

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**ASSESSING STAKEHOLDERS' ROLES IN CONTROLLING HUMAN
TRAFFICKING IN THE EASTERN REGION OF GHANA**

AUGUSTINE KWAKYE ARJARQUAH

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BY

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the Faculty of Social Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies,
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Master of Philosophy Degree in Geography

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Augustine Kwakye Arjarquah

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Prof. Kwabena Barima Antwi

Co-Supervisor's Signature: Date:.....

Name: Dr. Comfort Aditona

ABSTRACT

Undoubtedly, human trafficking, endangers human rights and the security of the individual human being as well as global security at large. The main objective of the study was to assess the stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. Multistage sampling approach which includes cluster, stratified and purposive sampling methods were used to select a total sample size of 100 respondents for the study. Since the problem under investigation is sensitive, snowballing sampling method was used in some instances to identify some respondents, especially trafficked victims. The main research instruments used to get data from the respondents were self-administered questionnaire and unstructured interview guide. The findings of the study revealed that few of the state institutions had specific policies on human trafficking. The study also established that mining and farming communities in the Eastern Region served as places of origin and destination for human trafficking. It was further found that the stakeholders play little role in controlling human trafficking because of limited technical and logistical capacity. It was therefore recommended that since the major places of origin and destination of human trafficking in the Eastern Region were mining, farming and fishing communities, it would be prudent for key stakeholders such as the police, chiefs and opinion leaders, and NGOs to double their efforts to embark on periodic public sensitisation and orientation for the people in those communities. This can help minimise the menace of human trafficking to its barest minimum.

KEY WORDS

Human trafficking

Victim blaming

Forced labour

Poverty

Sex tracking

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DEDICATION

To my lovely kids, Barima Addo Kwakye-Arjarquah, Maame Boahemaa Kwakye-Arjarquah and Obremponmea Agyarkobea Kwakye-Arjarquah.

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LIST OF ACCRONYMS

ACD	Association for Community Development
BNWLA	Bangladesh National Women Lawyers Association
DAM	Dhaka Ahsania Mission
GRTP	Global Report on Trafficking in Persons
HT	Human Trafficking
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IOM	International Organisation of Migration
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
OC	Organised Crime
OTD	Origin, Transit, and Destination
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
TMSS	Thengamar Mohila Sabuj Sangha
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Right
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNODC	United Nation Organisation for Domestic Crime
TIP	Trafficking in Persons
UNTOC	United Nations Convention Against Transnational
US	United States
USDOS	United States Department of State

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Globally, trafficking within countries tends to represent the majority of the offenders suspected or convicted. However, in some countries, the registration of foreign traffickers (suspected or convicted) was substantially higher than in other regions (United Nation Organisation for Domestic Crime [UNODC], 2009). According to United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (2015) report, at the close of 2014, 59.5 million people were forcibly displaced worldwide “as a result of persecution, conflict, violence, or human rights violations. This number, which includes refugees, asylum seekers, and internally displaced persons, represents the highest annual increase on record of about 8.3 million people. There are now more displaced persons globally than ever before (United States Department of State Human Trafficking Report, 2015).

The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2015) also estimates that forced labour in the private economy reaps some \$150 billion in illicit profits each year. These billions flood the formal marketplace, corrupt the global economy, and taint purchases made by unwitting consumers. Long and complex supply chains that cross multiple borders and rely on an array of subcontractors impede traceability of goods and services bought and sold every day by modern-day slaves (U.S Department of State, 2015).

International Labour Organisation (2009) estimates show that not less than 2.45 million people are trafficked in forced labour world-wide: Most victims of trafficking are exploited for prostitution (43%) overwhelmingly women and girls – or for menial labour (32%). Several hundred thousand people are estimated to be trafficked into the EU or within the EU every year (European Union Commission, 2010).

In terms of internationally accepted definition, Human trafficking is seen as an international organised crime (OC), in which human beings are exploited for profit at its heart (May, 2012). It is an abuse of basic rights, with organised criminals preying on vulnerable people to make money. In most cases, victims are made to believe that, they are being given a better opportunity to find greener pastures in the economically advanced countries such as the UK or the US. In this form of exploitation, children in particular are increasingly vulnerable and fall as victims (May).

The Palermo Protocol defines human trafficking as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation” (UN Palermo Protocol, 2002). Similar view is shared by the United Nations Convention on Transnational Organised crime which defines human trafficking as follows:

Trafficking in persons means the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, or receipt of persons either by threat or use of abduction, force, fraud,

deception or coercion, or by the giving or receiving of unlawful payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having the control over another person for the purpose of exploitation (Martin & Miller 2000, p 234).

According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes (UNODC) (2012), human trafficking is a serious international crime and a grave violation of human rights, with the exploitation of human beings for profit at its heart. It is an abuse of basic rights, with organised criminals preying on vulnerable people to make money. Like the global economic crisis, human trafficking is a global crisis that is inextricably linked to the current move of globalisation in the forced labour and sex industries involving women and children (Hoque, 2010). Additionally, Hoque, examines the painful reality of female sex workers in Bangladesh and argues that the current growth rate of sex trade in Bangladesh is fostered by social and economic vulnerabilities that impel young women to engage in commercial sex work. Consequently, what has emerged in Bangladesh and across the borders of India, Malaysia, Pakistan and other countries in Middle East is the menace of child trafficking both nationally and internationally.

According to Haken (2011), human trafficking covers trade in humans, most commonly for the purpose of sexual slavery, forced labour or commercial sexual exploitation for the trafficker or others. Human trafficking is also a trade in the extraction of human organs or tissues, including surrogacy and ova removal; or for providing a spouse in the context of forced marriage. It can occur within a country or trans-nationally and is a crime against the person being trafficked because of the violation of the victim's rights of movement through coercion and commercial exploitation. Rao and Presenti (2012) assert that human trafficking is

the trade in people, and does not necessarily involve the movement of the person from one place to another. Human trafficking represented the fastest-growing activities of trans-national criminal organisations and a condemned violation of human rights as determined by international conventions. In addition, human trafficking is subject to a directive in the European Union (Haken).

Since 1996, West and Central African governments, individually and collectively, have made significant efforts to reform the judiciary to address human trafficking (Thanh-Dam, 2006). The Libreville Common Platform of Action of the Sub-regional Consultation of the Development of Strategies to Fight Child Trafficking for Exploitative Labour Purposes in West and Central Africa was signed in 2000 by 21 countries in West and Central Africa (UNICEF, 2005). This was followed by the Declaration of Action Against Trafficking adopted by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the endorsement of ECOWAS Plan of Action 57 in Dakar in 2001 by 15 member-states. This Common Platform of Action identifies the main characteristics and causes of child trafficking, and suggests government commitment in several areas: advocacy and sensitisation campaigns; setting up appropriate legal and institutional mechanisms to address child trafficking; improving care received by trafficked children; monitoring the incidence of trafficking by collating data from (new) research; improving inter-governmental and inter-ministerial cooperation (Thanh-Dam).

The Anti-Slavery International Report (2001) notes that poverty is central in why parents, acting as intermediaries, have to trust – and send their children to work. The reality of one less mouth to feed for a poor household makes a significant difference while the prospect of good wages in a wealthier country can lure

desperate parents to trust that earnings will contribute to the child's dowry (ILO, 2009). In West and Central Africa the different perceptions of human trafficking combined with different socio-economic and political situations in the various countries have created a mixture of policy responses (UNICEF, 2002)

In Ghana, the records and evidence of human trafficking menace cut across the length and breadth of the country. For instance, according to U.S. State Department's (2008) Human Trafficking Report, Ghana is a source, transit, and destination country for children and women trafficked for the purposes of forced labour and commercial sexual exploitation. The report further explains that trafficking within the country is more prevalent than transnational trafficking and the majority of victims are children. Both boys and girls are trafficked within Ghana for forced labour in agriculture and the fishing industry, for street hawking, forced begging by religious instructors, as porters, and possibly for forced kente weaving. Over 30,000 children are believed to be working as porters, or *Kayaye*, in Accra alone. Annually, the IOM reports numerous deaths of boys trafficked into hazardous fishing with the Volta Lake estuaries. Girls are trafficked within the country for domestic servitude and sexual exploitation. To a lesser extent, boys are also trafficked internally for sexual exploitation, primarily for sex tourism (U.S. State Department).

Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies (2009) provides a report that children from Ghana are reportedly trafficked to neighboring countries to work on farms or in fishing villages, and they are trafficked internally for similar purposes. The report recounts that one boy from Immuna, a fishing village in the Central Region of Ghana, was forced to work without pay for more than 5 years in

a fishing community close to Yeji, located on the Volta River. He was one of hundreds of children rescued from forced labour in Yeji fishing communities in 2004 by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2013). Akateng, a fishing community in the Manya Krobo District in the Eastern Region, has been identified as a child-trafficking zone by the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs. It is estimated that more than 1,000 children are working as slave labourers on fishing boats across the country. The children are usually told that they are going to live with relatives who will care for them and send them to school; however, they end up working long hours on fishing boats. Boys frequently get stuck in nets at the bottom of the lake (Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies).

Furthermore, a report commissioned by the Danish Agency for Development Assistance (DANIDA, 2002) in Ghana found that about two-thirds of the trafficked children (both girls and boys) are engaged in the fishing sector. The majority of the boys are fishing assistants, while the girls in the smoking and selling of the fish (Tengey & Oguah, 2002). Referring to a UNICEF (2005) study, Riison et al. (2004) note that in northern Ghana economic hardships can pressure foster families to encourage fostered girls to go to one of the major cities to find work; or can even result in the girls leaving on their own initiative. In a number of cases the girls left for a few months to work in market places to save money to go back to school.

