrepresentation of migrants (Paoli & Reuter, 2008). For instance in Italy 37.1 percent of drug smugglers are immigrants yet, only 2.3 percent of the Italian population were migrants (Paoli & Reuter, 2008). Some of the migrants groups immensely involved in the drug trade in the United States include Mexicans, Columbians and the Chinese (Paoli & Reuter, 2008).

A study by the Center for Investigative Reporting on immigrants and drug trafficking found about 80 percent of drugs smuggled into the United States are done by American citizens. Therefore, the view that migrants are drug smugglers is misguided. The stereotyping of migrants does not only happen in destination countries. For instance in Columbia, a production country, people have negative perception about recent immigrants (Barkan, 2013). Also in production and transit countries, migrants who are successful are often assumed to be engaging in drug trafficking (Barkan, 2013). In addition, most statistic show that people arrested for drug offences in Europe and the United states are usually migrants or the ethnic minority, this cannot be considered to represent reality because there is an extent of selective enforcement in these countries (Paoli & Reuter, 2008).
With regard to African migrants, they play a considerable role in shipping of drugs such as cocaine, heroin and especially cannabis into Europe and the United States (Europol, 2005). This is because most African countries have corrupt governments, ineffective institutions and low wages therefore to buy protection for drug transactions (K Aning, 2007; Paoli & Reuter, 2008). Also it is cheaper to get couriers in most African countries (Paoli & Reuter, 2008). It is worth noting that West Africans particularly Nigerians dominate drug trafficking in Africa (Elochukwu, 2016; Paoli & Reuter, 2008). West Africa presents ideal geographic choice and a vulnerable political environment (Kwesi Aning & Pokoo, 2014). Mr. Yury Fedotov, the Executive Director of UNODC in 2012 mentioned that about 30 tons of cocaine and 400 kg of heroin were trafficked West Africa in 2011 (Kwesi Aning & Pokoo, 2014). Therefore, he expressed concern about the increasing rate of drugs and crime in the region. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) also noted that “…drug trafficking is an enemy of the state and the rule of law, existing as a parallel power that rivals the legal system and we are compelled to fight it” (United Nation Security Council, 2012). Recent seizures and arrests in the sub region has shown that the drug network is facilitated by government officials, businessmen, clergymen, members of the security forces and politicians (Aning & Pokoo, 2014). Additionally, social conditions such as political patronage, porous borders, poverty, corruption, ethnic identities and weak institutions have enhanced the operation of traffickers in the sub region (Lacher, 2012).

Though often touted for its peaceful environment, security and good economic growth, Ghana is one of the countries that have become victims of the drug menace. It is generally believed that Ghanaians were initially introduced into the drug trade by Nigerian syndicates (Bernstein, 1999; Akyeampong, 2005). The country which became part of the drug trade in the 1980s now takes part in all three stages of the drug trade that is consumption, production and distribution. The country has become the transit route for
drugs destined for America and Europe from Latin America and Southeast Asia (Bernstein, 1999; Akyeampong, 2005). The high unemployment rate and poverty make the country vulnerable to the drug trade (Bonsu, 2011). Also the amount paid to couriers represents a fortune in Ghana, thus making the drug business attractive to most Ghanaians.

In this regard, government has adopted several policies and interventions to combat this menace. The four main institutions fighting drug trafficking in Ghana include the Narcotics Control Board (NACOB), Ghana Police Service (GPS), Customs Excise and Preventive Service (CEPS) and the Judiciary. However, there are other institutions such as the Ghana Immigration Services and Military who also assist in this fight. Bernstein (1999) in his article asserted that the trafficking of illicit drugs such as cocaine, heroin and marijuana is the most of non-traditional exports and re-exports. The government of Ghana for example, seized 182 tons of cannabis in 2003 whereas only 30 tons were seized in 2001 and 2002 from migrants travelling from the Kotoka International Airport. Although the efforts of these institutions has led to several arrests and seizures, there are still some loopholes in these institutions that hinder their performance. For instance Mr. K.B Quantson, a former NACOB head stated that “‘in between the arrest and trial, tremendous pressure was exerted on me from all over to drop the case against the suspect, I stood firm that the case should proceed’” (Aning, 2007). In view of this, drug trafficking continues to be an expanding business in Ghana.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

As in many parts of the world, drug trafficking situation in Africa has also increased dramatically over the years. A report by United Nations (2009) showed that several countries in Africa had registered a number of drug trafficking incidences. The exposure of children and adults to dangerous substances such as cocaine, heroin, marijuana and
others may lead to breakdown of social and cultural values besides the health costs and fatal incidents associated with their use (Mulenga, 1998; Etaghene, 2010). The negative outcome of drug trafficking on the individual may include psychological effects, stigma from society and the family, and health risks, which sometimes end into death. Apart from the danger of drug trafficking and its effects on the society, government, civil society organizations (CSOs), church organization, faith based organizations (FBOs), institutions or agencies responsible for curbing drug trafficking and many other interested parties have expressed their concern over the growing number of women folk being used or involved in drug trafficking.

In this regard, drug trafficking has gained international concern over the years. However, it became more prominent in Ghana in the 1990’s and has increased since then. Ghana has over the years been used as a transit for drugs such as heroin and cocaine and the production of Indian hemp. Although this problem is not new in the country, it became an issue of concern especially in the year 2000 because it has increased considerably.

In view of this, the Ghanaian government has made relentless efforts towards in curtailing the drug menace in the country. This necessitated the establishment of NACOB under the Narcotic Drugs (Control, Enforcement and Sanctions), Law 1990/PNDC Law 236 and with the mandate of combating the drug trade in conjunction with other security agencies such as CEPS, Ghana Police Service (GPS), the military and other enforcement agencies. However, the drug menace is far from over. In spite of the high sentences of 10 to 15 years, traffickers are not deterred from using the country as a transit point from swallowing pellets of drugs to hiding them in luggage. It is worth noting that the drug trade has currently not had any impact on the country as most South American countries, but given the rate of its upsurge, it could disrupt the countries stability if measures are not taken.
Also migration and travel are central to drug trafficking (Akyeampong, 2005). Therefore, the drug trade cannot be discussed without looking at migration. Migration is very crucial in the drug trade because it helps to build the network between production countries and consumption countries. Also policies on migration affect the flow of drug from the points of production, transit and consumption.

Even though there is much literature on drug trafficking in Ghana, most of these reports and studies focused on prevalence of drug trafficking, the historical background and modus operandi of drug trafficking. There are, however, very little studies examining the specific vulnerabilities that expose migrants to be involved in drug trafficking and the perceived socio-economic benefits motivating migrants to engage in drug trafficking. In addition, there is very little studies that examine the various challenges confronting drug enforcement agencies in carrying out their duties. It is against this backdrop that this study examines international migration and drug trafficking in Ghana, by examining drug trafficking trends, perceived vulnerabilities and socio-economic benefits of engaging in drug trafficking and challenges that confront drug enforcement agencies in the country.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to explore the factors that influence migrants’ involvement in drug trafficking in Ghana.

The specific objectives were to:

1. To describe the trends in drug trafficking cases in Ghana from 2009 to 2015 and examine the socio-demographic characteristics of the people involved.

2. To identify the specific vulnerabilities that expose migrants to be involved or engaged in drug trafficking.
3. To examine perceived socio-economic benefits motivating migrants to engage in drug trafficking.
4. To describe policy interventions implemented to deal with drug trafficking in Ghana and examine perceived challenges associated with controlling drug trafficking in Ghana.

1.4 Research Questions

The study seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the specific vulnerabilities that expose migrants to be involved or engaged in drug trafficking in Ghana?
2. What socio-economic factors motivate migrants to be involved or engaged in drug trafficking?
3. What demographic factors are associated with individuals involved in drug trafficking?
4. What are the various challenges that confront law enforcement agencies in combating drug trafficking in Ghana?

1.5 Rationale of the Study

Organizations such as NACOB, CEPS and GPS that are tasked to address the problem of involvement in drug trafficking in Ghana seem to lack information and institutional capacity to identify and address this problem. This study is therefore important because it will highlight the main factors that lead migrants to get involved in drug trafficking. It is envisaged that the findings of the study will provide policy direction to government and help organizations that help migrants to find alternative ways of earning an honest income.
Further such information would assist those country in adopting policies and laws that will prevent migrants from getting involved in drug trafficking.

1.6 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter One comprises the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, and significance of the study. Chapter Two presents a review of literature related to the study and the theoretical perspectives that are used to guide the study. Chapter Three presents the methodology of the study which comprises the research design, the profile of nursing colleges under review as well as the methods for data collection and analysis. Chapter Four and Five present and discuss the findings of the study. They present the socio-demographic distribution of the respondents, among others. Chapter Six presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the review of related literature. The essence is to identify the gap that exist in the literature and provide a conceptual framework to understand the relationships that exist among the key variables of the study.

2.2 Definition of Drug Trafficking
The World Drug Report (2010) defines Drug trafficking as a global illicit trade involving the cultivation, manufacture, distribution and sale of substances, which are subject to drug prohibition laws. According to Desroches (2007) drug trafficking is the production or movement of illicit drugs whether at international or intra-national level, the city level, or direct selling to users or another individual within the drug chain. Therefore, in contrast with general belief, drug trafficking is not limited to the distribution of drug but includes the production of these drug.

However, over the years it has been difficult for scholars to penetrate the world of drug trafficking, thus the understanding of drug trafficking has been based on street-level dealers and records of cases from law enforcement agencies. Thus studies always focus on lower-level dealers who sell directly to users (Desroches, 2005). One of such researchers found that there were four main organizational types among traffickers. They include: Communal businesses; family businesses; corporations; and freelance (Natarajan, n.d.). According to Natarajan (n.d.)most traffickers have parallel legitimate businesses alongside this illicit trade. Similarly, Desroches (2005) also found that the structure in the drug
business begins with wholesalers who supply to the pushers or street level dealers and then users.

2.3 Global Trends of Drug Trafficking

The drug trafficking problem can be viewed from two perspectives, the addictive nature of all these drugs and the fact that they are low in volume but have very high unit prices. In view of this, drug trade has become a global problem due to the estimated turnovers. However due to its complex and clandestine nature it is very difficult to have consistent estimates of their operations and turnovers. There are three ways through which countries participate in the drug trade, they include production, trans-shipment and consumption (Singer, 2008). Latin American countries act as producers; West African countries as transits; and the United States and Europe are the consumption areas (Akyeampong, 2005; Davis, 2013). However, some of these areas play multiple roles in the drug trade.

There is no universally accepted figures for the production of illicit drugs due to the nature of the trade. However, there has been several assumptions on this issue. However, the trend and magnitude are clear. Assessments based on these assumptions show that the production of Coca and Cannabis rose significantly during the 1980’s but has become stagnant since the 1990’s. Production of Opium on the other hand is still rising. The production of illicit drugs are usually concentrated in certain regions but frequently shifts to other places. Southern and Western Africa now produces most of the world cannabis, with Ghana, Mozambique, Ethiopia and Nigeria as the major producers (Akyeampong, 2005). Most of the world’s heroine are from countries of the Golden Triangle (Thailand, Burma, and Laos), Golden Crescent (Afghanistan, Iran, and Pakistan), Lebanon and Mexico. The production of Coca on the other hand is concentrated in three main Latin American countries i.e. Bolivia, Colombia and Peru.
The most critical and lucrative stage in dealing with illicit drugs is trafficking or transiting of the drugs. With regards to cocaine there are two main trafficking routes. The first is from the South America through Central America to the United States and the alternative is from the South America (Argentina and Brazil) through Africa to Europe (Akyeampong, 2005). Heroine is also trafficked to North America from South East Asia through Africa, China, Malaysia and Thailand (Akyeampong, 2005). The alternate route to Europe is through Pakistan, Iran, Turkey and the Balkan route.

The main destinations of these drugs are the United States and Europe. However recent studies have shown that there are spillages along trafficking routes. Consumption has risen in most trafficking countries. However, the largest single consumer of illicit drugs is the United States. Australia and Brazil are also noted for the use of illicit drugs but mostly they consume cannabis.

2.3.1 Trends in Africa

Comparatively, drug trafficking in Africa is a fairly new phenomenon. There is evidence to suggest that within West and Central Africa sub regions, there are global seizures of non-specified amount of amphetamines. These regions became prominent in the drug trade due to the weak security systems, poverty among majority of the populace, poor governance and weak government institutions (Kwesi Aning & Pokoo, 2014). The region remained a key area in terms in respect of curbing the drug problem, beginning with a better comprehension of the nature of drugs peddled in the drug market. According to World Drug Report (2010), between 2004 and 2007, at least two distinct trans-shipment hubs emerged in West Africa: one centered on Guinea-Bissau and Guinea, and the other centered in the Bight of Benin, which spans from Ghana to Nigeria. The Colombian traffickers transported cocaine by 'mother ship' to the West African coast before off-
loading to smaller vessels. Some of this cocaine proceeded onward by sea to Spain and Portugal, but some was left as payment to West Africans for their assistance (World Drug Report, 2010). The drugs mostly cocaine are sent on to the destination countries mostly via commercial air couriers. Shipments were also sent in modified small aircraft from the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela to various West African destinations (World Drug Report, 2010).

World Drug Report (2010) stated that South Africa, Malawi and Zambia of Southern African region is also a major producer of the "soft" drug marijuana. The government of Zambia, for example, seized 182 tons of Cannabis in 2003 whereas only 30 tons were seized in 2001 and 2002 (DEC, 2005). The World Drug Report by United Nations (2004) estimated that during the period 2001 and 2003, 185 million people, equivalent of 3 percent of the global population or 4.7 percent of the population aged 15 to 64 were using drugs. These estimates indicate that cannabis was the most widely used substance close to 150 million. South Africa has also been home to a strong indigenous trade in Mandrax - manufactured in tablet form in the Durban area or shipped to Maputo, Mozambique for manufacture. Tanzania (Dar es Salaam) and Mozambique (Beira) are the most prominent entrance routes for traffickers from the Middle East and Southeast Asia. Investigations have also revealed that drug syndicates that are based in Nigeria ship large loads of cocaine to South and Southern Africa. Drug seizures over the past few years seem to indicate that drug trafficking was on the increase. This has led to the U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration providing training for law and order officials in Zambia, Tanzania and South Africa, and has even opened an office in Johannesburg.

Although literature shows that most African countries are patronized by traffickers, African governments are known to have done very little in the fight against drug trafficking. In some instances those at the helm of affairs are named as abettors and they
use state resources as well as their positions for their own benefits (Akyeampong, 2005; Bonsu, 2011). Also arrest made beyond the bother of most African countries especially West Africa suggests that the security in the region is not effective. A study by Aning (2007) showed that the about a third of traffickers arrested in Germany and Switzerland are from West Africa. These weaknesses in security can be associated with the interest of these consumer countries in policies that serve their benefits than that of the transit countries. Also the government in African countries believe that these drugs are just passing through their territories thus may not have significant impacts on their countries. However, as a transit region the West African sub-region has begun to experience the side effects of drug trafficking. There has been an increase in the consumption of cocaine and heroin in addition to the locally produce cannabis which was not the case hitherto.

2.4 Factors Influencing Migrants’ Participation in Drug Trafficking

2.4.1 Economic

Several factors account for the susceptibility of a country to drug trafficking. According to Bybee (2011) the main factors that make countries susceptible to drug trafficking are the legitimacy of the state, societal acceptance of drug trafficking, pre-existing conflicts and opportunities in the active national economy. Also, a study conducted by Hartlyn (1993) showed that drug trafficking proliferated in 1980s due to the economic benefits they provided. For instance in Columbia drug cartels took over because they provided economic growth and employment (McLean, 2002; Thoumi, 2005). Also, individuals within the supply chain of the drug trade rely on it as their source of livelihood

Another factor influencing drug trafficking is that starting a criminal business is generally easier since less investment is needed (Akerstrom, 1985). Since the emergence of the crack markets in the 1980s, there has been extant research on drug selling (Levitt and
Venkatesh, 2000; MacCoun and Reuter, 1992) and more recently female involvement in drug sale activity (Anderson, 2005; Jacobs and Miller, 1998). According to the report by the UNODC (2007), drug trafficking is one of the highly profit oriented enterprises relative to the other forms of trade, and thus serves as an attractive venture for most criminals in OCGs (UNODC, 2007). For example, UNODC report valued the world narcotics trade US$320 billion (UNODC, 2005). Some studies also gave similar estimation at approximately $20-25 billion per annum (Reuter & Greenfield, 2001). One interesting finding of Reuter and Greenfield (2001) suggest that the quality of the drugs and the price have an inverse relationship as it moves down the supply chain. The value of the drugs tends to appreciate as it moves from the source to supply whiles the quality of the drugs tends to adulterated as it moves from its source. Although these gross differences exist, one can clearly argue without any equivocation that the profits accrued from the drug trade mostly motivates people in OCGs.