Trafficking in persons is a serious and growing concern for the Government of Ghana, as it has been recognised as country of origin, transit, and destination of individuals for the purposes of sexual exploitation, and domestic and commercial labour. Due to the illicit nature of human trafficking, statistics are difficult to

compile, with estimates based on reported cases. There is also a growing concern about internal child trafficking; especially, from the Central, Western and Volta Regions, to fishing communities along Lake Volta; or for domestic labour in urban areas (Ministry of Interior, 2016). In fulfilment of its international obligations, Ghana enacted the Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) and ratified the United Nations Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, supplementing the United Nations convention against transnational organised crime (United Nations, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

Global awareness of human trafficking and its impact on security and communities' development has increased in recent years, and therefore strategic attention from international policymakers is urgently required to sustain the campaign (Daglish, 2015). On the other hand, determining the exact cost of human trafficking globally is an inherently difficult task, given the clandestine nature of its funding and lack of reporting. The UN notes that the indirect costs, for example resources devoted to prevention, apprehension and prosecution, and support for victims, is another critical economic element which is inherently difficult to assess (UNODC, 2009).

Until recently, the international community failed to fully recognise and act to tackle the accelerating industry of human trafficking and its disastrous consequences. However, the negative security, economic and social impacts have generated unprecedented political momentum aimed at tackling the issue (UNODC, 2009). In West and Central Africa the different perceptions of human trafficking

combined with different socio-economic and political situations in the various countries have created a mixture of policy responses (UNICEF, 2002). The growing body of literature on human trafficking singles out the lack of access to reliable information channels regarding labour markets and living conditions as an important factor which fosters a symbiotic relationship between the trafficker and the trafficked. Control over information – or the provision of false information – by third parties can render a (potential) migrant’s careful assessment of gains totally unrealistic and enhance their susceptibility to dependency on crime networks (Thanh-Dam, 2006).

Human trafficking has flourished under vast criminal networks that exploit poor governance structures, leaving gaps in the ability to detect and prosecute the perpetrators. In addition, globalisation has contributed to increasingly large and more sophisticated criminal networks that often see the enterprise as a less risky alternative to other forms of crime (UNODC, 2012). Despite the UN and national governments increasingly adopting legislation designed to punish those responsible, often the infrastructure is not comprehensive or well-resourced enough to incite real change at the pace needed (UNODC, 2009).

Sertich and Heemskerk (2011) write that domestic trafficking is more prevalent than transnational trafficking in Ghana. People mostly trafficked are children and women (Sertich & Heemskerk, 2011). Girls from the northern regions are regularly trafficked by recruiters to act as head porters (*kayayee*) in metropolitan areas. Estimates from NGOs and other aid organisations place the number of children working in the *kayayee* business in the tens of thousands. Sertich and Heemskerk maintain that once these girls arrive at their destinations, they are not

compensated as promised and are often forced to exchange sexual services for shelter. Girls and women from the north and other poverty-stricken regions are frequently trafficked to metropolitan areas to work as domestic servants. An estimated thousands of children between the ages of three and seventeen have been and are being trafficked to the Volta Region to work in the fishing industry (U.S. Department of State, 2006).

According to the Ghana Statistics Service (2003), two in every five children aged 5-17 years have engaged in economic activity before. The study also showed that a higher proportion of children engaged in economic activity in rural areas (39.7%) surpasses those in the urban areas (17.6%). The worrying part is that there is evidence of children as young as five years engaged in economic activities (Ghana Statistical Service). A recent survey by the Service in 2008 indicates that 13 percent of the 4.7million children aged 7-14 were economically active (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012) in sectors such as agriculture (89.3 %) of working children in rural areas, fishing (2.3 %) and petty trading (3.3 %).

In furtherance of issues relating to trafficking in persons, most of the studies carried out on human trafficking in Ghana have focused on the menace of this unlawful activity from the viewpoint of the victims by considering the causes and effects of human trafficking on the physical, social and economic well-being of the victims as well as their dependents (Agbenya, 2009; Assan, 2014). Little emphasis has been laid on the role of stakeholder institutions in the fight against human trafficking. It is against this background that this study was undertaken to assess the role of stakeholder institutions in the control of human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana to bridge this knowledge gap.

General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess the role of stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana.

Specific Objectives

Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Assess the perception of stakeholder institutions on human trafficking.
2. Explore the areas where human trafficking occurs in the study area.
3. Examine the resource capacity of the stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking; and
4. Assess the level of public support that stakeholder institutions receive in controlling human trafficking.
5. Make recommendations to guide policy on human trafficking in Ghana.

Research Questions

In order to achieve the study's specific objectives, the following research questions were posed to guide the study to:

1. How do stakeholder institutions perceive human trafficking?
2. Where does human trafficking occur most in the Eastern Region?
3. What is the human and institutional capacity of the stakeholder institution in controlling human trafficking?
4. What support do stakeholder institutions receive from the general public to control human trafficking?

Significance of the Study

This study will contribute to academic research in diverse ways. The finding of this work is anticipated to unveil the level of knowledge on the key people who have been mandated by law to fight against human trafficking. Further, it is hoped that decision makers can use the results of this study to improve the evaluation process, increase the resources devoted to combating human trafficking by adopting measures to make human trafficking a comprehensive compulsory refresher course for existing service men as well as compulsory for service men in training.

More so, the findings and recommendations of the study may offer crucial information to the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MOWAC), Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ), the Ghana Police Service, other stakeholders and policy makers to engage in the planning and collaboration of activities and operations all the relevant agencies in combating human trafficking.

Organisation of the Study

The study is organised into five chapters. Chapter which is the introduction which gives the background to the study, statement of the problem, the objectives, research questions, study's significance and organisation of the study. Chapter Two discussed the related literature to the study, where both theoretical and empirical issues were reviewed. Chapter Three which dealt with research methods adopted which spells out the research design, the study area and discusses the sampling procedures used in the data collection. Chapter Four, deals with the results and

discussions of the research, while Chapter Five provides the summary, conclusions, recommendations and areas for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter discusses relevant literature that concerns the subject under study. The discussion under this chapter is organised under three broad themes namely, theoretical, empirical and conceptual perspectives. The theoretical perspective reviews various theories used in connection with human trafficking among which includes the theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behaviour, social disorganisation theory and blame the system and blame the victim theory. The empirical review looks at the various studies done by other researchers on the topic under investigation, while the conceptual perspective covers issues such as conceptualisation of human trafficking and historical perspective of human trafficking.

The literature review also provides discussions under key issues such as causes/factors that influence human trafficking; understanding the notion of development; economic development as a facilitator of human trafficking; global dimensions of human trafficking; human trafficking on the African Continent; human trafficking in Ghana; what makes a good human trafficking law; types of exploitation of trafficking persons and types of human trafficking.

Theoretical Perspectives

Theory of reasoned action

Derived from the social psychology setting, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) was proposed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1975). The components of TRA are three general constructs: behavioral intention (*BI*), attitude (*A*), and subjective norm (*SN*). TRA suggests that a person's behavioral intention depends on the person's attitude about the behavior and subjective norms $BI = (A + SN)$. If a person intends to do a behaviour then it is likely that the person will do it.

Behavioural intention measures a person's relative strength of intention to perform a behaviour. Attitude consists of beliefs about the consequences of performing the behavior multiplied by his or her evaluation of these consequences (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975). Subjective norm is seen as a combination of perceived expectations from relevant individuals or groups along with intentions to comply with these expectations. In other words, "the person's perception that most people who are important to him or her think he/she should or should not perform the behavior in question" (Ajzen & Fishbein,). To put the definition into simple terms: a person's voluntary behaviour is predicted by his/her attitude toward that behaviour and how he/she thinks other people would view him/her if he/she performed the behaviour. A person's attitude, combined with subjective norms, forms the behavioral intention. Ajzen and Fishbein suggest, however, that attitudes and norms are not weighted equally in predicting behaviour. "Indeed, depending on the individual and the situation, these factors might be very different effects on behavioral intention; thus a weight is associated with each of these factors in the

predictive formula of the theory. For example, you might be the kind of person who cares little for what others think. If this is the case, the subjective norms would carry little weight in predicting a behaviour" (Miller, 2005).

The theory of reasoned action has "received considerable and, for the most part, justifiable attention within the field of human trafficking. Not only does the model appear to predict victim's intentions and behavior quite well, it also provides a relatively simple basis for identifying where and how to target perpetrators behavioural change attempts" (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988).

In psychology, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is a theory which links beliefs and behaviour. The concept was proposed by Ajzen to improve on the predictive power of the theory of reasoned action by, including perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). It is one of the most predictive persuasion theories. It has been applied to studies of the relations among beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions and behaviour in various fields such as advertising, public relations, advertising campaigns and healthcare.

The theory states that attitude toward behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, together shape an individual's behavioural intentions and behaviour. Recently this study has been applied to assess the behaviour of victims of human trafficking and provided as strong link between the intention and behaviour, that is, positive travelling intentions leads to startup behaviour (Kautonen, Tornikoski & Kibler, 2009)

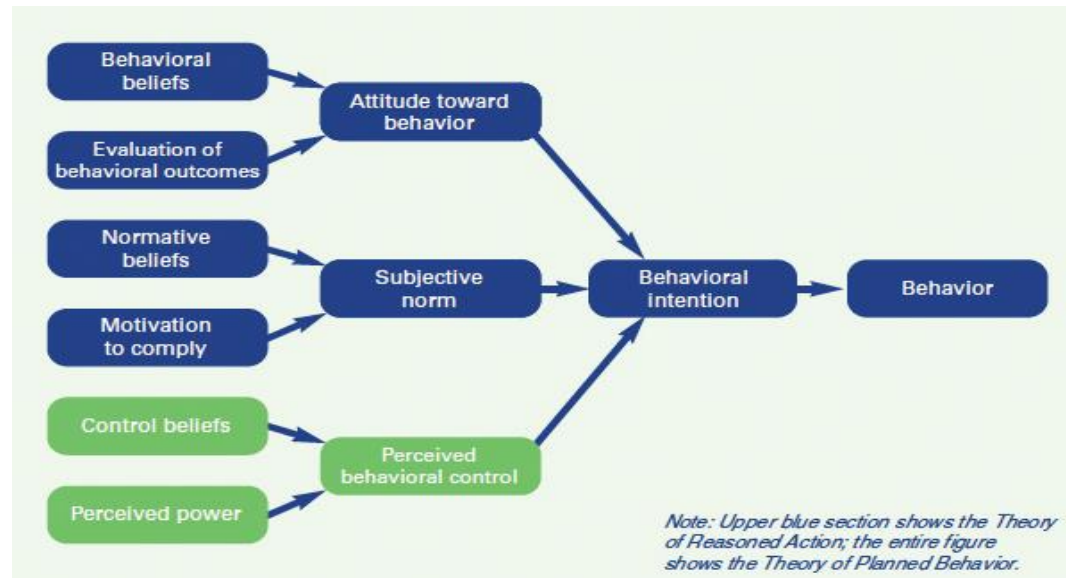


Figure 1: Theory of planned behaviour/ reasoned action

Source: Sheeran & Taylor (1999)

Social disorganisation theory

Due to the shared focus on systemic control/guardianship (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993; Massey, et al., 1989), to some extent, both social disorganisation and routine activities theories consider the spatial distribution of crime and victimisation as a function of broader structural changes, which could last over decades or even longer (Bursik, 1986; Cohen & Felson, 1979) and influence the neighbourhood life and routines.

In more practical terms, a social disorganisation framework tries to explain distribution of human trafficking, drug addiction and other crime cases as a result of the lack of formal and informal social controls which is in turn a function of the structural characteristics of a given community. In this regard, Bursik (1986) and Bursik and Grassick's (1993) argue about the impact of structural forces, such as

poverty, instability, and heterogeneity as well as political-economic shifts on the distribution of crime rates applicable to the distribution of human trafficking as well. Simply put, such macro-structural changes can account for the distribution of crime/victimisation rates through their influence on social cohesion and control in the communities (Bursik).

As for the implications of routine activities theory, increased female involvement in labour force (Cohen & Felson, 1979) decreased the level of guardianship back at home (including the guardianship for youth both back at home and in the neighbourhood, and guardianship for home as property in the neighbourhood) and increased criminal opportunity/victimisation because of increased exposure and proximity to likely/motivated offenders (because of changed sustenance activities/routines and related national/international movements). On the other hand, the women and as well as the men who are hit by poverty, mobility, heterogeneity, family disruption and urbanisation and were pushed out of their home, community, and country, there are relatively less social and economic resources left to invest and increase guardianship and decrease criminal opportunity/victimisation in their home, community, and country, such structural disadvantages therefore give rise to social disorganisation (and demise of control) in their proximal and broader social environment (Cohen & Felson).

These implies that human trafficking mainly emerges as a result of the inability of communities to regulate the behaviour of their residents and visitors because of lack of formal and informal social controls (private-parochial-public). Also, and therefore increased criminal opportunities because of changed sustenance activities and related movements/routines of the persons on the other. This overall

process ultimately increases the exposure and proximity to likely offenders in the absence of adequate controls (guardianship) in a given community.

Blame the system versus blame the victim theory

Victim-blaming is a phenomenon that has been happening since at least the beginning of recorded history but has only recently been identified as a dynamic used to empower the criminal and maintain the status quo. Victim-blaming is perpetuated by sexism, the Just World Theory, cognitive biases, and the theories of self-blame. Victim-blaming occurs when the victim of a crime or abuse is held partly or entirely responsible for the actions committed against them. In other words, the victims are held accountable for the maltreatment they have been subjected to (Birkland & Lawrence, 2002). Perpetrators of crimes for which they blame the victim commonly enjoy a privileged social status opposite the victim, and their blame typically involves use of stereotypical negative words.

The phenomenon of victim blaming is thus common in hate crimes, discrimination, rape and bullying. The main motivation for people to victim-blame is to justify abuse or social injustice. However, it is not only the perpetrator who engages in the victim-blaming. Perpetrators, bystanders and society and even the victims themselves practice and enforce victim-blaming. Each group of people who blames the victim does so for different reasons based on their power or lack thereof, self-defence and desire to find logical reasons for abuse or social injustice. In Ghana the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) have done an extensive research into issues of human trafficking, their report indicate that child trafficking abounds in communities along the lake Volta. They have been able to rescue rehabilitate and reintegrate some victims (IOM, 2002).

The victims are sometimes voluntarily out of poverty given out to fishermen for some small monies hence victims are to be blamed in this context (Voice of America, 2007). In a related development, there are also reports of children being, given away, leased, or sold by the parent to work in various sectors of the economy for either labour or sexual exploitation. Ghana has been identified as source, transit and destination to neighbouring countries such as Middle East and Gambia. Locally, victims are trafficked to fishing and mining communities to work, while others are sent to cities like Accra, Takoradi and Kumasi to work as head porters and are especially vulnerable to being exploited in prostitution. Others are also used in the tourism industries as commercial sex workers particularly in Cape Coast and Elmina (U.S. Department of Labour Bureau of International Labour Affairs, 2007).

Human Trafficking occurs internationally and nationally, a greater number of these cases occur in countries with children, victims from impoverished backgrounds. However, due to limited awareness and relatively porous security boarders' victims are transported for the Northern parts of the country to economically more endowed areas in the Southern part of Ghana. Logistical constraints on the part of stakeholders can also account for why perpetrators are able to send victims especially children between the ages of 7 and 17 years to be trafficked to and from neighbouring countries of Cote d' Ivoire, Togo, the Gambia, Nigeria and Equatorial Guinea to work at farmlands, labourers, divers and street hawkers. This could also account for why the system is to be blamed (U.S. Department of State Bureau of Democracy, Human Right, and Labour, 2013)

Ryan (1971) coined the phrase "blaming the victim" as a response to years of oppression and the civil rights movement. He describes victim-blaming as a way

to preserve the interest of the privileged group in power. Since then, advocates for crime victims, particularly those of rape, human trafficking, drug and other menace have adopted the phrase. Although Ryan coined the phrase, the phenomenon is well developed in psychology and history. As previously stated, victim-blaming has been happening at least since the beginning of recorded history. There are many examples of victim-blaming in the Old Testament regarding tragedies justified by blaming the victims as sinners (Robinson, 1994). Unfortunately, victim-blaming is still rampant today and has only recently been identified as problematic.

Empirical Review

This section provides empirical review of studies that have been undertaken in relation to the study's problem. This review is carried out to examine the problems that have been studied in the area under investigation and the methodologies employed. Furthermore, the findings of these studies are also taken into account to provide empirical direction to the study's objectives.

Dottridge (2004) , in his study, points out that the vulnerability of women and children to re-trafficking is due to factors such as the forms of intra-household decision-making and tacit 'tolerance' of trafficking mechanisms among the wider public, but also to an improper handling of trafficked persons, driven by social and cultural values that carry stigmatising effects. Reports have revealed many cases where the children and women who have been intercepted and returned to their communities are soon being subject to re-trafficking (Thanh-Dam, 2006).

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

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

Empirical analysis of Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (2004) indicates that existing protocol on handling victims of trafficking falls short in preventing re-victimisation, and that some anti-trafficking efforts can cause further damage by treating victims as criminals rather than identifying them as victims. The lack of effective protection mechanisms during reintegration can result in restricted freedom of movement, or in arbitrary detention and a disregard for the privacy of trafficked persons (Thanh-Dam, 2006).

According to Thanh-Dam, empirical data show that deprivation among children and young persons in Western and Central Africa is severe; these data provide an important empirical source for reflection and debates on migration and human trafficking in the region. The tendency to reduce explanations to ‘tradition’ and ‘culture’ may well omit important material forces that have spurred trafficking and the proliferation of human rights abuse. Rau (2002) points out in his study on child labour and HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) that ‘girls in particular – whether they are in school, working as domestic servants, trying to earn cash by hawking, or working in overt prostitution – are subject to sexual coercion, manipulation and harassment by men’. Laczko and Gramegna (2003) note the growing consensus on the existing difficulty in measuring and monitoring

trafficking given the wide range of actions and outcomes covered by the term (including recruitment, transportation, harbouring, transfer and receipt).

Prior study of Sertich and Heemskerk (2011) shows that human trafficking has taken root in Ghanaian culture for two primary reasons. First, throughout Ghana's history, parents have sent their children to live with extended family members to strengthen familial ties and enhance their children's education or skills development. For a variety of reasons, including urbanisation, poverty, and the breakdown of familial ties, this system is now regularly abused; children living with relatives are often exploited for labour, domestic services, or prevented from attending school. Second, poverty often causes Ghanaians to seek occupational opportunities outside of their communities of origin, leaving them vulnerable to traffickers (Atuguba, 2005). On the other hand, it is on record that an estimated 28.5 percent of Ghanaians live off \$1.25 per day, which is below the national poverty line, and a majority of trafficked persons originate from the poorer areas of Ghana (World Factbook-U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, 2007).

Conceptual Framework of Elements of Human Trafficking

Conceptualising the constituting elements of human trafficking on the basis of the definition given by Human Trafficking Protocol, (the 'Palermo Protocol') it is evident that human trafficking has three main constituent elements (United Nations Palermo Protocol, 2002). The five main constituent elements are presented in Figure 2.