However, it is worth noting that these economic benefits are superseded by the health and financial burden drug trafficking puts on society. Bulk of the revenue generated from the drug trade remain in consumer countries because traffickers usually launder the money back by purchasing other products in consumer countries (akyeampong, 2005).

2.4.2 Demographic
According to Punch 2008, females are gaining grounds as key contenders in the drug trafficking business in Nigeria relative to males. Similar to the case of drug trafficking in Nigeria, there are some evidence to show that women were also exploited in the human trafficking business. For example, between the 1980 and 2008, Nigerian women have played key roles during the emergence of human and international hard drugs trafficking due to economic crises. The lack of stability in the economic and social conditions in the
country were largely attributed as the causes of these menace (Tribune, 2005). In the trafficking of drugs to the international markets, women were mostly used in the trafficking of these drugs. For example, Champion (2004) in his study pointed out that, as part of the network involved in the drug business, a former Minister of Communications in Nigeria aided the drug dealers to specialize in using oil drums to transport hard drugs across Nigeria’s borders. Some females were used for this purpose. In order to conceal their identity, they disguised themselves as traders but were actually engaged in the trafficking of these drugs.

Moreover, in one of the patrols on the Nigeria-Benin border, the Narcotic operatives of the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA) a vehicle with mostly women on board had scraps of drugs neatly wrapped in cellophane bags and concealed in the tin so foil (Champion, 2004). On interrogating the suspects, it became known that they were not aware of the drugs concealed in the tins of oil. They role in the whole trade was to deliver the products to a buyer in Cotonou, and also receive payment for the foil (Champion, 2004). From the example given, one would agree that the intricate nature of the drug trade makes it difficult to curb the menace. In some instances, the people mandated to control the drug trade are found either engaging in the act or assisting drug dealers in the trafficking of these drugs. Specific reference can be made of the retired military and police personnel who were engaged in the drug business in Nigeria. In such circumstances, the drug business thrives, especially when the services of innocent villagers, especially market men and women who are willing to enter into trading partnership with these barons but quite ignorant of the fact that they are being used as carriers are used (Champion, 2004).

A Nigerian woman was arrested in June 1999 by NDLEA for attempting to export 660 grams of cocaine (New Nigerian, 1999). According to the report, she was apprehended at the baggage section of the departure wing of the border post after successfully clearing
other security checks to cross into the Republic of Benin. The drug she was exporting were concealed in 102 wraps of black polyethylene bag under the suspect’s armpits as she made her way through the baggage section (New Nigerian, 1999). When she was interrogated, she revealed that the bag contained foreign currencies given to her by a childhood friend from Bangkok. In such circumstances, the girl was used as a courier in trafficking the drugs (New Nigerian, 1999). In addition, one can refer to the case of the thirteen drug suspects, including a 51-year old woman and two Togolese who were apprehended by the NDLEA at the Murtala Mohammed International Airport, Ikejain Lagos in November 2003. It was later revealed that they had in their possession 11,480kg of cocaine and 4,710kg of heroin.

Crusader (2007) argues that more and more women, including a growing number of college students, are venturing into drug peddling. Some are in search of quick money to augment their lavish lifestyle while some have simply taken over the trade from their men. Further, according to statistics with Delhi Police in India, 97 women drug traffickers were arrested in the national capital in 2006 as compared to 84 the year before. In 2004, 54 women were caught for the same crime. The figures indicated a sharp increase of over 50 percent in the past two years. Over 30 women drug, traffickers had been arrested that year. When examining women’s participation in the cocaine economy in New York City in the late 1980s, Fagan (1994) offers two factors as relevant to understanding women’s participation in the drug trade specifically. First, Fagan explains that beginning in the 1970s economic forces led to higher poverty concentration among women, which had an adverse effect on their economic status and families. Second, changes in the street drug markets occurred with the emergence of crack cocaine, producing new avenues and opportunities for women’s involvement in drug selling and distribution markets, that is, while drug selling was a male dominated activity, the emergence of crack markets
afforded women greater opportunities to participate in the drug trade, albeit at low income levels compared to male counterparts.

Furthermore, women’s increased use of drugs created a reliance on illegal incomes to support their drug use during times of shrinking labour markets and rising unemployment levels (Fagan, 1994). Women’s role in drug trafficking is commonly thought as being of subordinate nature although certain researchers propose that some of their female type characteristics actually facilitate their role as drug dealers. Finally, motivation to enter the drug scene is partially explained using Merton’s differential opportunity theory while social learning theory offers a hypothesis in explaining the motivation to continue.

A meticulous inspection and gleaning of data from the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA-Nigeria) revealed an interesting finding by Ekerette (2009). The study portends that age and sex were major determinants in respect to the failure success of the trafficking business in the late twentieth century and early twenty-first century (Ekerette, 2009). Given the socio-biological nature of women, they could easily be exploited by trafficking networks in the trafficking of hard drugs from one place to another. For example, Swanstrom was of the view that drug barons often recruited women who were willing to use any part of their body for trafficking purposes (Swanstrom, 2007, p.13; Nigerian Tribune, 2005, p.10). Women’s role in then narcotics trade was also directly connected to psychological issues related to sex exploitation.

There are other modes of concealment and trafficking of drugs aside the well-known modes of swallowing or concealment in containers. Recent evidence and reported cases shows that drug couriers (traffickers) sometimes used their shoes and other accessories to transport these drugs across international borders. With the consent and active role of the shoe manufacturers in this ploy, the shoes are made in such a way to enable the substance
to be concealed in them without any detection. In some bizarre circumstances, insulated soles are used which was very effective in rendering the drugs hidden in them undetectable by the electronic searching devices. Champion (2000) concluded that because women mostly fancied fashionable shoes, they became easy targets for the testing of various trafficking methods and strategies (Champion, 2000).

2.4.3 Social and cultural factors

Different sociological theories are available to partially explain motivations to traffic drugs (Williams and McShane, 1993, p. 94). His proposition of innovation as a mode of adaptation to anomie is applicable to drug selling. Using this concept, an individual still wants to achieve goals but would reject the normal means for achieving these goals in favour of a deviant means (drug selling). Furthermore, Merton (1968) offers a similar and related theory, differential opportunity theory, which hinges on the fact that individuals have differentials in access to legitimate and illegitimate avenues to achieving their goals (Williams and McShane, 1993, p. 133). Lastly, many individuals explain their entry into the drug world as an opportunity created through business connections (Desroches, 2001). The motivation to continue selling drugs is again due to various factors. Among the reasons previously stated in describing drug trafficking recidivism, arrests of major dealers occur relatively infrequent and are the result of longwinded and sophisticated investigations by the police (Desroches, 2001).

In terms of sociological theories, social learning theory suggests that pleasurable experiences in drug dealing activities make repeating these behaviours more likely. Through operant conditioning, the good social feelings, such as acceptance within their social circle and status achieved in dealing drugs serve as positive reinforces to continue the drug selling habit. Despite its illicit nature, drug trafficking remains a very profitable
practice in the eyes of many. Drug trafficking is a complex crime (especially at the international smuggling level) requiring much thought, planning, organization, and social connectedness.

According to the UN (2003) drug trafficking is a major international problem and argues that no country however remote and robust its democracy was immune to the adverse consequences of abuse and trafficking. Among the reasons cited for this acceleration in drug trafficking were improved transport and communications, which make it easy for drug traffickers to transport the drugs and transact via electronic machines. This accelerated trade was seen to have contributed to an estimated $400 billion per year illicit drug trade by the year 2003 (UNDCP, 2004).

2.5 Negative Effects of Drug Trafficking on Development

As mentioned already most people enter into the drug trade because of the perceive benefits they stand to gain. However, the negative consequences of the drug trade supersede these benefits. There have been several studies to identify these adverse effects or cost of the drug trade to individual, society and the nation. The drug problem negatively impacts all aspects of development including economy, society and environment.

Economically, although the drug trade generates several million dollars in revenue annually, it is detrimental to development (Miron, 2010). For instance a study in Australia found that the estimated cost of use and trade of illicit drugs is about 4.8 percent of the country’s GDP (Collins & Lapsley, 1996). This cost was due to the loss of productivity, drug related mortality and cost of the law enforcement. There is a correlation between unemployment and drug use. In addition the abuse of drugs happen more among people within the 15-25 age group (Mott, 1995). This include people in or about to enter into the
work force. Therefore, one can conclude that drug lead to unemployment as well as loss of productivity. In addition, due to illicit drugs the poorest portion of the population spend most of their income on drug consumption, hence they become poorer. Again, investment in the economy is jeopardized because income that could be invested into health or education is now being used to fight the drug trade.

There is extensive literature on the social impacts of drug use on several aspects of our daily lives. The negative impact of drug use on health is fairly obvious (Cercone, 1994). It has also been scientifically proven and documented. Although education is often seen as the best way to discourage people from drug use, the use of drug adversely affects the education sector. Children who abuse drug have short-term memories hence very often drop out of school. Again, families which serve as support systems for people who deal in drugs sometimes are the reasons why people trade and use drugs in the first place. The environment is also damaged due to the cultivation of illicit drugs.

2.6 Ghana’s Role in Drug Trafficking

Ghana was not part of the drug trade until recently (Bonsu, 2011). Akyeampong (2005) asserts that up until the 1980’s few Ghanaians knew about drugs such as Heroin and Cocaine. However, the situation changed entirely during the 1990’s. During this period Ghana recorded about 1,744 illegal narcotic deals. This changes were due to a number of factors. Firstly, this can be explained by the extension of Nigeria smuggling networks to Ghana. This was because during this period it was difficult to smuggle drugs from production countries such as South America and Asia, thus they used African routes. However, in the 1980s the Nigerian government began to execute traffickers thus the Nigerians turned to Ghana. Also during this period Nigeria became notorious internationally for drug trafficking. Secondly, the Ghanaian economy went into recession.
during this period. Therefore, most Ghanaians went into the drug trade for the economic benefits. In addition, the economic decline may have accounted for the cultivation of cannabis in parts of West Africa including Ghana. But during this period Ghanaians were just couriers for the Nigerian syndicates. However, an investigation launched by the Ghanaian government in 1997 showed that about 80% of Ghanaians in foreign jails for trafficking were actually Nigerians with Ghanaian passports. Since this period, Ghana has become an important transit route for cocaine from South America and Heroin from Southeast Asia destined for Europe. Therefore, the drug menace has gained footing in Ghana for several reasons.

Furthermore, in the quest for investment the country’s economy has been ‘over’ liberalised to allow anyone with anything to enter for business. Therefore, people people hide under the guise of legitimate businesses to trade drugs. For instance, in 2005 two Venezuelans cocaine dealers were arrested at East Legon were operation under the guise of gold dealership. Also there are many Banks operating in Ghana, therefore drug traffickers are able to hide the large sums of money accrued from this trade. Also, it is easier for one to connect from Accra the capital of Ghana to various destinations around the world. Within a few hours one can connect from the Kotoka International airport to UK, Germany, USA, Canada, Netherlands and other. Therefore, this make transiting a bit easier and the journey is short. Additionally, the high rate of unemployment and poverty in Ghana makes drug trafficking very attractive to most Ghanaians. Thus making them willing couriers. Most of the drug dealers in Ghana view drug dealership as a source of income rather than a crime. In effect, Ghana has become part of the drug business in various ways. For instance, an interview with the Director of the Accra Psychiatric hospital showed that users of illicit drugs are increasing in Ghana, because about 80 per cent of the cases reported in the
hospital are drug related. Currently, it will be convenient to note that Ghana is playing three different roles in the drug business. They include

- Production of cannabis
- Transiting of cannabis, heroin and cocaine
- Consumption of heroin, cannabis and cocaine

### 2.7 Interventions to Tackle Drug Trafficking

Fighting the drug trade is an international agenda. A single state would not be able to eradicate it completely. It is therefore imperative for countries to collaborate in tackling this menace. Also states should on their own put in mechanisms to help in the fight against the drug trade.

On the international scale the United Nations has had three conventions to address the issue of drug trafficking. The first was the 1961 convention on Narcotic drugs. The main objective of this convention was to merge existing multilateral treaties in the fight against drug trafficking; streamline the control of drug trafficking and extend control system to include the cultivation of these drugs. The second was the 1971 convention on Psychotropic substances. This convention extended control to include hallucinogens, stimulants and sedatives. The third convention and the only one that address the issue of illicit trafficking was the 1988 convention against illicit traffic in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances. The 1988 convention dealt with the problem of international trafficking and also included money laundering.

In October 2008, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), supported by UNODC and the United Nations Office for West Africa (UNOWA), and in partnership with the European Union, held a Ministerial Conference in Praia, Cape Verde,
to address the serious security threat posed by drug trafficking in the region. The Political Declaration and Regional Action Plan that resulted from this conference were subsequently endorsed by the Heads of State and Government of ECOWAS in Abuja on 19 December 2008. The Praia Declarations reflect a strong political commitment and established the basis for a detailed cooperation framework to combat drug trafficking and organized crime in West Africa. UNODC was entrusted with leading the process of translating the Political Declaration and Regional Action Plan into concrete programmes to be carried out by ECOWAS Member States in partnership with UNOWA, the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), the International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL), and the European Union. An ECOWAS Operational Plan and a Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism were formulated, specifying the operational role of the ECOWAS Commission in supporting Member States in the implementation of the Regional Action Plan. UNODC uses its comparative advantage to ensure a cross-border and integrated approach in the fight against illicit drug trafficking and organized crime, including the global threat posed by the transatlantic trafficking route (World Drug Report, 2010). Recognizing the difficulty of managing vast African blue and green borders, UNODC had set the objectives to promote proactive policing by developing an intelligence-based approach to law enforcement and to improve inter-agency coordination with a view to disrupt the activities of organized crime groups behind drug trafficking.

Within the framework of South-South cooperation, UNODC in partnership with Brazil supported Guinea Bissau in different initiatives under the framework of the implementation of the National Operational Plan to combat drugs and crime (World Drug Report, 2010). Guinea Bissau had been suffering from its territory being used by drug smugglers and posing a major impact on its security and stability. One of the important projects being implemented with the support of Brazil was the establishment of a Training
Centre for Security Forces, aiming at law enforcement capacity building. The immediate objective was to serve the national needs and improve security forces capacities to counter narcotics and organized crime with a long-term aim for the Training Centre to become a Regional Training Academy for Portuguese speaking countries in Africa.

In Ghana, the main institution tasked with the fight against drug trafficking is NACOB. NACOB works with other security agencies such as include CEPS, the Judiciary, Ghana Police Service (the Narcotics Unit) and the immigration service. In addition to this Ghana is signatory to international conventions such as the ”1961 Single Convention; 1972 Protocol Amending the Single Convention; 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances; 1988 Convention Against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances” (Bernstein, 1999). These institutions have been able to attain successes in spite of the challenges they face.

2.8 Challenges Associated with Combating Drug Trafficking in Ghana

The international community is beginning to grasp the anonymity of the drug problem in Africa. Also governments have made significant effort to curb this menace. In some cases, there are bilateral and multilateral assistance to stop drug trafficking. However due to the scarcity of resources, intertwining of drug trafficking and politics, and the intercontinental nature of drug trafficking these efforts have been futile (Cockayne & Williams, 2009).

Due to the scarcity of resources for combating drug trafficking, there has been attention on strategy based methods to fight drug trafficking. In an effort to fight drug trafficking most governments in the West African sub region concentrate on legislation and legal frameworks. Mazzitelli (2007) posits that this method has yielded little or no results. This could be attributed to lack of coordination between law enforcement agencies (Cockayne
& Williams, 2009). At the national level, law enforcement agencies fail to share intelligence to maximize their efforts.