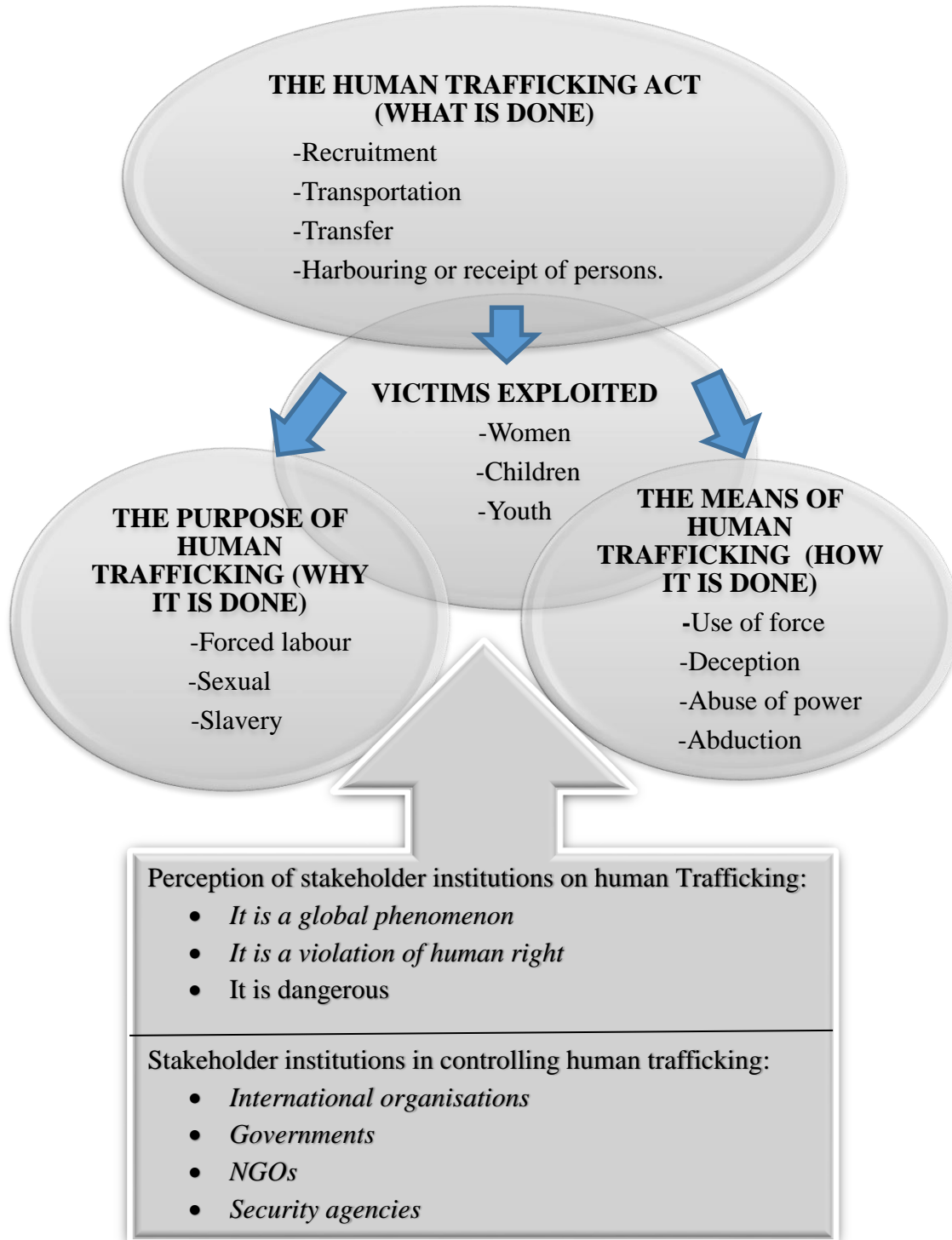


Figure 2: Constituting Element of Human Trafficking

Source: Adopted from Costa (2009)

The conceptual framework of the study provides interaction that exists among the key concepts which form the basis of human trafficking menace. Thus the framework shows the link that exists among the concepts which the objectives of the study seek to address in assessing stakeholders' roles in controlling human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The main concepts underpinning the study include: The act of human trafficking, victims exploited, the purpose of human trafficking, the means of human trafficking, how stakeholders institutions perceive human trafficking and the list of main stakeholders institution that are mandated or voluntarily control human trafficking.

The assumption of the conceptual analysis shows a bottom-up approach by stakeholders' institutions in controlling human trafficking. Thus the way stakeholders' institutions control human trafficking may be informed by how they perceive the act, victims exploited, the means and the purpose of human trafficking. This assumption supports May (2012) who writes that human trafficking is seen as an international organised crime (OC), in which human beings are exploited for profit at its heart, and that victims are made to believe that, they are being given a better opportunity to find greener pastures in the economically advanced countries such as the United Kingdom or the United States.

As indicated in Figure 2, the Act (what is done) of human trafficking involves recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons. The Means (how it is done) on the other hand involves threat or use of force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or vulnerability, or giving payments or benefits to a person in control of the victim; and the Purpose (for which HT is done)

of exploitation includes sexual, forced labour, slavery or similar practices and the removal of organs (United Nations, 2000).

The United Nations' Convention on Transnational Organised Crime (UNTOC) and its supplementary protocol – Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children also known as 'Palermo Protocol' – considers human trafficking as 'transnational organised crime' (United Nations, 2000). The said Convention explains that it is that crime which is either committed in more than one state or which is committed in one state but a substantial part of its preparation, planning, direction or control takes place in another state. Sometimes, it is committed in one state but involve an organised criminal group that engages in criminal activities in more than one state. It is also committed in one state but has substantial effects in another state (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). The characters of transnational organised crime can be noticed in human trafficking as well.

Human trafficking is possibly the worst human development outcome linked to increasing global mobility. Human trafficking has been described by US Department of State (USDOS) as a form of modern-day slavery which deprives people of their human rights and freedoms. The 2008 Trafficking in Persons Report (USDOS, 2009), notes that —Human trafficking has a devastating impact on individual victims, who often suffer physical and emotional abuse, rape, threats against self and family, and even death. But the impact of human trafficking also has wider implications for human development, because trafficking undermines the health, safety, and security of all nations it touches (USDOS, 2008).

Historical Perspective of Human Trafficking

Not only is the modern-day slavery expanding, it has become more efficient. Slaves have never before been as cheap as they are today, and profits are extraordinary (Bales, 1999). Much of the trade's success is due to the integration of economies and the social formations resulting from uneven development.

Kelly (2012) indicated that, understanding the historical dimensions of the fight against human trafficking is important for several reasons. Although many scholars working on the issues of human trafficking offer some sort of recognition of the history of the problem, the most typical approach is to see modern forms of trafficking as an outgrowth of rapid globalisation since the end of the Cold War (Bales, 2005).

Even if the most conservative estimates of the size of the trade in humans are used, there is general agreement that this trade is either the second or third largest illegal traffic in the world, dwarfed by the traffic in illegal drugs and either slightly larger or slightly smaller than the illegal traffic in arms (Shelley, 2010).

Shelley's argument could be applied just as easily, to the period between 1890 and 1914, when rapid globalisation, mass migrations and rising economic inequality, were also significant features of world society. During those last decades before the First World War millions of Europeans crossed the Atlantic and hundreds of thousands, if not millions, more Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans crossed the Pacific for North and South America. Hidden in that flow were many tens of thousands of victims of human traffickers each year. Whether they were destined for brothels in Buenos Aires, San Francisco, or New York, or cotton farms or sugar plantations in South Asia or Africa, many of these victims were caught in

the nets of traffickers because their rural communities were increasingly marginalised in the global economy or because, as women, their economic prospects were particularly bleak (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). Similarly, rural districts of China sent an increasing flow of men abroad for labour in places such as California and Malaysia, and women to be “Sing girls” or prostitutes across Southeast Asia and the Pacific coast of North America (League of Nations Committee, 1932). A careful reading of studies by the League of Nations Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children shows just how few differences there actually are between the trade in humans in 1932 and 2012 (League of Nations Committee).

Traffickers

Trafficking in human beings, especially, women and children has become one of the most rewarding illegal economic activities and can be put at par with drug trafficking and arms smuggling (Salt, 2000). As a result, some criminals in recent times have identified trafficking in human beings as one of the easy sources of income and have transferred the knowledge and network they were using for their drug businesses to the trafficking business where the risk of being caught is low (Taylor, 2002). Like their drug counterparts, traffickers in persons are well organised in some countries and are known to exist by names, such as the “Snakeheads” of China. In Ghana, traffickers are known as “Connection Men” or “Visa Contractors” and described as self-styled business men and women who promise their victims jobs and better economic well-being if they are assisted to travel abroad (Adomako-Ampofo, 1997).

According to United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2012) report, trafficking like illegal drugs, has assumed an international dimension with huge amounts of money changing hands with an international network of hidden collaborators. The increasing concern with trafficking in women and children is precisely because of the traffickers' indifference to and gross violation of the basic human rights of their victims, the increasing infiltration of drug criminals and their international network of drug traffickers into the human trafficking business, the threat their criminal activities pose to national and international security and political and social irritation that they are creating in international relations. Traffickers earn between 5 and 8 billion US Dollars annually transporting within and outside national borders an estimated four million irregular migrants many of whom are women and children (IOM).

Victims of Trafficking

Women migrants trafficked to Western Europe and other continents come from different parts of the world. In Africa, they come principally from Ghana, Nigeria and Morocco (Ghosh, 1998). In Ghana, the women who are trafficked or in some instances offer themselves for trafficking are no longer predominantly from the cities. The focus has shifted to the rural areas where many uneducated and semi-educated unemployed young girls are lured with the promise of lucrative job offers abroad. A mini-survey conducted by this author to identify victims of trafficking returned to their communities of origin, indicated that many of these returnees were found at Cape Coast and Swedru in the Central Region, Somanya and Accra in the Greater Accra Region, Tarkwa and Axim in the Western Region, Mampong in the

Ashanti Region, Aflao in the Volta Region, Sunyani and Wenchi in the Brong Ahafo Region, Tamale in the Northern Region and Bolga in the Upper East Region. Girls trafficked from Nigeria en route to Europe come mainly from Edo State, Delta, Imo and other States in the South (IOM, 2006).

Sometimes parents or relatives sell these young women to traffickers (Taylor, 2002). Once they unwittingly accept the services of migrant traffickers, they are firmly trapped within an illegal migration environment within which they are exposed to many forms of abuse ranging in the extreme to bonded labour and forced prostitution offers them great profits at the expense of trafficked migrant women, who often suffer serious violations of their basic human rights. In accordance with the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Right (UDHR), all persons regardless of tribe, nationality or race have the right to free movement. Unfortunately, some victims of trafficking are, to a large extent, denied their basic and fundamental human rights. Kelly (2012) found that the traffickers often act in defiance of this basic human right by restricting and carefully monitoring the movement of their victims so as to prevent them from having any contact with the police and other concerned persons that could spell doom for their illegal activities. It is important to note that the victims of trafficking hold the key to the detection and apprehension of the traffickers and also to the provision of the needed information for controlling human trafficking especially in women and children (United Nations Office of Domestic Crime, 2009).