Also there is the need for the political will to fight drug trafficking at the international level as well as national level. In most West African countries there is less coordination in strategic plans between counties. Thus change in the political party in government means a change in strategy. Also, political leaders often interfere in the work of government agencies. In a study conducted by Aning (2007) NACOB staffs complained of the interference of some political leaders in their work. There is the need to create awareness and engage political leaders as well as social elites. In addition, there is hardly a collaboration between international bodies such as UN, EU. Or ECOWAS (Cockayne & Williams, 2009). In addition, corruption in law enforcement is very common in West Africa. Therefore Traffickers are able to easily buy the protection for their transactions. Also some members of the law enforcement agencies are involved in the drug trade themselves (Bonsu, 2011).

2.9 Theoretical Underpinnings

2.9.1 Network Theory

There is evidence to show that most of the criminal trade activities takes place within the network structures. Sutherland’s study (1937) on expert thieves establish that criminals interact with each other through informal, inter-personal networks grounded in shared norms, common language and knowledge. Sutherland (1937) further stated that networks are organized in the sense that “it is a system in which informal unity and reciprocity may be found.” These characteristics are not exclusive to criminal networks but are common across all types of networks. From the 1950s, the study of social networks arose in response to growing displeasure with the use of structural-functional analysis as a
framework for studying multifaceted societies (Boissevain and Mitchell 1973; Mitchell, 1973). Structural-functional analysis views societies as static and social change is perceived as dysfunctional (Boissevain and Mitchell 1973). Furthermore, social organization is described in terms of the economic, social and political institutions, rather than the fluid interactions which take place between individuals and groups (Barnes, 1954; Noble, 1973). Thus, the limitations of structural-functional analysis become apparent when studying rapidly changing, modern, complex societies (Boissevain and Mitchell, 1973).

Anthropologists studying urbanization found that society organizes itself around relationships (Wasserman and Faust, 1994; Boissevain and Mitchell, 1973). Therefore, taking into account social status, social role and the position of individuals as well as the “inevitability of the formation of relational ties among these actors” this leads to the conclusion that “relationships form gateways to political and economic power for all involved” (McIlwain, 1999). These early studies into social networks foreshadowed later research on the presence of networks within crime groups.

Albini (1971) studied “syndicated crime” in the United States and argued that organized crime was not based on “rational hierarchies” but a fluid system of power relationships initiated upon local and ethnic ties. Similarly, Ianni (1972) studied an Italian-American organized crime family (Lupollo) and found that the Lupollo’s organization was based upon social networks, kinship ties and shared cultural values that were common in Southern Italian communities. Blok (1974) studied the social networks of the local Mafiosi in the Sicilian village of Genuardo and found that the Mafiosi developed inter-dependent relations with peasants, landlords and politicians. Through a patron-client relationship, landlords relied on the Mafiosi to control the peasants’ access to land whilst allowing the Mafiosi to exercise autonomy in their local regions (Blok, 1974). Chambliss’ (1978)
analysis of organized crime in Seattle found that organized crime was a “coalition” of politicians, law-enforcers, businessmen, union leaders and racketeers. Chambliss (1978) stated that not every crime network had a “godfather” but rather, organized crime was a “...network in which people come and go, dominant offices shift and change, roles vary and fluctuate, but the system goes on.” In another study of the Mafiosi, Arlacchi (1986) concluded that entrepreneurial Mafiosi relied on family and friendship networks in Southern Italy to engage in illegal activities including extortion, heroin trafficking and controlling commerce between the countryside and cities.

Social network models characterize organized crime as a system of social and personal relationships among several individuals (Kleemans and de Poot, 2008). Block (1994) in a study of organized crime in New York, argues that organized crime is represented by a series of reciprocal relationships between professional criminals, legitimate businesses and politicians. These individuals or groups may engage in the process of social networking for the provision of illicit goods and services or gain access to other lucrative criminal opportunities (Kleemans and de Poot, 2008; McIllwain, 1999). Reciprocity is a system based on the notion of “give and take”, whereby network members can expect an equal return at some point in the future (Waterhouse, Keast and Brown 2011). Reciprocity has the effect of stabilizing networks and facilitates continued cooperation between network members (Waterhouse, Keast and Brown, 2011; Gouldner, 1960). Thus, network members interact in horizontal relationships. This can be contrasted with hierarchical styles of organization that operate in a vertical relationship based on goals, norms and methods prescribed by the leader.

Sociological and organizational studies on the advantages of networks suggest that networks are flexible and facilitate learning and exchange between members. In terms of learning capacity, networks operate in complex communication channels that often
involve the rapid exchange of information (Podolny and Page 1998, 62; Powell, 1990). In a criminal context, if networks create a pool of resources and skills then the exchange of information and knowledge would be vital to developing efficient and innovative methods for operation and the performance of tasks. A network’s adaptability and flexible nature enables them to be “lighter on their feet” than hierarchies (Powell, 1990). Networks are more responsive to changes in their environment given that the network’s boundaries are far less defined than a hierarchy (Podolny and Page, 1998). Flexibility is desirable in criminal networks because external pressure (e.g. law enforcement) or reduced levels of supply and demand in illicit markets may force OCGs to change established methods of operation.

Social networks are advantageous for certain types of crime. Networks based on kinship or family better insulate drug trafficking operations from penetration by law enforcement agencies because network members only work with people they know and trust (Edwards and Levi, 2008; Williams and Godson, 2002; Pearson and Hobbs, 2001; Morselli, 2001). The foundations of “trust” in criminal relationships are quite diverse as they can include family, kinship, community and ethnic ties (von Lampe and Johansen, 2004).

However, curbing distrust is a recurring issue for offenders, particularly for those engaged in organized crime activity where the operating environment is less stable and “stakes are high” (Kleemans and van de Bunt, 1999). Therefore, how trust is negotiated in organized crime activity and criminal networks is a key theme in the literature. High levels of trust reduce the uncertainty regarding the behaviour of potential crime partners and therefore, increase the willingness of these parties to co-offend (Weerman, 2003). Kleemans and van de Bunt (1999) argue that social relations mitigate distrust and stabilises cooperation between criminals because they have invested in the relationship, have information about each other and are likely to meet again in future operations. Cohesive networks are ideal
for criminal ventures where a strong degree of mutual trust is needed, especially carrying out activities with high criminal and financial risks (Bruinsma and Bernasco, 2004; Zaitch, 2002). For example, drug trafficking is an inherently high risk criminal activity. As a security measure, the norm in most drug markets is that transactions with strangers are to be avoided (Bouchard, 2007).

Williams (2010) developed a provisional network typology comprising of four types of networks: directed network, mesh network, transactional network and flux network. The four network types are described below:

1) Directed network: This network is formed and directed by a group of “core organizers” for a specific purpose (Williams, 2001). The core of the network is the hierarchical component because it acts as a “steering mechanism” to direct and coordinate the network as a whole (Williams, 2001). An example of a directed network is the development of the Colombian cocaine trade in the 1980s and early 1990s which was created for the sole purpose of transporting cocaine to the United States (Williams, 2001).

2) Mesh network: These networks are “decentralized and self-organizing”; actors perform specific tasks and transact directly with other members without the need for a core body (Williams 2010). This type of network is best characterized by horizontal rather than vertical relationships between actors.

3) Transactional network: These networks rely heavily on brokers and middlemen who play critical roles at each stage of a “transaction” (Williams 2010). The Southeast Asian heroin trade is largely modelled on a transactional network, in which brokers play a key role from source, supply to distribution. It is also possible for a directed network to be a part of a transactional network (Williams, 2001);
4) Flux network: Flux networks are highly unstable, small and have little established structure as a result of its amorphous nature. There is limited trust between members and they appear to disband more easily compared to other network types. Groups operating in these networks usually cooperate for specific criminal activities or single projects (Williams 2010).

Some groups can operate initially under one network style and then change their methods of operation to evolve into a different network type. Williams (2010) states that criminal operations may involve several, distinct kinds of networks depending on the type of activities and processes carried out by the group. Therefore, perhaps Williams did not intend to create four mutually exclusive categories in this typology. For example, transactional networks could operate within a directed network. However, it is expected that a flux network would be very difficult to identify given its small, amorphous nature and the relative ease at which its members could probably enter and exit the group. Williams (2010) also acknowledges that flux networks are difficult to infiltrate for similar reasons. Although this typology may be included at the stage of data analysis, the level of information required for classification is likely to be substantial and some cases will have an insufficient amount of detail in the judgment or transcript that enables classification.

2.9.2 Structuration Theory

Giddens posited this theory as an antithesis to the structural and interpretivist sociologies which were connected to Marxist and other humanist traditions (Holt-Jensen, 1999). The first group of social analysts concerned themselves with just the structural relationships in society. This first group did not give relevance to individuality but rather focused on the conditions that determined social outcomes (Moos & Dear, 1986). An example of these social theories include Marxism, functionalism and structuralism. On the other hand, the
second group also focused on individuals. These types of analysis are reflected in the work of phenomenologists and existentialists who believed that individual attached meaning to the world life thus lacking theoretical understanding of society and institutions. Furthermore, agent oriented theories have relegated institutions to the background therefore lacks understanding of power relations and conflicts in society. Whereas theories on economic forces (for example, Marxism) and cultural forces (for example, Functionalism) lacked understanding of individuals as knowledgeable, active and a reflexive monitoring agent, Giddens gave credence to structures as a creation and recreation via the human agency; thus the role of the agent in this context is pivotal (Giddens, 1979; Holt-Jensen, 1999). The differences between these two points of view could not be resolved by just merging them. Therefore Giddens (1979) overcame this by developing a theory that posits that action and structure presupposes on another.

In Giddens model, the agents are conceived as conscious and unconscious actors between the real level and the empirical level. For instance, when an individual is born into a community, they are in a way entangled by the social structures which restricts and enables them at the same time. Individuals go through life guided by rules made by society and at the same helps in reproducing these rules by changing its form (Holt-Jensen, 1999). Given the fact that individuals act as agents, the rules that govern them are always changed. Central to Giddens’s theory are concepts such as structure, action, social system, social practice, context and duality of structure. Structures are conceived as rules and resources for action, either in the form of social norms (informal) or laws and bureaucratic regulations (formal). They set the conditions for human actions, nonetheless they also result from human actions. Actions denotes the normal usual pattern of activities in our daily life and are a continuous process. Giddens suggests that even though society and its institutions form an individual, they are also skilled agents who direct their own lives via
actions. This he termed the duality of structure (Holt-Jensen, 1999). In the context of international migration and drug trafficking, though they are set of rules to either bar or constrain drug dealers from undertaking their illicit business, the individuals, via their own skills and contacts are able to operate within the system.

2.9.3 Systems Theory

A system can be defined as a set of elements with specific characteristics who work together to attain the an identifiable result (Rhodes & College, 2012). Shaw (1965) also assets that a system is an entity that takes in inputs, operates and come out with outputs. The pioneers of the system theory are Durkheim and Max Weber. They took the system theory which was first applied to biological organisms and applied it to human social systems.

Durkheim was interested in how societies were organized and maintained cohesion. This was because he was of the view that human had a social system unlike that of other organisms. According to him order can be maintained through the consent if individuals who share the same values (Friedman & Allen, 2014). Therefore, Durkheim was of the view that division of labour contributed to maintenance of cohesion in a highly organized society. Hence individuals specialize in the performance of certain roles, thus creating a degree of mutual interdependence. Although the individual assign to certain roles may change, the role itself persists overtime therefore maintaining a cohesive society. He therefore linked this theory to crime and suicide. He believed that both occurred as a result of disruptions and imbalances in the integration of individuals and societies (Friedman & Allen, 2014; Kay, 2015). He assesses this in the macro sense. For instance, the role of the police is to maintain law and order in society. However, if the police abuse its power then society is threatened. Durkheim also came up with the concept of “anomie” to describe
individual who do not conform to societal expectations therefore alienating society. In essence the system exists in the social environment and certain factors in this environment affect the systems outcome and output. The systems also interact with other systems and if the system is not compliant with the norm then it is considered as dysfunctional. Max weber is a contemporary of Durkheim known for his work on social institutions and organizations. However unlike Durkheim who believed that societies are maintained with the consent of individuals to comply with expectations, Weber was of the view that bureaucracies are coercive in nature and are maintained through the legitimate use of violence or force (Friedman & Allen, 2014).

With regards to Durkheim’s assertion ineffectiveness of institutions mandated to fight drug trafficking disrupt the system. Thus the continuous operation of traffickers could be blamed on the weaknesses of our institutions. On the other hand, the system is also supposed to provide these institutions with incentives and the necessary resources to enable them work effectively. Therefore, institutions cannot be solely blamed for the drug menace. On the other hand, Weber believes that enforcement of the powers of those who have been given the mandate should be enough to curb illicit operations. However, the drug trade has invaded these enforcement institutions and drug barons sometimes have control over people in the helm of affairs thus they are unable to enforce law and order.

2.10 Conceptual framework

According to Miles and Huberman (1994) a conceptual framework is a visual or written product, one that “explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied—the key factors, concepts, or variables—and the presumed relationships among them” (p.18). The term “conceptual framework” can also be used in a broader sense that
includes the actual ideas and beliefs that the researcher holds about the phenomena studied whether these are written down or not.

The conceptual framework determines that vulnerability, low education and trustworthiness especially in men and women migrants are highly likely to influence migrant involvement in drug trafficking and the participants are motivated by low investment required, good economic status obtainable, pleasure arising from the use and the good business connections that come with trafficking.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework
Source: Author’s construct
2.11 Summary

This chapter provides a review of relevant literature on international migration and drug trafficking in Ghana. The global trend of trafficking was thoroughly explained together with the trends in Africa. In addition, relevant literature on the various economic, demographic, social and cultural factors that influence drug trafficking were discussed in this chapter. Also, the role of Ghana in the drug trafficking and the various forms of interventions to curtail the drug menace were also discussed. Lastly, the theoretical underpinnings were given much cognisance in this chapter. These include the network theory, the structuration theory and the system theory. Clearly there is enough evidence which portend that social networks plays a role in facilitating organized criminal activities include drug trafficking. The drug dealers have a defined or structured network within which they operate. In circumstances, the efficiency of the system or network of drug trade makes it possible for them to operate, especially in circumstances where the systems mandated to control and curb illicit drug trafficking are fraught with some challenges.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology for the study. The chapter gives an in-depth overview of the main approaches that the study adopts including, research design, data needs, approaches to gathering the data and how the data is analysed and presented.

3.1 Research design

Research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived for collecting data and obtaining answers to research questions. The study design for this research is mixed methods. According to Creswell (2012), mixed methods research is an approach to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the researcher gathers both quantitative (close-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, fused the two data and draws interpretations based on the two sets of data. Mixed methods use multiple data sources for its data collection (Merriam, 2000). The use of mixed methods is to compensate for the weakness of the dichotomous approach (2012). Qualitative methods were used to collect data from the law enforcement institutions. Patton (2002) defines qualitative methodology as a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as a “real world setting where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest” (Patton, 2002, p.94; Teye 2008). The strengths of qualitative research methods are its inductive approach, its focus on specific situations or people, and its emphasis on words rather than numbers (Patton, 2002). It is used to reflect on, and interpret the understandings, and shared meanings of people’s everyday social worlds and realities. Qualitative methodology seeks subjective
understanding of social realities. The intent is to describe, explain and judge how these institutions work to combat drug trafficking.

Also, quantitative research methods were used to collect quantitative data on socio-demographic characteristics, mode of migration, trends in drug trafficking cases in Ghana, perceptions on socio-economic benefits of engaging in drug trafficking and challenges that confront security personnel. In regarding quantitative research method is any kind of research method that produces findings through statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Questionnaire survey method was employed to carry out this research because of its inherent ease in delivery and more appropriate for the study of a large population (Gay & Airasian, 2003). The two methodologies when used together tend to complement each other. The triangulation of these methods for the study is as a result of the nature of the research questions and objectives (see Teye, 2012). Castro et al. (2016) emphasizes that quantitative and qualitative methods are not simply different ways of doing the same thing. Instead, they have different strengths and logics, and are often best used to address different angles of questions and serve different purposes.

3.2 Data Sources

The study relied on both primary and secondary data sources in attaining the objectives of the study. The study relied on questionnaire survey, and in-depth interviews for garnering primary data. The secondary data were sourced from books, journals, articles, etc.

3.3 Primary Data Source

Questionnaire surveys and in-depth interviews were used in sourcing primary data for the study.
3.3.1 Questionnaire Survey

This section provides a description of the survey conducted including the design of the questionnaire and the sampling technique adopted in sampling respondents for the survey.

3.3.1.1 Questionnaire Design

Given the fact that the study sought the need to obtain quantifiable data and make conclusions based on these responses, the study adopted the questionnaire survey and the questionnaires used were semi-structured in nature. It comprised of both close-ended and open-ended questions. The target population were security personnel working with NACOB and GPS. The questionnaire was divided into sections I, II and III. Section I covered the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents such as age, sex, level of education, religion, ethnic background and income. Section II covers respondents’ knowledge of drug trafficking, sources of information pertaining to drug trafficking, and socio-demographic characteristic of drug traffickers. It also covers perceived reasons why people engage in drug trafficking, and international migration and drug trafficking nexus. The last section (III) looks at the various policy interventions and challenges security personnel encounter in the control of drug trafficking in Ghana. The questionnaire was first pretested among some officials of CEPS, considering the fact that they are part of the agencies mandated to keep our borders and ports safe from illicit drugs. In addition, they were not part of the target population for the questionnaire survey. This aided in the correction of minor errors in the questionnaire, restating of certain questions to enhance clarity. Two field assistants were trained and used for the data collection process. The data was collected from January to February. An informed consent to participate in the study was obtained from relevant authorities before data collection process began.
3.3.1.2 Sampling Technique

NACOB and GPS personnel were selected for the questionnaire survey. The decision to exclude CEPS and the Judiciary even though they are also the main actors in the fight against drug trafficking in the country was due to limited time, resource and lack of access to these officers. A simple random sampling method was employed to sample 230 respondents for the questionnaire survey. This comprised of 130 respondents from NACOB and 100 from GPS. This probability-based sampling method or technique is effective because of its un-biased nature.

3.3.2 In-depth Interviews

Key in-depth interviews were conducted with some six security personnel, three each form NACOB and GPS respectively. The interview mostly centered on their knowledge of drug trafficking, the characteristics of people involved and why people engage in the drug trade. Additionally, issues of policy interventions and challenges security personnel face in the control of drug trafficking in Ghana were also holistically examined. This gave much clarity to some of the issues they were not clear during the questionnaire survey.

The six security personnel were purposively selected for the key in-depth interview. This was largely informed by their rank in the services and years of working in the security services. Thus, information from them were very constructive and aided in giving much clarity and in-sight to the issues examined.

3.4 Secondary Data Sources

The secondary data sources used included reports on drug trafficking and trends over the years, as well as books, journal articles, publications and working papers related to drug trafficking in Ghana.
3.5 Data Analysis

The quantitative data were generally analysed using SPSS version 20. Data coding was systematically organized for easier analysis. This involved compiling a data matrix and then coding all the variables that were used in the questionnaire. Coding required identification of codes and assigning numerical values to each variable to signify a particular response. Frequency tables were generated, cross tabulations and chi-square test performed to ascertain relationship between variables. The recorded interviews were transcribed, grouped under specific themes and thereafter, content analysis was performed. Some quotations were used to underscore some findings and give clarity to statements which needed empirical comprehension.

3.6 Researcher’s Positionality & Ethical Considerations

According to Mohammed (2001), the type of issues researched and the characteristics of a researcher can influence the researcher’s access to informants and the type of data to be garnered (as cited in Teye 2012). In some situations, where the phenomena researched are sensitive, the quality of data collected and depth of insight given are mostly contingent on the characteristics of the researcher such as sex, age, socio-cultural and ideological background; that is if he/she is to be treated as an insider or outsider. The researcher works with NACOB thus will be treated as an insider by respondents and security agencies involved (Mohammed, 2001) In view of this, the respondents were forthcoming with responses since they felt comfortable discussing these issues with a colleague, especially their personal experiences and challenges. It should be noted however that, the researcher was not directly involved in the survey but played a key role during the qualitative facet of the data collection process. Trained and competent research assistants were engaged for the purpose of data collection.
Given the sensitive nature of the issues examined, ethical clearance was sought from the university before proceeding with the data collection. In addition, the consent of the various participants was obtained before the questionnaire survey and interviews were conducted. The various heads of the security agencies were contacted and permissions obtained from them before interviewing the various participants. In order to protect the anonymity of respondents selected for the interview, pseudonyms were used. With the anonymity of participants granted, they were forthcoming with issues and very helpful in unravelling some key challenges confronting the various institutions in the fight against drug trafficking in the country.
CHAPTER FOUR

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis of the field data results based on socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. Specifically, this section gives a description of the background features of respondents’ including sex, age, level of education, religion, ethnic ground and income.

4.2 Background Characteristics of Respondents

The results in Table 4.1 show that out of the 230 respondents sampled, 56.5 percent were males and 43.5 percent were females. This is not surprising because males tend to dominate in the two professions chosen, that is NACOB and GPS. In terms of the age group of the respondents, majority of them were within the 30-39 years’ age group (53 percent), followed by those within the ages of 20-29 years (27.4 percent) and 40-49 years (14.8 percent): The least represented age group were those more than 50 years of age (4.8 percent). The age distribution of respondents is expected considering the fact that the minimum required age to be enrolled into these services is 18 and the maximum is 25 years. Thus, one would expect majority of respondents to be within 30-39 year age group after some years of service in these institutions. Unsurprisingly, majority of respondents sampled had attained some form of tertiary (60 percent) education whereas those with JSS/JHS education (1.3 percent) were the least represented in terms respondent’s level of education. This could be because majority of the security personnel sampled were within some high ranks and certainly such ranks warrant some form of tertiary education. With respect to the religion of respondents, majority of respondents were Christians.
fellowshipping with Charismatic churches (30.4 percent), Catholic churches (20.9 percent) and Presbyterians (12.6 percent), whereas 16.5 percent were Muslims.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Sex, Age, Marital Status, Level of Education and religion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29 years</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 years</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS/JHS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSS/SHS</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical/Commercial</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglican</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presbyterian</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodist</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)

In addition, Akan’s (30 percent) constituted the majority of respondents sampled, followed by Ewe’s (19.1 percent) and other ethnic groups (18.3 percent). Also, 10.4 percent were
Ga-Adangbes, 9 percent Dagaare and 6.5 percent Bono and Dagbani respectively. With respect to monthly income of respondents, 74.8 percent earn more than 1000 cedis while less than 1 percent earn less than 500 cedis. Again, 23 percent of the respondents indicated that they earn within 701-900 cedis on a monthly basis. Given the rank and level of education of majority of respondents, it’s not surprising that majority of respondents earn above ₵1,000 on a monthly basis.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Ethnic Background & Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnic Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA Adangbe</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akan</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bono</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagbani</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagaare</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>230</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Income**            |           |            |
| Less than 500 cedis   | 2         | 0.9        |
| 501-700 cedis         | 3         | 1.3        |
| 701-900 cedis         | 53        | 23         |
| More than 900 cedis   | 172       | 74.8       |

Source: Feld data (2017)
4.3 Summary

This chapter examined the background characteristics of respondents and respondents’ knowledge and awareness of drug trafficking and perceived socio-economic benefits of engaging in drug trafficking. Lastly, the relationship between international migration and drug trafficking was examined. The result of the analysis shows that majority of respondents were males and within the ages of 30-39 years. Most of the respondents sampled had attained some form of tertiary education. Lastly, majority of respondents earn more than 1000 cedis monthly.
CHAPTER FIVE

DRUG TRAFFICKING TRENDS IN GHANA, 2009-2015 AND
PERCEIVED SOCIO-ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF DRUG
TRAFFICKING IN GHANA

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the trends in drug trafficking cases in Ghana from 2009 to 2015. This was done in relation to reported drug trafficking cases in Ghana by nationality and gender of drug traffickers from 2009-2015. It also assesses the perceived socio-economic benefits of drug trafficking in Ghana.

5.2 Drug Trafficking Trends in Ghana from 2009-2015

In recent years, drug trafficking has become pervasive in most West African countries, affecting countries such as Guinea-Bissau, Nigeria, Sierra-Leone and Ghana (UNODC Report 2008; Cook & Wyler, 2009). Akyeampong (2005) suggests that the strict security measures adopted by most European and North American countries dissuaded traffickers from using their ports and rather paved way for most drug traffickers from Thailand and Latin American countries, especially Brazil to use African countries as transit point and Africans serving as the traffickers. In view of this, Shehu (2009) is of the view that, many countries in West Africa serve as routes for the trafficking of drugs. Despite the fact that the trafficking of drugs was adopted as a means of capital formation in most West African countries including Ghana, Ghana has gained much notoriety as a hub and transit point for illicit drugs (Akyeampong, 2005). Although, the country is not actively engaged in the production of illicit drugs such as cocaine and heroin, recent events suggest that it plays an active role in the distribution and consumption of these drugs (Cook & Wyler, 2009).
report by the Bureau of International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs in 2007, suggests that Ghana became the hub for South American cocaine trafficking between 2006 and 2008 (cited in Sosuh, 2011). Owing to this background, the study sought to examine trends in drug trafficking in Ghana from 2009 to 2015 (see Figure 5.1).

Evidence from Figure 5.1 shows that 2013 (9.8%) and 2014 (10.1%) recorded the lowest reported drug trafficking cases within the seven year period (2009-2015) in the country, whereas the highest reported drug trafficking cases were recorded in 2011 (22.6%) and 2015 (15.9%). In addition, there was an increase in the trend of reported drug trafficking cases from 2009 to 2011 but recorded a steady decline from 2011 to 2013. Nonetheless, there was an increase from 2013 (9.8%) to 2015 (15.9%). 2013 (22.6% to 9.8%). However, there was an increase from 2013 to 2015 (9.8% to 15.9%). This suggests that within the seven year period, reported drug trafficking cases in the country has undergone some changes. An interview with some key informants at NACOB and GPS revealed that the modus operandi of trafficking drugs via the ports of the country is variable, as drug traffickers often change the mode of trafficking drugs as at when the drug enforcement agencies become aware. The method of concealing the drugs and ways of trafficking the drugs changes with time. In view of this, some were of the view that the low recorded and reported arrested cases were not as a result of low rate of drug trafficking but rather lack of insight or awareness about the mode of concealing and trafficking the drugs. One of the officers noted

“I don’t think low number recorded in 2009, 2013 and 2014 was because the drug couriers were not trafficking the drugs. I think they were but we had not noticed or found out the way they were doing it. When they started concealing the drugs in tubers of yams and oils and stuffs and we found out they immediately switched to something else. Now most of them are either inserting it or swallowing them with the hope that the scanners can’t identify the drugs. If you take 2011 for example,
most of the arrested drug traffickers had resorted to swallowing them in pellets and we had the tip-off so we could arrest most of them. That should explain why we had so many arrested cases then. As I am speaking to you, may be they have adopted a new technique we aren’t aware of making it possible for them to traffic the drugs but we will certainly catch them. (Key Informant, NACOB, personal Interview)

The views of this informant lend credence to the fact that given the fluid nature of the method drug traffickers adopt in concealing and trafficking drugs, it becomes difficult to make conclusive generalisation on the trend of drug trafficking in the country. Consistent with the views expressed by the key informant from NACOB, one key informant from the Drug Enforcement Unit of the GPS also indicate that, whenever there is increase in the number of arrested cases of drug trafficking at the Kotoka International Airport then it means we have identified a trend they are using in concealing and transiting those drugs. A decrease in reported cases does not suggest that they are not using our ports as transit points. He indicated that

“We cannot be certain that these drug barons in South America, Asia and some parts of Middle East are not using our ports to transport drugs to Europe and North America. They are always paying people to outsmart us in a way but we are always a step ahead of them. When we notice a method they are adopting they quickly change making it difficult to track them sometimes but I think we are still doing our best with our team and other people who are on the ground and various ports. (Key informant, GPS, personal interview)

The views of this informant suggests that the changes in the reported drug trafficking arrested cases within the seven year period (2009-2015) can be aligned with fluid nature of the modus operandi of concealing and trafficking drugs often adopted by drug dealers. However, one can also clearly point out that the increase in reported drug trafficking cases from 2009 could be attributed to the porous nature of our borders and ports, poor governance, loose security systems, and ineffective government institutions whereas the
decline can be associated with the strict measures adopted by the various drug enforcement agencies like NACOB, GPS, and CEPS. This often deters people from using the borders or ports of the country as transit point. Given the trend in the number of drug trafficking cases recorded, this supports studies by Bernstein (1999) and Aning (2010) which show that Ghana has become a defined route for the trafficking of illicit drugs from Latin America and Southeast Asia to consumers in North America and European countries. As Akyeampong (2005) notes in his study on Diaspora and Drug trafficking in Ghana, most West African countries including Ghana has served as a transit point for European and North American bound heroin and cocaine since the 1980’s.

![Figure 5.1: Reported Drug Trafficking Cases from 2009-2015](image)

Source: Feld data (2017)

Given the fact that Africa is not a producer of illicit drugs such as heroin and cocaine, most couriers or drug traffickers used in the transit of drugs via the ports of most West African countries are Africans (Akyeampong, 2005). This was precisely because they were the least suspicious in terms of drug trafficking before they gained much notoriety as drug couriers. Nigerians gained much infamy as drug couriers in West Africa and later
extended their drug trafficking networking to Ghana in the 1980’s after the clampdown by the Nigerian government (Akyeampong, 2005). As a result, some Ghanaians joined the bandwagon as drug couriers. In addition, other nationals from Togo and Sierra Leone were also reported to be engaged in the drug trade as couriers. Some reports suggest that it is sometimes difficult to ascertain the nationality of drug couriers. For instance, a report by the Ghanaian voice suggest that, in 1997, when the Ghanaian government sought the need to ascertain the veracity of reports that more than a hundred Ghanaians were in Southern African jails for drug trafficking crimes, it became apparent that more than 80 percent were Nigerians who had acquired Ghanaian passports (as cited in Akyeampong, 2005).

In view of this, further attempts were made to examine the distribution of reported drug trafficking cases in Ghana by the nationality of the drug traffickers. This is presented in Table 5.1. The result shows that, within the seven (7) year period, there have been 296 reported cases of drug trafficking in the country. Of this number, 53.7 percent (159) of the drug traffickers were Ghanaians, 29.1 percent (86), Nigerians and 17.2 percent (51) were other nationals. (See Table 5.1). Put differently, majority of drug traffickers were Ghanaians and Nigerians, with a few comprising of other nationals. From 2009 to 2011, Ghanaians were reported as the major drug traffickers in the country relative to Nigerians and other Nationals. However, in 2012 and 2014, Nigerians were the major drug traffickers. (See Table 5.1).