The victims of trafficking are mainly females between the ages of 17-20 years with some as young as 14 years (IOM, 1996). The education levels of the trafficked vary with respect to the destination countries and the source region as

well as the type of perceived jobs available. A profile of Ghanaian prostitutes in the Netherlands indicates that victims of human trafficking are young women, less educated, often semi-illiterate or illiterate who cannot speak English well and have little control over their own situation (Adomako-Ampofo, 1997). A study by the (IOM, 1996) on the other hand indicates that, some Nigerian women trafficked to Italy have no basic education whilst others, especially the older women, have university degrees.

Researchers, individuals and institutions have shown that many women and children worldwide are trafficked across international borders each year. For instance, a report by the Thai National Statistics Office indicates that over 60 percent of migrants from Thailand are women and children majority of whom are victims of trafficking (IOM, 1999).

Types of Human Trafficking

The United States Department of State outlined the following major forms of human trafficking in its 2012 TIP Report.

Forced labour

Forced labour, sometimes also referred to as labour trafficking, encompasses the range of activities – recruiting, harboring, transporting, providing, or obtaining– involved when a person uses force or physical threats, psychological coercion, abuse of the legal process, deception, or other coercive means to compel someone to work. Once a person’s labour is exploited by such means, the person’s previous consent or effort to obtain employment with the trafficker becomes irrelevant. Migrants are particularly vulnerable to this form of human trafficking,

but individuals also may be forced into labour in their own countries. Female victims of forced or bonded labour, especially women and girls in domestic servitude, are often sexually exploited as well.

Sex trafficking

When an adult is coerced, forced, or deceived into prostitution – or maintained in prostitution through one of these means after initially consenting – that person is a victim of trafficking. Under such circumstances, perpetrators involved in recruiting, harboring, transporting, providing, or obtaining a person for that purpose are responsible for trafficking crimes. Sex trafficking also may occur within debt bondage, as women and girls are forced to continue in prostitution through the use of unlawful “debt” purportedly incurred through their transportation, recruitment, or even their crude “sale” – which exploiters insist they must pay off before they can be free. A person’s initial consent to participate in prostitution is not legally determinative: if one is thereafter held in service through psychological manipulation or physical force, he or she is a trafficking victim and should receive benefits outlined in the Palermo Protocol and applicable domestic laws.

Bonded labour or debt bondage

One form of coercion is the use of a bond or debt. U.S. law prohibits the use of a debt or other threats of financial harm as a form of coercion and the Palermo Protocol requires its criminalisation as a form of trafficking in persons. Some workers inherit debt; for example, in South Asia it is estimated that there are millions of trafficking victims working to pay off their ancestors’ debts. Others fall victim to traffickers or recruiters who unlawfully exploit an initial debt assumed as

a term of employment. Debt bondage of migrant labourers in their countries of origin, often with the support of labour agencies and employers in the destination country, can also contribute to a situation of debt bondage. Such circumstances may occur in the context of employment-based temporary work programs when a worker's legal status in the country is tied to the employer and workers fear seeking redress. Note that labour trafficking can happen in any industry, including agriculture, manufacturing, restaurant work, construction, fishing, mining, custodial work, and many more (ILO, 2013).

Involuntary domestic servitude

Involuntary domestic servitude is a form of human trafficking found in unique circumstances—informal work in a private residence—these circumstances create unique vulnerabilities for victims. Domestic workplaces are informal, connected to off-duty living quarters, and often not shared with other workers. Such an environment, which can isolate domestic workers, is conducive to exploitation because authorities cannot inspect homes as easily as they can compared to formal workplaces. Investigators and service providers report many cases of untreated illnesses and, tragically, widespread sexual abuse, which in some cases may be symptoms of a situation of involuntary servitude.

Forced child labour

Although children may legally engage in certain forms of work, forms of slavery or slavery-like practices continue to exist as manifestations of human trafficking, despite legal prohibitions and widespread condemnation. A child can be a victim of human trafficking regardless of the location of that nonconsensual exploitation. Some indicators of possible forced labour of a child include situations

in which the child appears to be in the custody of a nonfamily member who requires the child to perform work that financially benefits someone outside the child's family and does not offer the child the option of leaving. Anti-trafficking responses should supplement, not replace, traditional actions against child labour, such as remediation and education. When children are enslaved, however, their abusers should not escape criminal punishment by taking weaker administrative responses to child labour practices.

Unlawful recruitment and use of child soldiers

Child soldiering is a manifestation of human trafficking when it involves the unlawful recruitment or use of children – through force, fraud, or coercion – by armed forces as combatants or other forms of labour. Some child soldiers are also sexually exploited by armed groups. Perpetrators may be government armed forces, paramilitary organisations, or rebel groups. Many children are forcibly abducted to be used as combatants. Others are unlawfully made to work as porters, cooks, guards, servants, messengers, or spies. Young girls can be forced to marry or have sex with male combatants. Both male and female child soldiers are often sexually abused and are at high risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases. Fisher (2013), also observed that a notable subcategory of labour trafficking is child soldiering. Fisher maintained that child soldiering occurs when a person under the age of 18 is made to be a combatant in a national army or rebel militia through recruitment, abduction or conscription. Examples include the so-called “Invisible Children” forced to fight for the Lord’s Resistance Army, a rebel group originally from Uganda, or children impressed into military service in Burma (Myanmar).

Child sex trafficking

When a child (under 18 years of age) is induced to perform a commercial sex act, proving force, fraud, or coercion against their pimp is not necessary for the offense to be characterised as human trafficking. There are no exceptions to this rule: no cultural or socioeconomic rationalisations should prevent the rescue of children from sexual servitude. The use of children in the commercial sex trade is prohibited both under U.S. law and by statute in most countries around the world. Sex trafficking has devastating consequences for minors, including long-lasting physical and psychological trauma, disease (including HIV/AIDS), drug addiction, unwanted pregnancy, malnutrition, social ostracism, and even death (United States Department of State, 2012)

Other types of exploitation of trafficking persons

Human trafficking brings hazardous consequences for the trafficked people during journey in transit countries as well as after reaching at the destination. The traffickers take advantage of poverty, lack of education, political instability and civil war and natural calamities for the recruitment of the people for trafficking. After recruiting the people, or achieving their consent for movement, no doubt, through fraud, deceit, abuse of authority, force, coercion etc., the journey of individual's exploitation and journey of traffickers' earning starts. Traffickers use diverse methods for the exploitation of the trafficked persons. Forced labour is also a form of exploitation. Since demand for cheap labour and more and more labour is increasing due to the industrialisation and globalisation, traffickers in developing/developed countries show greener pastures like very high salaries there and free accommodation for the prospective migrants (Mattar, 2013).

After achieving their consent, the traffickers or criminal groups subjugate large number of workers to involuntary servitude in factories, household, construction, agriculture, and mining. They succeed in doing the same due to the illegal status of the trafficked persons. The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2005) estimates that there are at least 12.3 million people who are the victim of forced labour worldwide (Scarpa, 2008).

In addition to forced labour, sexual exploitation is another popular form of exploitation in human trafficking. The young girls on the pretext of giving jobs in hotels as waitresses or cooks are thrown in brothels and compelled to work as prostitutes. Their identity and travel documents are taken away or destroyed by the traffickers and, thus, making their status illegal in that state and then psychological and physical threats make them enter into this cold flesh trade (Perera, 2011). Huge income from this trade is exploited by the traffickers. It is estimated that USD 81,280 monthly income from a single brothel in Thailand (Scarpa, 2008). The victim just get very less from this huge profit as money is deducted from his or her salary as return of debt or money spent on the movement and food of victim and charged with heavy interest rate.

Many countries of the world are facing downfall in female population. China for instance with their single child policy reflected in their 2005 male to female population of 118 males to 100 females. Thus, resulting in Korean girls being trafficked to China for marriage (Scarpa, 2008). Similarly, in India the ratio of males and females is 93:100 and in order to meet the marital needs of the remaining, the girls are trafficked from Bangladesh to India (Scarpa). Apart from it, the poor girls are forced to marry with the males from rich countries like the

United States, Canada as after marriage these girls will also become citizen of that state and can be helpful in the migration of their family and thus taking them out of vicious cycle of poverty, which they otherwise will not be able to break in their native state (Scarpa).

Camel race is most popular sport in Arab world. They use kids as camel jockeys. The main reason for using them is that they are very light in weight and their crying sounds provoke camels to run fast. Such camel jockeys are purchased on the pretext of good upbringing, from poor families from India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal etc. and then transported to Arab countries where they are sexually exploited by camel farm managers and under fed in order to keep them light weight. When they become old, they are then disposed off by farm owners as of no use in races and left to survive in cruel world without education and physical fitness. Although many Arab states banned camel races or use of camel jockeys but still this practice is going on behind doors (Scarpa, 2008).

People of underdeveloped/developing countries are trafficked by transnational organised crime syndicates with fraud, deceit and coercion for removal of their organs. After displacing them from their native sate and land, organs of the trafficked are either taken out without their consent or with their consent. In the US, more than 97000 people are waiting for organ transplant and out of it 74000 are waiting for kidney transplant (Scarpa, 2008). Approximately, 64 percent of all renal transplants are done from living unrelated donors. The donor usually receives an average of USD 1070 whereas middleman gets USD 125000. Traffickers usually promise them more money but after transplant they deceive them and these

operations are conducted without taking necessary precautions because all such operations are illegal and done clandestinely (Scarpa).

Causes/Factors that Influence Human Trafficking

The composition of mutually reinforcing factors contributes to human trafficking. Hostile factors like; social, economic, political conditions in the countries of origin encourage or force the people to migrate for the greener pastures (Lee & Lewis, 2005). These conditions include extreme poverty, unemployment, lack of education, political corruption and political instability and civil war or conflict situations in countries of origin (Lee & Lewis). Figure 3 shows the cause of human trafficking.

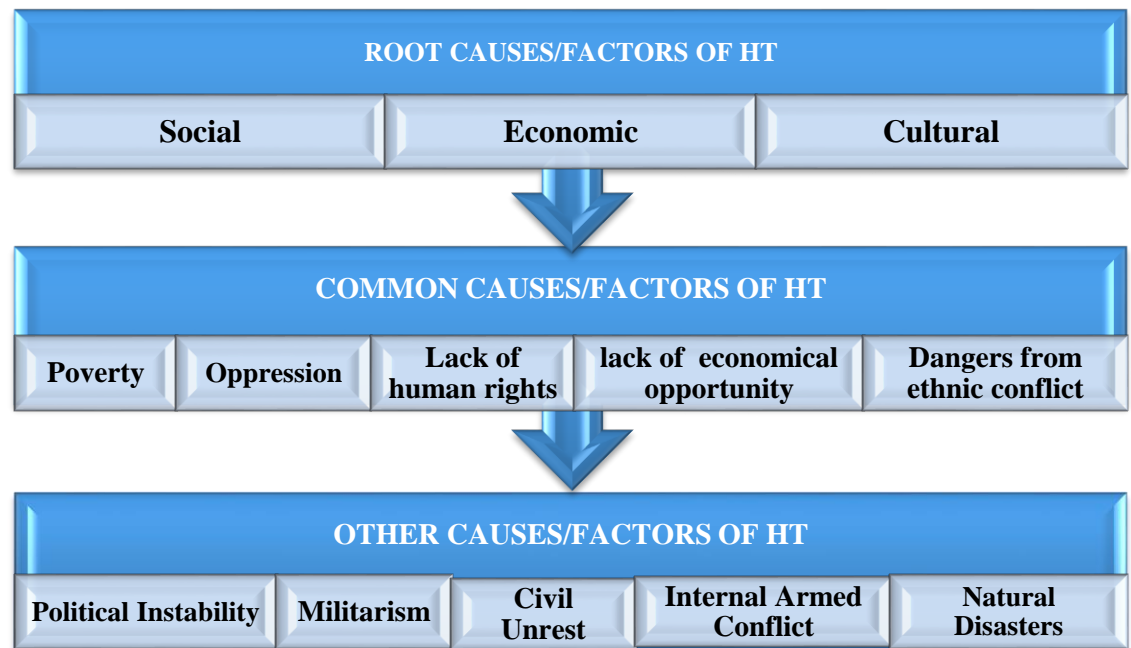


Figure 3: Factors that causes Human Trafficking

Source: Whitaker & Hinterlong (2008)

The root causes of trafficking are complex and often differ from one country to another. Social, economic, and cultural factors fuel human trafficking. The importance of those factors also varies on what region is being discussed. Even so, there are common factors that create an environment vulnerable to trafficking. Poverty, oppression, lack of human rights, lack of social or economic opportunity, dangers from conflict or instability are a few common enablers. Further, political instability, militarism, civil unrest, internal armed conflict and natural disasters may contribute to increase in trafficking. For example, war leads to massive displacements of populations, leaving women and children especially susceptible (Whitaker & Hinterlong, 2008). Just as factors “push” victims into trafficking, factors also “pull” victims. In hopes of a better future, many women migrate with their children to more economically promising areas (Whitaker & Hinterlong).

However, with modern day technology and a more interconnected world, these would-be migrants are certainly more vulnerable to traffickers. Thus, motivations for trafficking can occur on different fronts. As stated earlier, women and girls represent over half of human trafficking victims. In some regions, social and cultural practices contribute to this phenomenon. For instance, in some cultures where women and girls are devalued, society makes them disproportionately vulnerable to trafficking. The issue is then further exacerbated by domestic corruption and lack of enforcement resources (Bradshaw, 2000).

All of these factors contribute to human trafficking, the outright violation of human rights. The existence of poverty and oppression may never be eliminated, but the fact that women and children are often exploited in these circumstances should be alarming. Discussing why the international community should continue

to combat human trafficking begins with protecting women and children. This year, theme of the 58th session at the Commission on the Status of Women is to advance the Millennium Development Goals. Goals such as “Promoting Gender Equality and Empower Women” and “Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger” will shape the discussion (Whitaker & Hinterlong, 2008).

The traffickers use different means including land and air to transport their victims to their destinations. Unlike male victims of trafficking who exhibit resilience and usually travel by land, women and children usually travel by air except where the destination is within the sub-region or there is the need to transit neighbouring countries. For example, traffickers take their victims through La Cote D’Ivoire to France, the Netherlands, or Senegal to Italy, or Togo to Germany and the US (Taylor, 2002).

Human Trafficking Laws

Throughout the last decade, most of the world has developed new legislation to conform to the Palermo Protocol. In so doing, many countries have looked to other countries’ existing laws, model laws offered by the United Nations and other international organisations or donor governments, and advice from anti-trafficking experts in crafting legislation most appropriate for their legal systems and cultures. This diversity in contextual factors prevents the development of detailed language that would apply to all countries. Some basic principles can and should be considered as best practices in designing legislation to fight modern slavery (US Department of State, 2010).

According to the US Department of State (2012) report on human trafficking, a good anti-human trafficking law should include the following:

1. A broad definition of the concept of “coercion” that covers its many manifestations in modern forms of slavery, including the threat of physical, financial, or reputational harm sufficiently serious to compel a reasonable person to perform or to continue performing labour or services in order to avoid incurring that harm.

2. A well-articulated definition of trafficking that facilitates effective law enforcement and prosecutorial responses and allows for the collection of meaningful data. The definition should incorporate all forms of compelled service in addition to forced prostitution. The definition should not simply criminalise the recruitment or transportation of prostituted persons. The definition should not include related but distinct crimes, such as alien smuggling or prostitution.

3. A mechanism of care provided to all suspected victims of trafficking through which they have the opportunity to access basic services – including shelter, food, medical care, psycho-social counselling, legal aid, and work authorisation.

4. Explicit immigration relief for trafficking victims, regardless of their past legal status, and relief from any legal penalties for unlawful activities committed by victims as a direct result of their trafficking.

5. Specific protections for child victims of trafficking ensuring a responsible chain of custody and a priority placed on the best interests of the child in all decisions made in providing services to them.

6. Explicit provisions ensuring identified victims have access to legal redress to obtain financial compensation for the trafficking crimes committed against them. In order to be meaningful, such access must be accompanied by options to obtain immigration relief. Trafficking victims should not be excluded from legal services providers who can assist with these efforts, whether NGOs or government programs.

Global Dimensions of Human Trafficking

The forms of human trafficking are varied and to a large extent multifaceted in dimension calling for an integrated approach. In most cases, the structural factors of human trafficking are similar to one another such as the underlying economic and social context but in the larger context its patterns are varied and depend on geographical and regional locations (Cameron & Newman, 2008). According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2005) globally, an estimated 12.3 million people are enslaved. Out of this number, an estimated 2.5 million people are in forced labour (coerced into prostitution and sexual exploitations). Out of the 2.5 million mentioned above, an estimated 1.4 million people constituting approximately 56 percent of victims in forced labour come from Asia and the Pacific. About 250,000 (10%) come from Latin America and the Caribbean, 230,000 (9.2%) come from the Middle East and Northern Africa, 130,000 (5.2%) come from Sub Saharan Africa, 270,000 (10.8%) are from industrial countries such as the US and Western Europe. And 200,000 (8%) come from countries in transitions or weakened states plunged by conflicts. At least about 161 countries are engaged in human trafficking as source, transit and destination points.

According to the UNICEF (2013), an estimated 1.2 million children are trafficked each year. The majority are between the ages of 18-24, out of whom an estimated 95 percent of these victims have experience physical or sexual violence while being trafficked. Out of this percentage, about 43 percent of victims are used for forced commercial sexual exploitation, the majority of whom involves women and children. The US Department of State (2008) reports that the most common forms of slavery are prostitution in advanced countries, constituting about 46 percent, 27 percent in domestic servitude, 10 percent in agricultural and 5% in sweat shops.

Human trafficking today is a huge business generating huge profits annually. According to the international labour organisation's 2010 report, an estimated \$31.6 billion in profits was accumulated through exploitation, either sexually or through coerced labour (Besler, 2005). Out this number, about 15.5 billion, constituting about 49 percent, were generated in industrial countries. 9.7 billion About 30.6 percent were generated in Asia Pacific. 1.3 billion or about 4.1 percent was for Latin America and the Caribbean. 1.6 billion or about 5 percent were generated in Sub Saharan Africa, and 1.5 billion or approximately 4.7 percent were generated in the Middle East (Besler).

Trafficking in Persons as an Organised Crime

A comparison of the working of domestic legal frameworks with the larger UN Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime (2000), presupposes a common understanding of what organised crime is. In the case of the Protocol, it presupposes a common understanding of what trafficking is. In the case of the latter,

it has already been seen that there is no common understanding of what trafficking is due to a lack of a clear definition on trafficking which is compliant with the UNTOC standards. There is no definition of organised crime in any of the domestic laws although there are standards having a bearing on organised crime (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011).

Unlike trafficking, there is no SAARC definition on organised crime in either the SAARC Convention on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters (2008), or the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution (2002). While Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka have a number of anti-corruption provisions in their penal codes, India and Nepal also have separate Prevention of Corruption Acts which can be made use of in organised crime and cross border trafficking, as there is involvement at times of public officials at different levels. Other provisions in criminal law, including common intention to commit an offence, criminal conspiracy and abetment, already exist in laws and can be used to deal with organised crime. Loosely, they do comply with the definition of organised crime, as it may identify a group acting in concert to attain a benefit of some kind. Prima facie the definition of organised crime seems to be covered in domestic laws (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011).