With respect to the number of reported drug trafficking cases in 2015, Ghanaians were reported as the major drug traffickers. It should also be noted that other nationals (41.1%) were the major drug traffickers in 2013 relative to Nigerians (27.6%) and Ghanaians (31%). In all, this suggests that even though Ghanaians were noted as the major drug traffickers over the seven years, Nigerians and other nationals were also reported as main drug traffickers in the country. This is consistent with the study by Akyeampong (2005)
were Nigerians were noted as the major drug traffickers in Africa. An interview with some security officers brought to the fore the fact that, most Ghanaians joined the drug trafficking trade because of its lucrative nature and due to the influence of other nationals. Most of the Nigerians are into the drug business but given the bad reputation they have gained as couriers, they often persuade and lure most Ghanaians to traffic these drugs for them. In some instances, the apprehended drug courier has no knowledge of what is involved. One of the informants indicated that

“We arrested a Ghanaian at the Kotoka International Airport for carrying drugs on her. On interrogation, she revealed that she was contacted some weeks ago by some Nigerians and a Thai to take the drugs to someone in United States of America. She needed the money to pay some debt and they also assured her that the officers at the airport have been paid to enable her transport the drugs. She later confessed this was her first time travelling outside the country and had been promised $8,000 if she delivers the drugs safely. (Key informant, NACOB, personal interview)

This suggests that even though some Ghanaians are mostly used as drug couriers, they are mostly not involved in the drug business but play active roles as couriers in the transit of the drugs. The drug dealers or drug financiers themselves play passive roles in the trafficking of these drugs but often rely on couriers. This is consistent with the findings of Akyeampong (2005) which shows that most drug financiers rarely partake in the drug trafficking business.
Table 5.1: Reported Drug Trafficking Cases in Ghana by Nationality of Drug Traffickers from 2009-2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghanaians</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(64.9%)</td>
<td>(61.9%)</td>
<td>(67.2%)</td>
<td>(31.8%)</td>
<td>(31%)</td>
<td>(40%)</td>
<td>(61.7%)</td>
<td>(53.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigerians</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(13.5%)</td>
<td>(11.9%)</td>
<td>(22.4%)</td>
<td>(56.8%)</td>
<td>(27.6%)</td>
<td>(53.3%)</td>
<td>(25.5%)</td>
<td>(29.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(21.6%)</td>
<td>(26.2%)</td>
<td>(10.4%)</td>
<td>(11.4%)</td>
<td>(41.4%)</td>
<td>(6.7%)</td>
<td>(12.8%)</td>
<td>(17.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47</td>
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<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)  Figures in parentheses represent percentages

Crusader (2007) argues that more women, including a growing number of college students, are venturing into drug peddling. Hitherto, studies have shown that drug trafficking was a male dominated venture. Nonetheless, current trends in reported incidence of drug trafficking suggests that it has become a major activity for young migrants who are women. In Nigeria for example, Punch (2008) found that females had gradually emerged as strong forces in the drug trafficking business in Nigeria. The study by Ekerette (2009) indicates that age and sex of drug traffickers play a major role in determining the success of a drug trafficking business. Women are often exploited in the drug trade to traffic hard drugs from one country to another (Osiki, 2010). They conceal hard drugs in their private parts, shoes and other accessories (Nigeria Tribune, as cited in Osiki, 2010). This suggests that women are used as couriers of hard drugs for the international markets.
Against this background, the study sought to examine the distribution of reported drug trafficking cases in Ghana by the sex of the drug traffickers. This result is presented in Table 5.2. Out of the 229 reported cases of drug trafficking, 82.5 were males and 17.5 were females. This shows that the majority of the drug traffickers were males. The highest number of female drug traffickers was recorded in 2010 (33.3%) and the lowest recorded in 2014 (3.3%). Unfortunately, the data on the gender distribution of drug traffickers for 2011 was unavailable. There has been a decrease the number of females engaged in drug trafficking over the years. This contradicts the findings of Punch (2008) which show that females are becoming the stronger force, mostly serving as couriers in the drug trade. Some key informants were of the view that, though males tend to dominate as drug couriers, currently, most drug dealers have resorted using young females as drug couriers. They are the least suspicious and have other alternative modes of concealing the drugs. While men are confined to either swallowing or anal insertion as a mode of concealing the drugs, current trends suggest that some resort to both anal and vaginal insertion to conceal and transport these drugs. One of the officer remarked:

“It would surprise you to note that some drug dealers are using women now to traffic these drugs. Apart from paying some officers so they can transport them in bags and other items, they have so many places they can keep it. Moreover, women are the least suspicious when it comes to drug trafficking, unlike men. We arrested a South American woman who had inserted cocaine via the Vagina. Upon suspicion because of the discomfort noticed in the way the woman was walking, we brought her in for question. She started jittering and that was when we noticed something was wrong. A thorough search revealed where the drug was hidden. A case in point is the famous Nayele Ametepe case where she was arrested in the United Kingdom for carrying 12 kilos of cocaine. (Key informants, NACOB, Personal Interview)"

This shows that even though the findings of this study contradicts the findings of Punch (2008), there is an increase in the use of females as drug couriers in the country.
Table 5.2: Reported Drug Trafficking Cases in Ghana by the Sex of Drug Traffickers from 2009-2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number (%)</th>
<th>Number (%)</th>
<th>Number (%)</th>
<th>Number (%)</th>
<th>Number (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>37 (100%)</td>
<td>42 (100%)</td>
<td>44 (100%)</td>
<td>29 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>31 (83.8%)</td>
<td>28 (66.7%)</td>
<td>38 (86.4%)</td>
<td>22 (75.9%)</td>
<td>29 (96.7%)</td>
<td>41 (87.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
<td>14 (33.3%)</td>
<td>6 (13.6%)</td>
<td>7 (24.1%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>6 (12.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>37 (100%)</td>
<td>42 (100%)</td>
<td>44 (100%)</td>
<td>29 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>31 (83.8%)</td>
<td>28 (66.7%)</td>
<td>38 (86.4%)</td>
<td>22 (75.9%)</td>
<td>29 (96.7%)</td>
<td>41 (87.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
<td>14 (33.3%)</td>
<td>6 (13.6%)</td>
<td>7 (24.1%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>6 (12.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>37 (100%)</td>
<td>42 (100%)</td>
<td>44 (100%)</td>
<td>29 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>31 (83.8%)</td>
<td>28 (66.7%)</td>
<td>38 (86.4%)</td>
<td>22 (75.9%)</td>
<td>29 (96.7%)</td>
<td>41 (87.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
<td>14 (33.3%)</td>
<td>6 (13.6%)</td>
<td>7 (24.1%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>6 (12.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>37 (100%)</td>
<td>42 (100%)</td>
<td>44 (100%)</td>
<td>29 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>31 (83.8%)</td>
<td>28 (66.7%)</td>
<td>38 (86.4%)</td>
<td>22 (75.9%)</td>
<td>29 (96.7%)</td>
<td>41 (87.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
<td>14 (33.3%)</td>
<td>6 (13.6%)</td>
<td>7 (24.1%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>6 (12.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>37 (100%)</td>
<td>42 (100%)</td>
<td>44 (100%)</td>
<td>29 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>31 (83.8%)</td>
<td>28 (66.7%)</td>
<td>38 (86.4%)</td>
<td>22 (75.9%)</td>
<td>29 (96.7%)</td>
<td>41 (87.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
<td>14 (33.3%)</td>
<td>6 (13.6%)</td>
<td>7 (24.1%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>6 (12.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>37 (100%)</td>
<td>42 (100%)</td>
<td>44 (100%)</td>
<td>29 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)  Figures in parentheses represent percentages

5.3 Knowledge & Perceived Socio-economic Benefits of Drug Trafficking in Ghana

Respondent’s awareness was examined given the fact that issues to be assessed would largely be based on their knowledge and awareness of drug trafficking in Ghana. Unsurprisingly, all the respondents sampled were aware of drug trafficking issues in Ghana. Respondents were further asked to indicate their source(s) of information on issues pertaining to drug trafficking in Ghana. The result of this is presented in Figure 5.2.

Out of the 230 respondents sampled, 45 percent were of the view that they get drug trafficking information from the radio, 28 percent from in-service and 10 percent from television. In addition, 8 percent and 6.5 percent of respondents also revealed that the government and the internet were their sources of information on issues pertaining to drug trafficking in Ghana. Other information sources such as
Facebook, WhatsApp, twitter etc. accounted for 2.2 percent response from response in relation to their sources of information on drug trafficking. One would have expected majority of these security personnel to get information about drug trafficking cases from in-service training but the converse was reported in this study. These also show that the radio plays a major role as a medium for the dissemination of information on drug trafficking in Ghana. In addition, one plausible explanation for the distribution of respondents by their sources of information on drug trafficking could be because most of them had already heard of drug trafficking on the radio before working with the security agencies. Thus, this could account for reasons why only radio was the major information source relative to in-service training.

![Figure 5.2: Distribution of Respondents by their Sources of information about Drug Trafficking Cases in Ghana. Source: Feld data (2017)](image)

There are variations in the way drug trafficking and its threats are mostly created. In some jurisdictions, they are mostly made prominent through various civil organisations and pressure groups while the government plays an active role in averting drug trafficking. In
other countries, the media and religious organisations are very pivotal in this exercise. In ascertaining how this also plays out within the Ghanaian context, the study sought the need to examine how drug trafficking and its threats are constructed in Ghana. The study gives credence to the fact it relied only on the subjective views of the security personnel. This is presented in Table 5.3

Out of the 230 respondents sampled, 65.7 percent were of the view that drug trafficking and its threats are constructed in Ghana through media reportage. Also, public reaction and political pronouncements accounted for 22.6 percent and 8.7 percent respectively, as ways drug trafficking and its threats awareness are created in Ghana. The role of religious discourse was the least represented in terms of how drug trafficking awareness are created in Ghana (see Table 5.3). With respect to public reaction, majority of male respondents (25.4%) attributed this as an avenue for awareness creation as compared to females (19%), though the chi square test reported no significant relationship between the two variables. In all, media reportage was reported as the principal avenue for awareness creation on threats of engaging in drug trafficking in the country.

Table 5.3: Relationship between Gender and avenues for Awareness creation on the threats of engaging in Drug Trafficking in Ghana.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Through media reportage</th>
<th>Political pronouncements</th>
<th>Religious discourse</th>
<th>Public reaction</th>
<th>Social Media Platforms</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>69.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>19.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.0%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>63.1%</strong></td>
<td><strong>9.2%</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.3%</strong></td>
<td><strong>25.4%</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.0%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>65.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.6%</strong></td>
<td><strong>22.6%</strong></td>
<td><strong>.4%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017) \( \chi^2 \text{ statistic} = 2.8, \text{df} = 4, p = 0.58 >0.05 \)

Socio-economic background could have significant relationship with the drug trafficking in Ghana. The type of people engaged in the act have specific characteristics in relation to
their affluence or literacy. Given the background of respondents and their experience in drug related issues, they were asked to indicate the type or category of people that comes to mind when they hear about drug trafficking. This was to examine the category of people often engaged in the act of trafficking drugs out or into the country. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 5.4. Majority of respondents (69.6%) sampled indicated that the rich are mostly the kind of people that are involved in drug trafficking trade while 18.7 percent of respondents were of the view that the poor are the ones engaged in the drug trade. Comparing the literate and illiterate, majority of respondents revealed that the illiterate are mostly involved in drug trafficking (see Table 5.4). None of the female respondents perceived the literate to be involved in drug trafficking as compared to male respondents (2.3%). This suggests that the rich are mostly engaged in the drug trafficking business relative to the poor. Nonetheless there was no significant relationship between the gender of respondents and their perception about the category of people involved in drug trafficking in Ghana (p value>0.05). An interview with some security personnel brought to the fore some of the reasons why the drug trade is more often than not associated with the rich than the poor, albeit the poor are sometimes involved in the trafficking of drugs sometimes. One of the personnel indicated;

“It’s mostly those who are rich that are involved in this trade. They want to keep living their expensive lavish lifestyle so they engage in this kind of trade to make more money. Most of the people drug traffickers arrested here or abroad are people who live very expensive lifestyles or are very rich people in the society” (34 year old security personnel, Individual Interview)

Consistent with the views shared by this respondent, some were also of the view that drug trafficking is mostly based on the cartel; a luxury the poor cannot afford. The rich mostly have contacts outside the country and have formed this networks defined by a unique interest; drugs. The poor are mostly involved when there is the need to exploit them in achieving their interest. Again, some security personnel also revealed that in situation
where the poor are involved in the act, it’s often due to some pressure to make ends meet, sort a pressing need or get rich quickly. One of the security personnel was the view that;

“When the poor are arrested then you should know it’s the rich people who are just using them to traffic the drug. The poor cannot even afford the drugs they are trafficking. When they are often interrogated, it turns out they are being used in transporting the drugs” (45 year old security personnel, Interview)

Table 5.4: Relationship between Gender of Respondents and their Perception of the Category of People engaged in Drug Trafficking in Ghana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Category of people</th>
<th>The Rich</th>
<th>The Poor</th>
<th>Literate</th>
<th>Illiterate</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Number (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td>Number (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>130</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>69.2%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>230</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>69.6%</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017) \( \chi^2 \) statistic = 2.85, df = 4, p = 0.58 >0.05

5.3.1 Factors Accounting for Drug Trafficking in Ghana

Some studies suggest that economic and social conditions are the main reasons why people engage in drug trafficking. Aning (2007) suggests that, considering the high poverty and unemployment rate in the country, most Ghanaians are often willing to serve as couriers because the drug business becomes an attractive alternative for them. Most studies indicate that poverty, ignorance, and high rate of unemployment are the major reasons why people engage in the trafficking of drugs. In view of this, the study sought the need to examine reasons why people engage in drug trafficking. Again, the study relied on the subjective views of the security personnel (NACOB & Police). Evidence of this result is presented in Table 5.5.
5.3.1.1 Poverty

Central to factors that make people susceptible to drug trafficking is poverty. While most individuals within the supply chain rely on it as their major source of livelihood (Thoumi, 2005), some people often used as couriers are noted to engage in it due to economic hardship or the need for money to solve a pressing social or economic problem. Akyeampong (2005) notes that the Ghanaian economy went into recession during the 1980’s and thus the advent of the drug trade made it more lucrative for people to join. Therefore most Ghanaians went into the drug trade for the economic benefits given its lucrative nature. Aning (2007) suggests that, considering the high poverty and unemployment rate in the country, most Ghanaians are often willing to serve as couriers because the drug business becomes an attractive alternative for them. In view of this, the study sought the need to examine reasons why people engage in drug trafficking. Again, the study relied on the subjective views of the security personnel (NACOB & Police). Evidence of this result is presented in Table 5.4. The result shows that out of the 230 security personnel sampled, 47.4 percent indicated that poverty is the main reason why people engage in drug trafficking in Ghana. Some were of the view that poverty makes them vulnerable and easy to convince, especially in situations where the drug dealers have access to these vulnerable people and convince them to engage in the act. In some instances, some of these poor people try to find these drug dealers in an attempt to involve them in the transaction in order for them to make ends meet. During the qualitative facet of the study, one officer interviewed revealed that;

“I think there are so many reasons why people engage in drug trafficking but from what I have observed during my interrogation of suspects is that, most of them do mention economic hardship as the main reason why they engage in the act of trafficking drugs. For example, we arrested a Nigerian at the Kotoka international airport on Emirate airline carrying cocaine. During the interrogation, she made
mention that she needed money to pay for her mother’s medical bills so when the offer came from the drug baron she did not say no and also she was told payment was made to the officers at the airport for her to pass through. So you can see because this lady was in need of money, they could easily convince her to engage in the act” (Individual Interview, 2017)

The views expressed by the security personnel lend support to the fact that poverty is often the major reason why people engage in drug trafficking. In situations where they are successful, the money is laundered back into the country by buying goods or cars to come and sell in the country. One key informant was also of the view that:

“Some of these people are easily influenced by their friends, class mates, families, finance or spouse. They lure them into believing that they can also become rich like them if they serve as drug couriers. Sometimes you see some of these things in movies and you doubt it. Believe you me, these things are real. We have apprehended people who engaged in drug trafficking because an old school mate introduced them to it and promised them so many things. (Key Informant, personal interview)

Ellis (2009) notes that, within the network of drug trade, the couriers represent the lowest tier in the transit of the drug and they are more often than not people who are in urgent need of money. Most of these couriers end up ingesting condoms filled with hard drugs, or bagging them in baggage. He points out that most of these people are young and in their vulnerable ages where they are made to fend for themselves with no parental support. This makes them very vulnerable having to make life choices on their own.

5.3.1.2 Ignorance

Apart from economic motivations, ignorance is one of the reasons why most people engage in drug trafficking. According to a study by Ellis (2009) on West Africa’s International Drug Trade using the case of Nigeria, he points out that most drug couriers
are often recruited by drug barons to transport parcels of drugs to another country for a fee. Most of the people involved are ignorant of the consequences. In some instances, they are even ignorant of what they are trafficking. The economic motivation largely blinds them making them ignorant of their actions. Some of them also have no idea that they are carrying drugs with them till they are apprehended by security officers. A case in point is the drug case of the late Daasebre Dwamena, a renowned high-life artiste who was arrested at the Heathrow airport in the United Kingdom for carrying 100 kilograms of cocaine worth 100 thousand pounds.

In view of this, the study sought the need to examine if ignorance was a major reason why people engage in drug trafficking. Again, the study relied on the subjective views of the security personnel (NACOB & Police). Evidence of this result is presented in Table 5.4. Out of the 230 security personnel sampled, 13.9 percent were of the view that ignorance on the part of drug traffickers was the principal reason why they engage in drug trafficking. Most of them are ignorant of the act and in a bid to satisfy their curiosity, engage in the trade. Some male respondents (1.5%) were of the view that some people perceive it as adventurous and take up that initiative of trafficking drugs (Table 5.4). Some key informants were of the view that, ignorance as a factor does not act in isolation but combines with other economic and social factors to influence drug trafficking by couriers in Ghana. One informant remarked:

“We can’t always blame it solely on the ignorance of the couriers but multiple factors of which ignorance could play a major role. For instance, most of these incarcerated drug couriers when interrogated will tell you the money was the major thing but they didn’t know anything about it. When they were recruited by the drug dealers to transport the drugs, all they were told was that their passport, visa’s accommodations and expenses have been catered for and all the security
personnel bribed to ease their way at the airport. (Key informant, NACOB, personal interview)

Box 1: Influence of Adventure and Ignorance on drug trafficking - the case of Julia

| Julia is an eighteen year old Italian born Ghanaian girl. She lived with her parents (both Ghanaians) in Rome, Italy. She had a pal whom she met on Facebook and apparently happened to be Ghanaian young man as well. According to Julia, this young man managed to convince her to come to Ghana which she obliged. Unfortunately, she didn’t tell her parents she was travelling to Ghana but rather made them believe she was visiting her friend in Venice (a city in Italy). She stole her passport from her parents and flew to Ghana. She was met on arrival at the Kotoka international airport facebook friend. When she was ready to return to Italy, this man convinced her to carry along with her some cocaine. When she asked whether she will not be apprehended at the airport, the reply was “I have paid all the security officers so no one will disturb you at the airport”. So this man succeeded in convincing her to put some of the drugs in brassiere because she had smaller breasts. Notwithstanding that, she inserted some of the drugs into her vagina. All these were realized when she was going through normal security processes at the airport. Her demeanour at the time got the security operatives suspicious and was subjected to a thorough search. It was then that we discovered that she had some drugs in her bra and vagina as well. When questioned why she was carrying those drugs, the teenager said ‘the person who gave the drugs told me that when I get back to Italy, the person who was going to meet me to collect the drugs will give me a lot of money which will solve most of my problems’. She didn’t mention which problems these were but that was why she agreed to carry the drugs. Julia was arrested and detained. She was later prosecuted and remanded into prison custody. After a couple of weeks, we received a call from the Nsawam prisons to come for her for a medical attention because she had been vomiting and the warders had also realized some behavioural changes in her. We acted on that quickly and conveyed her to the police hospital for the necessary medical attention. A series of tests were run and it was later detected she was pregnant. From all indications it was this same young man who had impregnated her. Consequently, to the cocaine charges young Julia was sentenced to ten years imprisonment where she delivered. Her parents were informed and they came for her baby. |

The case Julia suggests that she was adventurous and ignorant, thus making her vulnerable for the drug dealer to persuade and use her in the drug trade. Clearly, one can see that the aim of the man was to use her in trafficking the drugs. In some instances, the people involved are very ignorant or have no idea of the content of their luggage. For instance, an informant from NACOB was also of the view that:
“In some instances, the couriers themselves are not aware that they are been used in the trafficking of drugs. Somethings they are sent to transact business on behalf of the drug baron (who is perceived by the courier as a businessman). They pack your luggage, pay your travel expenses and everything. They become aware that they are been used as couriers when they are arrested. (Key informant, GPS, personal interview)

Box 2: Ignorance as a contributory factor to drug trafficking - the case of Adams

Mr. Adams was successful Ghanaian businessman who had travelled across the globe doing business but most of his business activities are between Brazil and Ghana. During one of such trips from Brazil to Ghana, he met a fellow Ghanaian at Sao Paulo airport. They exchanged pleasantries and the other Ghanaian introduced himself as Inusah. While interacting, Inusah pleaded with Mr. Adams to do him a favor by delivering some two boxes of lollipop candies to his (Inusah) brother in Ghana. Inusah said his brother would be readily available at the Kotoka international airport for collection immediately. Mr. Adams initially declined to carry out this favor stating that he doesn’t do that because of these trending drug issues. Inusah was quick to react and said “oh no! I don’t do drugs”. Inusah then challenged Mr. Adams to open one of the packs to ascertain whether or not it contained any substance like drugs which the latter did. Inusah further told Mr. Adams that he is a staunch Muslim who is bound by his beliefs and teachings not to engage in such practices as drug trafficking. At this point, Mr. Adams seemed convinced and obliged to carry out the supposed favor. On his arrival at the Kotoka international airport, during the security check procedures, Mr. Adams was invited by Narcotic Control Board (NACOB) officials to answer question on why he was carrying such quantity of the lolipop. He answered by saying he is to deliver them to someone who would be waiting for him at the airport for him on his arrival. This immediately triggered the NACOB officials to suspect the products since they are very much aware that Brazil is a source country. Based on their suspicion, the officials decided as per the norm open several packs of the supposed lolipops only to discover that most of the packs contained cocaine instead of lolipops. Mr. Adams was then arrested, prosecuted and sentenced to ten years imprisonment. He however claimed innocence and argued that he wasn’t aware the boxes contained cocaine.

The case of Adams and the views of the informant from NACOB are consistent with the findings of Champion (2004) where the services of innocent villagers, especially market men and women who were willing to enter into trading partnership drug barons were quite
ignorant of the fact that, they are being used as couriers in the trafficking of drugs in Nigeria.

5.3.1.3 High Rate of Unemployment

According to some studies, the rate of unemployment and corruption in most African countries have made drug trafficking a lucrative venture for most of the youth. The desire to acquire wealth quickly coupled with poverty compels most of the youth to engage in drug trafficking (Rawlings, 2014). In view of this, respondents were asked if unemployment in the country is one of the reasons why people engage in drug trafficking (See Table 5.4). The results show that only 2.2 percent of the respondents attributed high rate of unemployment as a reason why people engage in drug trafficking in the country. In relation to the gender of respondents, only 3.8 percent of males attributed unemployment as a cause of drug trafficking in the country relative to none from the female sample group. Even though this could be a motivating factor, some security personnel interviewed bemoaned the “get rich quick” mentality of the youth which makes it easy for the drug dealers to convince and recruit them as drug couriers. One of the interviewees remarked:

“...............the problem of unemployment is not unique to Ghana alone. It is a global phenomenon. So if a youth sits somewhere and tell me he or she is engaging in drug business because they have no job to do, then this country has a problem. They just want to buy big cars and build big houses early in life without necessarily working hard for it. They are just lazy and want to get rich quick through illegal means. Just check the drug couriers arrested over the years and look at their ages. (Key Informant interview, GPS)

The views expressed by this informant suggest that even though unemployment may induce or influence someone to engage in the act of drug trafficking, the need to get rich or acquire wealth may be the principal reason why people engage in drug trafficking.
Box 3: The influence of unemployment on drug trafficking – the case of Kwasi Boadu

Kwasi Boadu, a graduate from one of the universities in Ghana was arrested at Kotoka for possessing 55 kilos of cocaine. He had swallowed as pellets and also had some concealed in his belongings. When the NACOB officials apprehended him upon the jittery nature he was in, he confessed to the crime and was immediately rushed to the hospital for the drugs to be taken out. When he was being interrogated he broke down in tears and narrated his ordeal. He had been unemployed for some years after completing the university. Most of his friends were making it in life while he struggled to make daily meal. On meeting one of his friends at a funeral, he managed to convince him to join the drug courier trade since it will make him rich in no time. He was very hesitant from the onset but a pressing family issue gave him no option than to give in. He was then promised $12,000 dollars upon delivery of the products to a contact in the United States. He was promised safe passage at the airport but got apprehensive when one of the security officials kept looking at him. To him, he wouldn’t have engaged in this act if he had a job and could afford to take care of himself and his family.

Similar to the case of Boadu, lack of job opportunities coupled with financial difficulties leave majority of people, especially the youth vulnerable. As a result, drug leaders are able to deceive them into serving as drug couriers. Rawlings (2014) for instance, makes a valid argument when attributing unemployment in the formal sector as a driving force for illicit drug trafficking in Nigeria. In his submission, he indicated that the need to survive in an economy that presents increasing levels of poverty, high unemployment rate, and limited opportunities for economic activities more often than not drive people to engage in the illicit drug trade. This is consistent with the case of Boadu where lack of employment and the quest for survival compelled him to engage in drug trafficking.
There is evidence to suggest that the operation of drug trafficking groups are often characterized by loose, informal, adaptable networks based on social relations or in some cases, ethnic and cultural ties (Gruppo, 2004; Natarajan, 2006; Chin & Zhang, 2008; Decker & Chapman, 2008). The study examined the perception of respondents in relation to the possibility of drug cartels infiltrating Ghana. This was examined in relation to respondents’ sex and age. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 5.6. Out of the 230 respondents sampled, 99.6 percent perceive the possibility of drug cartels coming into the country, given the rate of drug trafficking and drug trade in the country. This was highly characteristic of majority of both male (99.2%) and female (100%). Again, the result shows that less than one percent of respondents indicated that the infiltration of drug cartels in the country is not possible. Moreover, only 1.6 percent of respondents between the ages of 20-29 years indicated that drug cartel. However, some officials were of the converse view that drug cartels don’t necessarily need to infiltrate the country but can be formed in the country. One of the officers interviewed revealed that;

“The cartel is an intricate association which involves some high degree of wealth, contacts and networks. Given the rate at which Ghana is becoming a point of transit and user of hard drugs, some drug barons in the country can definitely
build a cartel and not necessarily depend on the other Nationals” (Individual Interview, 2017).

Table 5.6: Summary of Relationship between Demographic Variables and Perceived Possible Infiltration of Drug Cartels into Ghana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Possible Infiltration of Drug Cartels into Ghana</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Number 100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Number 129</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 99.2%</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Number 229</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 99.6%</td>
<td>.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29 years</td>
<td>Number 62</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 98.4%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 years</td>
<td>Number 122</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49 years</td>
<td>Number 34</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 + years</td>
<td>Number 11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)

Furthermore, the reasons why these security personnel perceive that there could be infiltration of drug cartels into the country were examined. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5.7. Out of the 229 respondents that responded in the affirmative, 72 percent bemoaned the porous nature of our borders as the main reason why drug cartels could infiltrate the country. Also, 11 percent gave credence to the fact the inadequate and ineffective policies geared towards addressing drug trafficking threats account for the possible infiltration of drug cartels whereas 2.2 percent blamed it on the weak Ghanaian foreign policy. Additionally, 12.6 percent of the respondents attributed it to lack of knowledge on the part of the general public on how to identify and deal with drug trafficking threats. Certainly, weak border controls, inefficient policy directives to address drug trafficking threats and ignorance on the part of the citizenry are the major reasons why respondents dread the possible infiltration of drug cartels into the country. When one
of the NACOB officers was asked if he thinks drug cartels can infiltrate into the country, he indicated that;

“I will say yes. This is because of the porous nature of our borders and lack of attention from the government on the fight against illicit drug trafficking in Ghana most of the help in combating drug trafficking in the country come from foreign countries like the UK, US and Italy and I think these countries main aim is to ensure drugs do not go to their countries and the do not care what is coming in, so it makes it easier for drug cartels to infiltrate in to the country. It should also be noted that as drug barons in Ghana become powerful they can develop to become Cartels not necessary foreigners alone” (Individual Interview, 2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Porous nature of our borders</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>72.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate and ineffective policies to address drug trafficking threats</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana's foreign policy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge on the part of the general public on how to identify and deal with drug trafficking threat</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>230</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)

5.4 Drug Trafficking & International Migration Nexus

Considering the fact that drug trafficking has become very pervasive in most African countries, the study sought the need to examine the link between drug trafficking and international migration. Even though much effort is geared towards the fight against drug trafficking in Ghana, it is still gaining much ground in the country. The role of international migration in this menace cannot be underemphasized. The porous nature of our borders, coupled with corruption and weak institutions makes is feasible for drugs intended for markets in Spain, United States, United Kingdom and Portugal to be trafficked (Akyeampong, 2005; Sosuh, 2011; Aning & Pokoo, 2014). Respondents were asked if given the recent rise in drug trafficking in West Africa, Ghana is at risk of
becoming a drug transit and user country. The result is presented in Table 5.8. Out of the 230 respondents sampled, 50 percent of respondents strongly agreed and disagreed with this viewpoint respectively. Majority of females (52%) strongly disagreed with this statement than males (48.5%). This suggests that even though there were no differences in responses male respondents strongly agreed that Ghana is becoming a drug transit and user country, given the increase in drug trafficking in West Africa. It became clear during the interview that it has become very difficult to transit drugs into the developed countries, given the strict border controls. However, the porous nature of our borders makes it easy for people to bring drugs into the country, which are mostly consumed by the people. One of the officers interviewed was of the view that:

“Ghana has being a transit country for narcotic drugs for a while now. This is because it’s profitable sending them to the developed countries. And about Ghana becoming a user country, I think is also happing now in the country. From the intelligence we gathered, it is now very difficult to traffic drugs from Ghana to the developed countries due to the collaboration of local law enforcement agencies and foreign law enforcement agencies like the Special Investigation Unit (SIU) from the US and West Bridge from UK. Even though we benefit from the collaborative efforts of these I think it’s usually their own interest they are after, which is to prevent transit drags from reaching their countries. So if most of these drugs that come in to the country due to the porous nature of our Borders remains then the people end up being the consumers of the drugs” (Individual Interview, 2017)

Another officer also indicated that:

“Inbound drugs such as heroin are mostly produced in Pakistan and Afghanistan and shipped to East African countries like Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Madagascar. These drugs are then trafficked to Ghana. Cocaine are produced in Colombia and Brazil and then sent to Brazil and Mexico. They are then shipped from Ghana to European countries such as United Kingdom (UK), Netherlands, and Portugal etc.” (Individual Interview, 2017)
In addition, respondents were asked to indicate if they agree or disagree with the view that there is a link between drug trafficking and international migration (see Table 5.8). Out of the 230 respondents sampled, majority, representing 74.3 percent strongly agreed to the view that there is a link between drug trafficking and international migration whereas 25.7 percent strongly disagreed with it. More females (77%) strongly agreed than males (72.3%), albeit majority of both males and females strongly agreed to the link between international migration and drug trafficking.

Moreover, the study further ascertained from respondents if Ghanaians and other Nationals are likely to team up and engage in drug trafficking. The result is presented in Table 5.8. The result shows that 61.3 percent of respondents strongly disagreed with the view that Ghanaians and other Nationals collaborate to engage in drug trafficking, whereas 38.7 percent strongly agreed. In terms of variations across gender of respondents, though majority of both males and females strongly disagreed, more males (62.3%) strongly disagreed than females (60%). During the in-depth interview with some of the officers, they indicated that the drug trade involves other nationals to team up or collaborate with other nationals, especially point of transit and destination. One officer indicated;

“*There is always a case that drug barons in Ghana will have to team up with other Nationals to engage in drug trafficking. This is mostly because drug trafficking is a Trans-National crime and for one to operate from one country to the other is very important, thus one ought to have nationals from other countries to help in their operations*” (Individual Interview, 2017)

On the other hand, respondents were asked to indicate if they agree or disagree with the view that, foreign nationals from Africa and elsewhere are more likely to engage in drug trafficking in Ghana. This was done towards the ascertainment of the perceived role of foreign nationals from other African countries in the drug trade in Ghana. The results in Table 5.8 show that majority of respondents (63.9%) strongly disagreed with the
perception that other nationals from African are more likely to engage in drug trafficking relative to those that strongly agreed (36.1%).

Table 5.8: Summary of Relationship between Sex of respondents and their Perceived Link between Drug Trafficking and International Migration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Ghana has become a drug transit and user country</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ghana has become a drug transit and user country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>52.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>48.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>48.5%</strong></td>
<td><strong>51.5%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>50.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>50.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Drug trafficking &amp; international migration Linkage</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drug trafficking &amp; international migration Linkage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>23.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>77.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>27.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>72.3%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>25.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>74.3%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Ghanaians and other Nationals are likely to team up to engage in drug trafficking</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ghanaians and other Nationals are likely to team up to engage in drug trafficking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>60.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>40.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>62.3%</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>61.3%</strong></td>
<td><strong>38.7%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Foreign nationals from Africa and Elsewhere are more likely to engage in drug trafficking in the country</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign nationals from Africa and Elsewhere are more likely to engage in drug trafficking in the country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>63.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>64.6%</strong></td>
<td><strong>35.4%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>63.9%</strong></td>
<td><strong>36.1%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)
5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter examined the trends in drug trafficking in Ghana from 2009 to 2015. Again this was also examined in relation to nationality and gender of drug traffickers. The results of the analysis revealed that within the seven year period (2009-2015), 2011 recorded the highest recorded drug trafficking cases in Ghana with 2013, recording lowest. The porous nature of our borders accounts for the increase in drug trafficking in Ghana. Ghanaians were the major drug traffickers relative to Nigerians and other nationals. Despite the increase in female drug traffickers in the world, majority of the reported drug traffickers were males compared to females.