Measuring Domestic Trafficking Provisions Against International Yardsticks

In order to identify gaps, it is essential to compare domestic laws with international provisions. This is done in two steps. In the first step, uses Protocol as a yardstick to see how far domestic laws comply with the provisions of the Protocol.

Thus specific Articles of the Protocol are used as the basis for comparison in country specifics. In the second step, the international instruments that States have signed, ratified or are party to, are listed to form part of the criteria. This is done to ensure that for certain crucial points such as gender, human rights and the rights of the child, these instruments will also serve as referral points in identifying gaps and making recommendations (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011).

UN Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime and the Protocol

The definition of trafficking under Article 3 of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially women and children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime (2000), covers the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude, or the removal of organs (UNIFEM, 2007).

With the issue of human trafficking, the U.S Department of State report on Trafficking in Persons (2013) has identified Ghana as a source, transit and destination country for human trafficking (Hinson-Ekong, 2010). Women and children of poor social status are often the victims. The human trafficking business

is estimated to accrue \$7-12 billion a year and is fast catching up with the profits made from drugs trafficking. External trafficking to the developed world mostly involves younger women who are taken to countries such as America, Italy, and the Netherlands with the understanding that they have been recruited for jobs in those countries. Upon disappointment, a lot of them end up in prostitution. The children are often trafficked through the land borders to neighbouring countries where a lot of them are used as cheap labourers in activities such as farming, fishing, and street hawking and at times forced to engage in begging under religious instructors (Hinson-Ekong).

Besides the external trafficking, there is also the internal one from rural to urban areas within the country. In Ghana, there is a high prevalence of internal trafficking than that of external. The current figure is pegged at 68.9 percent. Children form majority of those trafficked internally. Chief causes for this trend include poverty and a traditional practice where children are entrusted to wealthier relations or families in the urban centres for either education or a better living condition (Fredua, 2010). Parents, relatives and family friends are often involved in the process. The victims within this category are also promised job opportunities and better prospects of life. In reality, such promises turn out to be false and they end up becoming victims of sexual exploitation, prostitution, street children and hazardous conditions of life (Sosuh, 2011).

Human Trafficking on the African Continent

Conventional wisdom considers human trafficking and forced labour as a function of endogenous forces, including indigenous tradition and cultural practices in Africa. The study reported here has a different viewpoint. It views human trafficking on the continent as externally-driven. In other words, the problem is a function not of endogenous or internal factors, but of exogenous forces. Accordingly, the study posited that the tendency to indulge in human trafficking and concomitant activities is likely to increase as external influences intensify. It follows that with an increase in exogenous factors there will be a corresponding decrease in efforts to discourage human trafficking (Cho, Dreher & Neumayer, 2011). A recent study lends credence to this hypothesis by characterising human trafficking as “one of the dark sides of globalisation” (Cho, Dreher & Neumayer).

Human Trafficking in West Africa

Human Trafficking in West Africa the problem of human trafficking in West Africa is shown in the fact that all 15 states fall under either or all three OTD classifications (origin, transit, and destination) in the trafficking supply chain. Victims are recruited or abducted in an originating country often characterised by poverty, unemployment or conflict; they are transferred through transit countries often marked by lax institutions, weak legislation, corruption and porous borders; and then exploited in destination countries with booming sex industries and a demand for cheap labour. Human trafficking in the sub-region is either internal, involving the movement of persons within a country's borders; or is external –

directed within the region or towards Western Europe and the United States of America.

On the global scale, most West African states generally act as source countries, with Sahel states such as Niger and Mali often serving as transit states, while Gulf of Guinea states such as Nigeria, Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana often serve as OTDs. Recruited from rural Nigeria, women and children are for instance trafficked to countries like South Africa, Gabon, Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Benin, Niger, Burkina Faso and the Gambia for forced labour and prostitution. At the same time, children from Benin, Togo and Ghana, for example, are forced to work in Nigeria (Sawadogo, 2012). Victims are also used as drug couriers. For example, from Cape Verde, people are trafficked to Brazil and other European countries as drug couriers (US Department of State, 2013). While trafficking for sexual exploitation is a common practice within the region, people are generally trafficked for economic exploitation. Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea, Ghana, Mali, Nigeria, and Togo are cited as major source countries for child labour sent to urban and agricultural sites in Equatorial Guinea, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Nigeria, and Senegal (Sawadogo).

Risk Factors of Human Trafficking in West Africa

The persistence of human trafficking in West Africa can be ascribed to a number of factors and conditions that make the sub-region a perfect “harvest field” for humans. In a region considered as one of the poorest and least stable on Earth, (UNODC, 2009) it comes as no surprise that poverty often emerges as a major contributory factor for human trafficking. Most West African states grapple with

harsh socioeconomic conditions and vulnerabilities that often predispose people to trafficking. The promise of better living conditions elsewhere, coupled with the high profits of human trafficking often promote the industry as an option to break out of poverty (Sawadogo, 2012).

Another contributory factor is related to certain cultural and spiritual practices in West African societies, some of which place women and children in positions of vulnerability, Marginalisation and discrimination. The practice of entrusting children to the custody of “external” individuals in urban communities, a system that has been corrupted and exploited over the years, is a good case in point. In some cases, spiritual rituals (i.e. juju/voodoo) requiring human parts can also contribute to the crime (Carling, 2006). In environments where such practices hold sway, most victims are often trapped and afraid to collaborate with authorities even when rescued. Aggravating West Africa’s human trafficking problem are also factors of deficient institutions and an absence of effective national anti-trafficking laws and policies. Usually in such states, conviction rates are low because of inadequate punitive measures, if any at all, for the trafficker, thus encouraging impunity (United Nations, 2002). There is also limited assistance for victims, often leading to underreporting and reluctance to report.

Additional factors reinforcing trafficking in the region include the porosity of borders; weak border security management mechanisms; logistical constraints; limited capacity of customs and immigration agencies to police the borders; demand for cheap labour in the sub-region; poor data on human trafficking; corruption; involvement of international organised crime groups; bad governance; the lack of political commitment and budgetary resources (Okaebea, 2013).

West Africa's Responses to Human Trafficking in the region in seeking to address human trafficking, ECOWAS and its member states have over the years initiated various policies, arrangements and activities aimed at prevention, providing support to victims and strengthening the judiciary. Other interventions are aimed at awareness creation and inter-agency and international collaboration between member states (Okaebea, 2013).

ECOWAS adopted and coordinated a number of framework documents that obliged member states to take stronger stance on criminalising human trafficking by signing, ratifying and applying at domestic level international instruments such as the 2000 Palermo Protocol. In 2001, a declaration on the fight against TIP was adopted. Subsequently, the initial plan of action against TIP (2002-03) was extended until 2011, and the joint regional plan of action to combat TIP, especially women and children (2006-2008) with its Central African counterpart (ECCAS) were adopted. ECOWAS in 2005 also set up a counter TIP unit within its Commission. A policy on the Protection and Assistance to Victims of Trafficking was also adopted in 2009. At the national level, member states – for example, Ghana, Benin and Nigeria – in adherence to the ECOWAS request for improvement of legislative mechanisms governing the prosecution of traffickers, have passed laws that criminalise human trafficking (ECOWAS, 2006).

As part of governmental efforts, states such as Nigeria, Gambia and Ghana have also established specific anti-trafficking bodies or units (Department of State, United States of America, 2013). The adoption of the 4-P paradigm of Prevention, Prosecution, Protection and Partnership as an intervention mechanism in the sub-region has also been instrumental. Prevention aims at identifying potentially

vulnerable groups and embarking on sustained sensitisation of these groups to traffickers' ploys. Prosecution is about punishing those contravening the provisions of the laws prohibiting TIP (United Nations Office of Domestic Crime, 2009).

Moreover, protection is about providing supportive and protective services such as psychosocial assistance, shelter, advice, reintegration and vocational training for rescued victims. Partnership underscores the necessity of coordinating the efforts of governmental and nongovernmental agencies and organisations in the fight against trafficking. In this regard, some West African authorities have established joint border control initiatives, case in points being Benin and Burkina Faso, and Mali and Burkina Faso (Hinson-Ekong, 2010).

Human Trafficking in Ghana

Ghana is beset with the challenge of child trafficking, which is intertwined with child labour. This is evident in agriculture, the fishing industry, mines, quarries and pushing children into street hawking, (Human Trafficking and Modern-day Slavery in Africa, para.). Interviews conducted with child traffickers revealed that they were not aware that they were indulging in any illegal activity, and that employing children as labourers was in breach of the law (Johansen, 2002). It further indicated that many traffickers do not realise that separating a child from its parents, in order to extract strenuous physical labour is morally wrong. For instance, Benjamin Tornye, a fisherman, stated in an interview that he considered children to be good fishers. Consequently, he had trained them to sail a boat, swim and dive. He failed to realise that there was anything wrong with what he was doing (Johansen).

In Ghana, trafficking occurs internally, as well as across the borders. The traffickers, chiefly target impoverished children from rural areas. There are several forms of trafficking in Ghana. One instance of such activity is the trafficking of boys from the Northern Region to work in the fishing communities along the coast of the Volta Lake. In addition, some boys are sent to work in mines in the west (Human Trafficking & Modern-day Slavery, 2007).

In the international trafficking of children into Ghana, children between the ages of 7 and 17 years are brought in from neighbour countries, like the Ivory Coast, Togo, Gambia, Nigeria, and Equatorial Guinea. They are subsequently, made to work as farm labourers, divers, street hawkers and domestic labourers. The parents of these children willingly allow traffickers to take their children, and the reason for this reprehensible behaviour is their abject poverty (Atuguba, 2005). The parents of such children were either made advance payments or regular monthly stipends by the recruiters. In addition, these parents were assured that their children would receive food, shelter, training, and education. Some parents send their children to work for their relatives in urban areas. Such children were seen to receive varied treatment (Arnott, 2003).