All the respondents were generally aware of drug trafficking and mostly gets information of drug trafficking from the radio, in-service training, television, internet and other social media platforms like WhatsApp, Facebook etc. With respect to how drug trafficking and its threats are constructed in Ghana, the results show that it is mostly via media reportage, public reaction and political pronouncements. With regards to type of people who are mostly into drug trafficking, majority of respondents indicated that the rich and literate are mostly the ones who are into drug trafficking, relative to the poor and illiterate. In view of this, respondents cited economic hardship and social frustrations, the need to get rich quickly and ignorance as the chief reasons why people engage in drug trafficking. Majority of respondents also indicated that the porous nature of our borders and ineffective policies to address drug trafficking are some of the reasons why drug cartels could infiltrate the country. Although efforts are being made by the various law enforcement agencies to combat drug trafficking, respondents were of the view that Ghana has become a drug transit and user country. In addition, majority of respondents perceive that Ghanaians and other nationals are likely to collaborate to engage in drug trafficking in Ghana.
CHAPTER SIX

DRUG TRAFFICKING POLICY INTERVENTIONS AND

CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE CONTROL OF DRUG

TRAFFICKING IN GHANA

6.1 Introduction

The chapter presents the results of the analysis on policy interventions to combat drug trafficking in Ghana. It also discusses the various challenges confronting the law enforcement agencies in the control or fight against drug trafficking in the country. Specific references are made to the direct/indirect Government/State interference in the fight against drug trafficking, the various strategies or measures adopted to combat this menace, the challenges confronting the various agencies involved and measures adopted to curb this problem.

6.2 Drug Policy Interventions in Ghana

In recent times, Ghana has given much priority to the need to curtail drug trafficking. It would suffice to point out that, through its endogenous initiatives and other concerted efforts with the international community, the government has devised various effective measures to combat drug trafficking in the country. As a result, Ghana has teamed up with the international community in sanctioning relevant conventions and treaties which provide the impetus and capacity to combat drug trafficking in the country. Ghana is a signatory to the 1961 Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, the 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances, the 1972 Protocol Amending the 1961 Single Convention, the 1988 Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances (NACOB Annual Report, 2008). The United Kingdom (UK) and Ghana launched the
“Operation Westbridge” in 2006 to help Ghana deal with the drug menace in the country. The operation yielded significant results. For example, it led to £214 million worth of drugs impounded at the Kotoka International Airport (Daily Graphic, 5th April, 2011).

In Ghana, the Customs, Excise Preventive Services (CEPS), Narcotics Control Board (NACOB), Ghana Police Service (GPS) and the Judiciary are the main actors in the fight against illegal drugs in the country. The CEPS, NACOB and GPS maintain law and order by apprehending offenders whereas the Judiciary interprets the law. These institutions work closely in the fight against drug trafficking in the country. The GPS are tasked to arrest people engaged in drug trafficking and process them for court. Given the urgent need to clampdown on the drug menace, the GPS via its Criminal Investigations Department (CID) has its own Narcotics Unit mandated to apprehend people engaged in drug business in the country.

The Judiciary then interprets the law and hands out sentences to them if they are found guilty of the offense. Officials from CEPS are positioned at the borders, harbours and ports of the country to ensure that genuine and standard goods come into the country. As a result, they are mandated to ensure that illicit or illegal drugs are neither transported in nor out of the country. Drug traffickers are often arrested by this institution. The Narcotics Control Board (NACOB), established under the Narcotics Drugs Act 1990/PNDC Law 236 on the other hand, is the central organizing body responsible for drug related problems in the country. It’s one of the autonomous drug enforcement agencies responsible for collating and collecting information on drugs for use by the government; receives and refers for investigations cases and complaints of allegations, or suspension of any prohibited drug activity, partners with international bodies on narcotic issues, educate the public on the dangers of drug use or involvement. They are mostly stationed at Ghana’s International Airport, various ports and harbours, as well as other entry points. Together
with other agencies like the GPS, CEPS and the judiciary, some significant results have been attained in the fight against illicit drug business in the country.

6.3 The Role of the State/Government in Controlling Drug Trafficking

One of the major actors in the fight against drug trafficking is the State/Government. Certainly, with an increase in the rate of drug trafficking in most West African countries, the onus lies on the State or Government to put in appropriate measures to combat this menace. As a result, various law enforcement agencies have been equipped and stationed at various borders and ports, all geared towards curbing the movement of drugs in or out of the country. Institutions such as the Narcotics Control Board (NACOB), the Ghana Police Service (GPS), the Customs Excise and Preventive Service (CEPS) and the Judiciary are all mandated to rid the country of drug trafficking menace. Be that as it may, there are some reported incidences of some state officials or government officials who are actively engaged in the drug trade, thus often play passive roles in the transit of drugs. As a result of these circumstances, there is high tendency for these officials to intervene or interfere in the activities of these security officials (i.e. CEPS, NACOB, and Police, etc.) in their fight against drug trafficking. Moreover, these officials often act at the behest of these State officials and are perhaps obligated to act contrary to the mandate of their duty against this backdrop the study sought the need to ascertain from respondents if the State or Government officials interfere negatively in combating drug trafficking in Ghana. This was examined in relation to the gender of respondents. The results of this analysis is presented in Table 6.1

The result of the analysis shows that 60 percent of the respondents were of the view that the State or Government Officials do not interfere negatively in their fight against drug trafficking in Ghana whereas 40 percent of respondents reported the negative interference
of Government officials in curbing the movement of drugs from or into the country. Even though the majority of respondents from both sexes indicated that there are no negative state or government interference (see Table 5.1), a higher percentage of the males (41.5%) than the females (37.8%) were of the view that Government officials interfere negatively in the fight against drug trafficking. There is no significant relationship between sex of respondent and their perception in this regard ($\chi^2$ statistic = .49, df = 1, $p = 0.49 >0.05$).

Table 6.1: Summary of Relationship between Sex of Respondents and Perceived State/ Government Interference in Combating Drug Trafficking In Ghana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>State/Government Officials Interfere Negatively in Combating Drug Trafficking in Ghana</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interfere</td>
<td>Do not Interfere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>37.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>63.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>41.5%</strong></td>
<td><strong>58.5%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>39.6%</strong></td>
<td><strong>60.4%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)  
$\chi^2$ statistic = .49, df = 1, $p = 0.49 >0.05$

Further attempts were made to examine the role of some state officials in interfering in the fight against drug trafficking. Respondents were asked if there has ever been a situation where a State official tried to interfere in a particular drug trafficking case they were involved in. This was to specifically identify how state officials interfere in drug trafficking cases in the country. The result of this is presented in Figure 6.1. Out of the 230 respondents sampled, majority, representing 74.8 percent revealed that, there has never been a situation where a state or government official tried to interfere with drug trafficking cases they were involved. Nonetheless, 25.2 percent of respondents were of the view that there have been circumstances where State or Government officials had interfered in drug trafficking cases.
Respondents were asked if there are strategies or measures put in place by the government to combat drug trafficking in Ghana. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 6.2. Out of the 230 respondents sampled, 82.2% responded in the affirmative whereas 17.8 percent indicated that there are no strategies or measures to combat drug trafficking in Ghana. The results also show that more females (84%) were aware of these strategies than males (80.8%).

Table 6.2: Relationship between Sex & Strategies to Combat Drug Trafficking in Ghana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Are there Strategies to combat Drug Trafficking in Ghana</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80.8%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82.2%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)
An attempt was made to ascertain the effectiveness of these strategies in controlling drug trafficking in Ghana (See Table 6.3). Majority of respondents (68.7%) revealed that the strategies adopted to control drug trafficking in Ghana are ineffective.

Table 6.3: Relationship between Sex & the Efficiency of Strategies to Combat Drug Trafficking in Ghana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Efficiency of the Drug Trafficking Control Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effective</td>
<td>Ineffective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35.0%</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.5%</td>
<td>71.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.3%</td>
<td>68.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)

6.4 Challenges Associated with Drug Trafficking Control in Ghana

Drug trafficking across the globe is very intricate and involves a lot of networks and resources to achieve it. The practice often involves various formal and informal networks with some powerful people. Rawlings (2014) is of the view that a successful illicit drug transaction is largely contingent on the will of political leaders, the moral standards of the society and the skills and ingenuity of the individual in executing the crime. For instance, Block (1994) in a study of organized crime in New York, argues that organized crime is represented by a series of reciprocal relationships between professional criminals, legitimate businesses and politicians. These individuals or groups may engage in the process of social networking for the provision of illicit goods and services or gain access to other lucrative criminal opportunities (McIllwain, 1999; Kleemans & de Poot, 2008). As a result, combating drug trafficking in most countries have been an arduous task, especially for the various law enforcement agencies mandated to prevent drug trafficking. The corrupt practices of some state or government officials, security personnel and the
drug traffickers make it very tedious to curb the drug trade in most countries. Anning and Amedzrator (2013) indicated that an efficient drug trafficking network is made possible by several people including the traditional and youth leaders of the communities who assist in the transfer and distribution, the businessmen, members of the security forces and politicians. In some jurisdiction, lack of motivation, mistrust in the judicial system and corruption serve as the bane to effective drug trafficking control. Against this background, the study examined the factors that are likely to influence security officials to connive with drug traffickers in the drug trade. As a result, respondents were asked to indicate the factors that are likely to influence security officials to cooperate with drug traffickers in Ghana. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 6.4.

The results of the analysis show that, out of the 230 respondents sampled, 69.6 percent of respondents indicated that insufficient financial motivation are the chief reasons why security personnel team up with drug traffickers. Also, 20.9 percent attributed their collaboration with drug traffickers to the desire of some security personnel to get rich quickly. Some respondents (3.9%) bemoaned lack of trust in the judicial system to prosecute offenders, given the influence these drug traffickers often have and their association with some government or state officials. Unsurprisingly, financial motivation is the principal or main reason why security personnel often collaborate with drug traffickers in Ghana. In the qualitative facet of the study some key informants were of the view that the people often involved in the drug business are rich, powerful with various forms of formal and informal social networks established in the country to enable them operate and avoid detection by drug enforcement agencies. They keep bribing their way through the system. Given the income some of the personnel earn annually or monthly, they are often swayed into accepting them, especially the corrupt ones, who put money ahead of country. One of the security personnel reported;
“I think money is the main reason why some of the law enforcement agencies work together or allow these people (drug traffickers) to send drugs outside or bring them into the country. They give them all sort of money, cars and even promise them houses all in an attempt to get them to cooperate” (Key informant interview, 14/05/17).

The views of this respondent is in line with the criminal case in 2011, which involved NACOB officers and Drug Traffickers. Even though NACOB has gained the public trust as one of reliable institution to combat drug trafficking, the arrest of some NACOB officers in August, 2011 for allegedly collaborating with drug traffickers dented the image of the institution. Aning (2010) is of the view that in some cases, the security officials provide some form of security for the traffickers. The case of the five Ghanaian police officers who were arrested in September 2012 for the role they played in the trafficking of 1.5 tons of cannabis which was valued at £4.3 million to the United Kingdom is one major example that depicts the role of security agencies in the trafficking of drugs in Ghana.

Some of the respondents were of the view that, aside the financial motivation which more often than not persuade officers to work with these drug traffickers, there are instances that these people are able to influence top State or Government officials to intervene for them. They are very powerful, both financially and in terms of their social capital. One Officer interviewed indicated that

“The people involved in this kind of business will surprise you. Sometimes you impound a drug and you want to process the person for court. Someone who works within the government will issue a command and you have no option than to discontinue with the case and set the person free. So why won’t you rather cooperate with the offender if he has something to offer?” (Individual Interview, 2017)

While another respondents also indicated that;
“We are always talking as if we don’t how some ‘big men’ influence everything in this country. Some people have so much connections that no matter how you deal with the case, you will get someone telling you to release the offender because it’s a relative, a friend or schoolmate. If the superiors speak, who am I to disobey?” (Individual Interview, 2017)

The impression one gets from the above excerpts is that these factors play significant role in contributing to some of the reasons why security personnel often team up with drug traffickers. Given the resources and networks of the people involved in the drug business, they are able to influence the agencies and institutions mandated to control or curb their activities. To a large extent, most of the security personnel accept bribes from the drug traffickers because of inadequate financial motivation. In addition, as Ellis (2009) puts it, this people are influenced by people and networks that are more powerful than their candour.

In consonance with Durkheim’s assertion on system of maintaining cohesion in a society and organising societies, one can clearly argue that ineffectiveness of institutions mandated to fight drug trafficking disrupt the system. Thus the continuous operation of traffickers could be blamed on the weaknesses of our institutions. On the other hand, the system is also supposed to provide these institutions with incentives and the necessary resources to enable them work effectively. Therefore, institutions cannot be solely blamed for the drug menace. On the other hand, Weber believes that enforcement of the powers of those who have been given the mandate should be enough to curb illicit operations. However, the drug trade has invaded these enforcement institutions and drug barons sometimes have control over people in the helm of affairs thus they are unable to enforce law and order.
Table 6.4: Reasons Why Security Personnel Cooperate with Drug Traffickers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient financial motivation</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to get rich quick</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of trust in the judicial system</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State or government officials' interference</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>230</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)

Effective control of drug trafficking relies heavily on the security personnel involved. Thus, if these agencies are fraught with some challenges, it becomes very difficult to ensure effective control of drug trafficking in the country. Bribery and corruption issues often derail the mandate of these institutions. The people involved in the drug trade have the resources to bribe their way through a corrupt system. Against this backdrop, the study further examined the problems that confront law enforcement agencies in the discharge of their duties. Out of the 230 respondents, 43.9 percent were of the view that lack of financial motivation is the major problem that confronts them in the discharge of their duties, followed by insufficient logistics and technology (37%) (See Table 6.5). Lack of research and training of personnel on how to combat drug trafficking was also reported as one of the problems that affect effective control of drug trafficking in Ghana. The evidence from the table suggests that inadequate financial motivation and lack of logistics are the major problems security agencies face in controlling drug trafficking in Ghana. This finding is in line with the study by (Bonsu, 2011) where most of the drug enforcement agencies bemoaned inadequate financial motivation and logistics as major problems crippling the activities and objectives of the institution.

In the face of inadequate financial motivations coupled with lack of logistics, bribery and corruption often take center stage in crippling the quest to clampdown on drug trafficking and illicit drug business in the country. These securities bemoaned financial motivation as
a bane to effectively dealing with the drug menace in the country. According to some informants, the drug dealers are very rich people who belong to a network of very rich men who can easily pay their way through the system. Mostly, some officers are financially motivated by these officers in order to facilitate their business. One informant remarked:

“One core issue which I believe when dealt with by the government would help in the fight against drug trafficking and illicit drug business in the country is financial motivation. Most of these officers are not paid well so it becomes easy for these drug dealers to bribe them. Remember they are humans and can easily be convinced. If the appropriate measures are taken to resolve this problem, I believe the solutions to the other problems will fall in line (Key informant interview, 25/05/17)

The excerpts from this informants lends support to the fact that lack of financial motivation is a major problem confronting law enforcement agencies in the fight against drug trafficking in the country. The study by Bonsu (2011) shows that in some instances, security officers are persuaded with bribes as much as $2000. He suggests that in such situations, security officers hide behind insufficient or lack of logistics at the check point and allow the couriers to traffic these drugs.

Table 6.5: Problems Confronting Law Enforcement Agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems Facing Law Enforcement Officers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of financial motivation</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of research and advance training for personnel</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient logistic and technology</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State or government officials' interference</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (Please specify)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>230</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feld data (2017)
6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter examined drug policy interventions to combat drug trafficking in Ghana. It also assessed the various challenges that confront law enforcement agencies in their fight against drug trafficking in Ghana. In Ghana, the Customs, Excise Preventive Services (CEPS), Narcotics Control Board (NACOB), Ghana Police Service (GPS) and the Judiciary are the main actors in the fight against illegal drugs in the country. The CEPS, NACOB and GPS maintain law and order by apprehending offenders whereas the Judiciary interprets the law. There are some reported incidences of some state officials or government officials who are actively engaged in the drug trade, thus often play passive roles in the transit of drugs. The result of this study shows that majority of respondents sampled were of the view that the State/Government do not directly/indirectly interfere in their fight against drug business in the country. With respect to why some security personnel cooperate with drug traffickers, majority of respondents revealed that inadequate financial motivation from the government coupled with the need to get rich quickly are some of the reasons why they allow drug trafficking in the country. Additionally, inadequate financial motivation, lack of logistics, and Government/State interference are some of the major problems facing the law enforcement agencies in the discharge of their duties.
CHAPTER SEVEN
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

7.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the summary of the key findings of the study in relation to the study’s objectives. The chapter also provides a conclusion based on the findings of the study. Lastly, some recommendations are made based on the findings of the study.

7.2 Summary
This study examined international migration and drug trafficking in Ghana. It specifically examined trends in drug trafficking cases in Ghana from 2009 to 2015 and the socio-demographic characteristics of the people involved. It also assessed the specific vulnerabilities and the perceived socio-economic benefits that influence migrants to engage in drug trafficking. Lastly, it examines policy interventions implemented to deal with drug trafficking in Ghana and the challenges associated with the control of drug trafficking in Ghana. Using the case of security personnel from NACOB and GPS, simple random sampling technique was used in sampling 230 respondents for the questionnaire survey and key informant and personal interviews were also conducted with key stakeholders and other Drug Enforcement Officers. The key findings of this study are discussed below.

7.2.1 Summary of Key Findings
The results of the analysis show that 2011 recorded the highest recorded drug trafficking case in Ghana with 2013, recording lowest. There was an increase in drug trafficking from 2009 to 2011 (12.5% to 22.6%), and a decline from 2011 to 2013 (22.6% to 9.8%). However, there was an increase from 2013 to 2015 (9.8% to 15.9%). The increase in
reported drug trafficking cases in 2011 could be as a result of the porous nature of our borders and ports, poor governance, loose security systems, and ineffective government institutions whereas the decline can be associated with the strict measures adopted by the various drug enforcement agencies like NACOB, GPS, and CEPS. The result is consistent with the findings of studies by Bernstein (1999) and Aning (2010) which show that Ghana has become a defined route for the trafficking of illicit drugs from Latin America and Southeast Asia to consumers in North America and European countries. The majority of the drug traffickers were Ghanaians (54%) relative to Nigerians (29%) and other Nationals (17%). With respect to the gender of the drug traffickers, the results indicate that males are the dominant sex in the drug trade, albeit there has been an increase in females in the drug trade over the years. Out of the 229 reported drug trafficking cases, 82.5 were males and 17.5 were females. This contradicts the findings of Punch (2008) which show that females are becoming the stronger force, mostly serving as couriers in the drug trade.

Expectedly, all the respondents sampled were aware of drug trafficking issues in Ghana, given the nature of their work. With respect to their sources of information on issues pertaining to drug trafficking, radio, in-service training and television were the major sources of information. Other social media platforms like WhatsApp, Facebook, Twitter etc. were the least represented information source in terms of drug trafficking in Ghana. This suggests that radio plays a key role as a medium for the dissemination of information about drug trafficking in Ghana. In terms of how drug trafficking and its threats are constructed in Ghana, the results show that it is mostly via media reportage, public reaction and political pronouncements. With respect to public reaction, majority of male respondents (25.4%) attributed this as an avenue for awareness creation as compared to females (19%), though the chi square test reported no significant relationship between the two variables.
The majority of security personnel sampled were of the view that drug traffickers are mostly the rich and literate relative to the poor and illiterate. None of the female respondents perceived the literate to be involved in drug trafficking as compared to male respondents. Nonetheless there was no significant relationship between the gender of respondents and their perception about the category of people involved in drug trafficking in Ghana. Some security personnel also revealed that in situation where the poor are involved in the act, it’s often due to some pressure to make ends meet, sort a pressing need or get rich quickly.

With reference to the socio-economic conditions that motivate people to engage in drug trafficking, majority of respondents cited economic hardship and social frustrations and the “need to get rich quick” as the main reasons why people engage in drug trafficking. Ignorance and curiosity on the part of drug traffickers were also cited as the reason why people engage in the act of trafficking drugs. Moreover, majority of respondents (99.6%) were of the view that there is the possibility of drug cartels infiltrating and establishing themselves in the country. Majority of respondents also indicated that the porous nature of our borders and ineffective policies to address drug trafficking are some of the reasons why drug cartels could infiltrate the country. Although efforts are being made by the various law enforcement agencies to combat drug trafficking, respondents were of the view that Ghana has become a drug transit and user country. In addition, majority of respondents perceive that Ghanaians and other nationals are likely to collaborate to engage in drug trafficking in Ghana. Majority of respondents also indicated that the porous nature of our borders and ineffective policies to address drug trafficking are some of the reasons why drug cartels could infiltrate the country. Although efforts are being made by the various law enforcement agencies to combat drug trafficking, respondents were of the view that Ghana has become a drug transit and user country. In addition, majority of
respondents perceive that Ghanaians and other nationals are likely to collaborate to engage in drug trafficking in Ghana.

In Ghana, the Customs, Excise Preventive Services (CEPS), Narcotics Control Board (NACOB), Ghana Police Service (GPS) and the Judiciary are the main actors in the fight against illegal drugs in the country. The CEPS, NACOB and GPS maintain law and order by apprehending offenders whereas the Judiciary interprets the law. Ghana has also collaborated with the international community in sanctioning relevant conventions and treaties which provide the impetus and capacity to combat drug trafficking in the country. Officials from CEPS are stationed at the borders, harbours and ports of the country to ensure that genuine and standard goods come into the country; The GPS are tasked to arrest people engaged in drug trafficking and process them for court; NACOB on the other hand, is the central coordinating body responsible for drug related problems in the country; and the Judiciary then interprets the law and hands out sentences to them if they are found guilty of the offense.

The results of the analysis also show that there is some reported incidence of some state officials or government officials who are actively engaged in the drug trade, thus often play passive roles in the transit of drugs. The result of this study shows that majority of respondents sampled were of the view that the State/Government do not directly/indirectly interfere in their fight against drug business in the country. With respect to why some security personnel cooperate with drug traffickers, majority of respondents revealed that inadequate financial motivation from the government coupled with the need to get rich quickly are some of the reasons why they allow drug trafficking in the country. Additionally, inadequate financial motivation, lack of logistics, and Government/State interference are some of the major problems facing the law enforcement agencies in the discharge of their duties.
7.3 Conclusion

Evidence from the findings of this study suggest that, even though several strict measures have been adopted by the government in conjunction with other international bodies to clampdown on drug trafficking, it still persist as a menace in the country. As a result, Ghana is perceived as a drug transit and user country. Undoubtedly, Ghanaians and other Nationals continue to use the ports and borders of the country to traffic drugs. The increase in the use of women as couriers cannot be overemphasized, albeit the results of this study show that drug trafficking trade is a male dominated business. One would argue that financial and economic motives often drive people to engage in this trade, considering the lucrative nature of the business. However, it is clear that in some instances, drug traffickers are often driven by curiosity and ignorance. The poor often become victims when there is the urgent need for money to settle a pressing social issue or the need to get rich quickly. The onus lies on the porous nature of our borders, corruption, direct/indirect State/Government interference, inadequate economic/financial motivation and lack of logistics as the main reason for continues use of the borders and ports of the country as transit points of illicit drugs. To a large extent, corruption and Government/State interference continue to serve as a bane to effective control of drug trafficking. Drug dealers often use their networks and money to influence the decisions of the security agencies (CEPS, NACOB, GPS) and the Judiciary. The findings of this study lend support to the study by Akyeampong (2005) and Bonsu (2011). Also, the study’s findings resonate with the system theory posited by Durkheim and Weber; thus ineffectiveness of institutions mandated to fight drug trafficking disrupt the system. The study concludes that even though Ghana has made significant strides in combating drug trafficking in the country given the trends over the years, it continues to be a menace in the country.
7.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made

- The conditions of service of the various agencies and law enforcement units tasked to curb drug trafficking should be improved. Given the fact that most of these security personnel are easily lured by drug traffickers with money and other forms of bribe. This will go a long way to motivate them in the discharge of their duties. These could be in the form of increase in their salary, allowances and other benefits which will serve as a motivation.

- There is also the need to strengthen law enforcement agencies in more selective point of entry which often serve as the gateway for drug traffickers. To achieve this, the necessary logistics and equipment should be provided to improve the services of these institutions. These could be in form of advance scanners at the various ports and harbours, vehicles and communication gadgets to improve access to information and border patrols. Additionally, frequent training should be provided for the officers to orient them on current practices of illicit drug traffickers and ways of combating them.

- In order to clampdown on corruption and state interference in drug control, there is the need to actively confront the various forms of political and government challenges that promote corruption within the security services and the Judiciary services, which most drug barons and traffickers tend to exploit. Some special independent court or prosecutor should be established to investigate and prosecute Government/State officials and security officials who connive, enable or facilitate in the drug trafficking trade in Ghana.

- There should be public campaigns to educate the citizens about the dangers of drug trafficking to the trafficker, the drug user, and the national image. These
sensitisation or media campaigns should be carried by the National Centre for Civic Education (NCCE) in association with relevant agencies such as NACOB, GPS and other interested stakeholders.
REFERENCES


Crusader, (2007). Drug trafficking: Growing role of women is a cause for concern.


APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON

THE CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES,

(SEcurity Personnel)

I am a student from the centre for migration studies at university of Ghana, Legon. I am conducting a study on “International Migration and Drug trafficking from Ghana”. As part of my research towards the award of MPHIL degree, I humbly request you to grant me an interview lasting for about an hour. Your participation is very important for the success of this project. If at any point you do not understand our questions, please let me know and I will be glad to clarify. Be assured that this interview is purely for academic purposes and will be treated confidentially. No information provided will be passed on to any third party.

Thank you for your cooperation.

IDENTIFICATION

Number________________________________________Profession____________________

Marital Status______________________________Occupation_____________________

Telephone number________________________Email:___________________________
SECTION I: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Firstly I would like to ask you a few questions to help me analyse the survey. To answer place a tick in the boxes that apply.

1. Age ____________________________

2. Sex

   1. Female ☐  2. Male ☐

3. What is your level of education?

   1. JSS/JHS ☐
   2. Middle School ☐
   3. SSS/SHS ☐
   4. Technical/Commercial ☐
   5. Tertiary ☐

4. Which of these religions do you belong to?

   1. Catholic ☐
   2. Anglican ☐
   3. Presbyterian ☐
   4. Methodist ☐
   5 Charismatic ☐
6. Islamic

7. Other (Please specify)

5. What is your ethnic background?

1. Ga Adangbe

2. Akan

3. Ewe

4. Bono

5. Dagbani

6. Dagaare

7. Other (Please specify)

6. Which of these groups does your monthly income fall into?

1. 1 – 100 cedis

2. 200 – 300 cedis

3. 400 – 500 cedis

4. 600 – 700 cedis

5. 800 - 900 cedis

6. More than 1000 cedis
SECTION II: KNOWLEDGE OF DRUG TRAFFICKING IN GHANA

I am going to ask you questions about your knowledge of drug trafficking and international migration.

7. Have you heard about drug trafficking?
   1. Yes □
   2. No □

8. How did you hear about drug trafficking?
   1. Radio □
   2. Television □
   3. Internet □
   4. Government □
   5. In-service training □
   6. Other (Please specify) ____________________________________

9. In what way is drug trafficking and its threats constructed in Ghana?
   1. Through media reportage □
   2. Political pronouncements □
   3. Religious discourse □
   4. public reactions □
   5. Other (Please specify) ____________________________________
10. When you hear about drug trafficking, who or what category of people come to your mind?

1. The Rich  
2. The Poor  
3. Literate  
4. Illiterate  
5. Other (Please specify) ________________________________

11. Please explain answer to question

10______________________________

12. Why do you think people engage in drug trafficking?

1. Economic and social frustrations hardship  
2. Adventure  
3. Get rich quick  
4. Ignorance  
5. Other (Please specify) ________________________________

13. Do you think drug cartels can infiltrate into the country?

1. Yes  
2. No  

14. Which of the reasons explain why you think drug cartels can infiltrate into Ghana?
1. Porous nature of our borders
2. Inadequate and effective policies to address drug trafficking threats
3. Ghana’s foreign policy
4. Lack of knowledge on the part of the general public on how to identify and deal with drug trafficking threat
5. Other (Please specify) ________________________________________________

Questions 15 to 17 are about your perception of a link between drug trafficking and international migration. Please tick the box that best describes your perception.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>I strongly disagree</th>
<th>I Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 Given the recent rise in drug trafficking in West Africa, is Ghana at a risk of becoming a transit and user country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 There is a link between drug trafficking and international migration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Ghanaians who left the country team up with other nationals to engage in drug trafficking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Foreign nationals from Africa and Elsewhere are more likely to engage in drug trafficking in the country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
19. Please explain your answer for question 16


SECTION III: POLICY INTERVENTIONS AND CHALLENGES WITH CONTROLLING DRUG TRAFFICKING.

In this section I will be asking you questions about government interventions and some of the challenges associated with combating drug trafficking.

20. Does state or government officials’ interfere negatively in combating drug trafficking in the country?

1. Yes ☐
2. No ☐

21. Have you ever had a situation in which a state official tried to interfere in drug trafficking cases?

1. Yes ☐
2. No ☐

22. Do you think Ghana has the strategies/measures to combat drug trafficking?

1. Yes ☐
2. No ☐
23. Do you think these strategies/measures to combat drug trafficking are effective?

1. Yes ☐
2. No ☐

24. What factors are likely to contribute to security officials conniving with drug traffickers?

1. Insufficient financial motivation ☐
2. Desire to get rich quick ☐
3. Lack of trust in the judicial system ☐
4. State or government officials’ interference ☐
5. Other (Please specify) ____________________________

25. What is the major problem facing law enforcement officers in combating drug trafficking in Ghana?

1. Insufficient financial motivation ☐
2. Lack of research in to causes of drug trafficking and advances training for personal ☐
3. Insufficient logistic and technology ☐
4. State or government officials’ interference ☐
5. Other (Please specify) ____________________________
26. What do you think the Government should do in combating drug trafficking in Ghana?

1. Enact more laws to fight drug trafficking

2. Prevent Ghanaians from engaging in drug trafficking

3. Arrest and jail Ghanaians and other nationals who are engaged in drug trafficking

4. Public educational campaigns on dangers of drug trafficking

5. Check irregular migration

6. Do none of the above

7. Other (Please specify) ____________________________________________

27. Please is there anything you would like to add or clarify? ____________________________
Appendix B: Interview Guide

THE CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON

(SEcurity Personnal, In-depth Interview)

I am a student from the centre for migration studies at university of Ghana, Legon. I am conducting a study on “International Migration and Drug trafficking from Ghana”. As part of my research towards the award of MPHIL degree in Migration Studies, I humbly request you to grant me an interview lasting for about an hour. Your participation is very important for the success of this project. If at any point you do not understand our questions, please let me know and I will be glad to clarify. Be assured that this interview is purely for academic purposes and will be treated confidentially. No information provided will be passed on to any third party.

Thank you for your cooperation.

IDENTIFICATION

Number___________________________________Profession______________________________

Social Status______________________________occupation____________________________

Telephone number________________________Email:______________________________

SECTION A: KNOWLEDGE OF DRUG TRAFFICKING IN GHANA

1. What do you understand by drug trafficking?

2. What is the state of drug trafficking in Ghana?

3. Why do you think people engage in drug trafficking?

4. When you hear about drug trafficking, who or what category of people come to your mind?
5. Is there a link between drug trafficking and international migration? probe:
   - What is making the relationship possible/endure/flourish?
   - Weather Foreign nationals from Africa and Elsewhere are more likely to engage in drug trafficking in the country?

6. Have you ever had a situation in which a drug trafficker have being arrested

SECTION B: POLICY INTERVENTIONS AND CHALLENGES WITH CONTROLLING DRUG TRAFFICKING

1. What is the impact of drug trafficking in Ghana?
2. Does Ghana have the right strategies/measures to combat drug trafficking? Probe: for some of the measures/strategies introduced by the government.
3. Do you think this strategy/measures introduced are helping to curb drug trafficking in Ghana?
4. What are the challenges in Ghana in the fight against drug trafficking and terrorism?
5. Any recommendations?