In December 2005, Ghana reinforced its legal system to effectively counter human trafficking. During that process, the government enacted an anti-trafficking law to deal with trafficking. The government took the assistance from various international bodies that deal with trafficking to prepare this comprehensive legislation (Atuguba, 2005). The IOM provided incentives to traffickers who set free the children appropriated by them, and who returned these children to their parents. The IOM provided loans to these traffickers on the condition that they

would commence viable businesses (Johansen, 2002). Ghana is however not a signatory to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime treaty.

The fishing industry in Ghana has also witnessed the recruitment of children for offshore fishing. Children due to their light weight were often tied up with heavy loads in order that they can sink to the bottom of the sea to pull and remove fishing nets and other gadgets. The International Labour Organisation points out that about 12 million children worldwide are engaged in all forms of forced labour. Most of these children in many instances are hidden in our societies to the benefit of criminals whose annual profits in 2009 were projected at \$32 billion, approximately \$13,000 per person annually (Bales, 2005).

According to the IOM, people are unaware that employing children in fishing is a crime. The implementation officers of the IOM visit the fishing community and inform them about the importance of the project. They urge people to release children. After rescuing the children, the IOM camps them at Yeji for a period of one month. Then it shifts them to Accra where it provides them rehabilitation and reunites them with their parents (IOM, 2005).

Inequality as A Cause of Human Trafficking

Inequality and inequity between and among societies has always been part of human civilisation. In the earliest of civilisations, the wealthy engaged in oppressive acts, such as the ownership of slaves, due to the powers that their wealth allotted them. As Sibley and Liu (2012) stated, social inequality stems from an ever-present set of beliefs created by the political elites in order to maintain their

own power and control over the poor and powerless. Political elites and wealthy members of society initially crafted social inequality in order to maintain their own power and wealth, while simultaneously creating social structures that eliminated the possibility of upward mobility for lower classes. This view is corroborated by social dominance theorists who suggest that social inequality exists due to the set of beliefs developed and maintained by social hierarchical class (Romm, 2012). In other words, the aspiration of the wealthy and powerful to maintain their control offers a simple and clear cause to the perpetual existence of social inequality.

As such, social inequality greatly impacts economic, social, and political domains and the relationships of those domains at the individual, local, and global levels. The effects of social inequality on an individual may lead to negative outcomes, such as violence, victimisation, mental illness, substance abuse, homelessness, and disease (Sampson, 2008). Individuals who experience social inequality also tend to lack in social capital. Rivello and Weaver (2006) found that there is a strong relationship between low social capital and high mortality rates. In neighborhoods and localities where social inequality presides, mortality rates rise due to the presence of violence. In the United States, Wright and Fagan (2013) found a strong relationship between disadvantaged neighborhoods and youth violence and child abuse. They suggested that disadvantaged neighborhoods produce a cycle of violence. The cycle of violence may lead to substance abuse, mental illness, crime, school dropout, poor health outcomes, and higher mortality rates (Wright & Fagan, 2013). As social inequality increases on a global level, poverty and inequity also increase. For example, as Fosu (2010) found in a sample of World Bank data from 1980 to 2004, increases in measurements of inequality

by Gini coefficients corresponded to high rates of poverty. For example, Sub-Saharan Africa has, by headcount, a high concentration of persons living at the one-dollar-per-day level, 42.80. Similarly, the measure of inequality, by Gini coefficient, in Sub-Saharan Africa is comparable, at 45.82 (Fosu, 2010). While average poverty levels are low (i.e. mean headcount ratio, 10.81) in Latin America and the Caribbean, the upper end of the poverty level by headcount ratio (52.90) is consonant with high income inequality in the region (mean Gini coefficient, 51.84) (Fosu).

Thus, Fosu (2010) concluded, the evidence involves the tendency of rising inequality to increase poverty. Globally, these inequities result in the increasing socio-economic gap between developing and industrialised nations in this era of globalisation. The increased global disparity can be found throughout economic, social, and political domains; it manifests as inadequate healthcare, poor standards of living, and the maintenance of a stratified class system (Babones & Babcicky, 2010). Apart from poverty, perhaps one of the most serious contemporary effects of inequalities between and within nations is the phenomena of global sex trade or human trafficking for the purposes of sex (MacKinnon, 2012). From the coalition of these scholarly findings, is an evidence of a formative linkage between inequality and human trafficking.

Mends (2013) in her study on the Exploration of the Experiences of Rescued Trafficked Children revealed that the children trafficked from the Immuna community are trafficked with the full concern of their parents and are mostly rescued by NGO's and religious organisations. It was also revealed in her study that the religious organisation embarked on the rescue mission through evangelism

whiles the NGO's do their rescues through public education with the help of state institutions like the social welfare and the police. Mends indicated that for the reintegration of rescued victims, the family and the society plays some level of acceptance towards the rescued victims, however in some communities, members do not extend enough welcoming alms to the victims. Also the study revealed that access to education in the community was very limited which was a catalyst for rescued children who did not have interest in education. The study also revealed that, peer pressure and victimisation were other reasons why rescued children could not have access to education in the community.

The UNODC (2009) report on the responses to human Trafficking in Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka in 2011 revealed that Bangladesh has had laws specifically on trafficking right from 1933. There are action plans to protect children and women, including plans to specifically protect children against sexual abuse and exploitation. In order to strengthen protection and prosecution, a number of steps were taken including a new legislation in 2000 and the setting up of the Police Monitoring Cell for Combating Trafficking in Women and Children in the Bangladesh Police Headquarters (Ruksana, et al., 2001).

Similarly, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2011) reports that there is also a member of the police anti-trafficking investigative unit to support this cell and an inter-Ministerial committee on human trafficking chaired by the Home Minister. Protection of victims of trafficking has seen a number of legal, medical, psychosocial and economic support services by the State as well as by NGOs. Four NGOs especially have been pinpointed by the Global Report on Trafficking in Persons, 2010 as playing a crucial role in sheltering victims of

trafficking, viz., the Association for Community Development (ACD), the Thengamar Mohila Sabuj Sangha (TMSS), the Dhaka Ahsania Mission (DAM) and the Bangladesh National Women Lawyers Association (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011).

According to United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2012), the Ministry of Expatriate Welfare and Overseas Employments in collaboration with their counterpart in India, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Qatar, Iraq, Lebanon and Malaysia operates shelters for female Bangladeshi and native victims of trafficking and exploitation in some places overseas, though Indian cities are not among them. A large proportion of cross border trafficking in Bangladesh is due to migration in search of employment. Many Bangladeshi men and women migrate willingly to countries other than India, such as Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Qatar, Iraq, Lebanon and Malaysia for work under formal contracts (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2012). Recruiting agencies acting as middlemen in such cases often charge exorbitantly, and there have been a number of cases of recruitment fraud where such migrants are misled about the terms of employment including payment. They find themselves being forced to work without wages and sometimes face physical or sexual abuse. Women work as domestic servants and often find themselves helpless if there is violence against them (UNODC Report, 2011).

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status are often the victims. The human trafficking business is estimated to accrue \$7.12 billion a year and is fast catching up with the profits made from drugs trafficking (UNODC, 2009). External trafficking to the developed world mostly involves younger women who are taken to countries such as America, Italy, and the Netherlands with the understanding that they have been recruited for jobs in those countries. Upon disappointment, a lot of them end up in prostitution. The children are often trafficked through the land borders to neighbouring countries where a lot of them are used as cheap labourers in activities such as farming, fishing, and street hawking and at times forced to engage in begging under religious instructors (Sosuh, 2011).

Besides the external trafficking, United Nations Palermo Protocol (2002) maintains that there is also the internal one from rural to urban areas within the country. In Ghana, there is a high prevalence of internal trafficking than that of external. The current figure is pegged at 68.9 percent 21 Children form majority of those trafficked internally. Chief causes for this trend include poverty and a traditional practice where children are entrusted to wealthier relations or families in the urban centers for either education or a better living condition. Parents, relatives and family friends are often involved in the process. The victims within this category are also promised job opportunities and better prospects of life. In reality, such promises turn out to be false and they end up becoming victims of sexual exploitation, prostitution, street children and hazardous conditions of life (Sosuh, 2011).

In Strom's (2008) study to ascertain the construction of human trafficking as a social problem, she used social constructionist theories to illustrate how human

trafficking to the sex industry in Norway has developed as a social problem. Three reasons she mentioned as the cause for this: change in the prostitution scene, international focus on human trafficking, and public debates. According to Strom (2008), social constructionist theories have been used to show how the problem emerged and how the problem developed through the different stages. In addition, it has illustrated how different claims-making strategies have been used when promoting the claims, as well as forming solutions to the problem. "To win the game of constructing social problems is to gain ability to direct social change" (Loseke, 1999). The research has further illustrated how the claims have been successful in placing human trafficking on the political agenda in Norway and thereby making individuals become aware of the problem. However, the solutions have not yet been successful and structural changes have not been achieved. Thus, human trafficking as a social problem is still being developed in Norway (United States Department of State, 2010).

Summary

Overall, the study employed some key theories underpinning the study in the literature discussion. Notable among these theories include Theory of reasoned action, Social Disorganisation Theory, and Blame the System versus Blame the Victim Theory. From both the theoretical and empirical literature gathered for the study, it was observed the individuals' attitude contributes to their actions whether good or bad, and therefore trafficking in persons is not detached from human choice of action. For instance, the theory of reasoned action states that attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, together shape an

individual's behavioral intentions and behaviours. On the other hand, Blame the System versus Blame the Victim Theory highlights the fact that phenomenon of victim blaming is thus common in hate crimes, discrimination rape and bullying. The main motivation for people to victim-blame is to justify abuse or social injustice. However, it is not only the perpetrator who engages in the victim-blaming. More so, the conceptual discussions from the various literature showed some links and relationship among concepts that sought to bring out the meaning of the problem which was investigated in assessing the role of stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

The focus of this chapter was to discuss the research procedures adopted for the study. The chapter begins with the research design employed for the study, followed by description of the study area and discussion of background characteristics of the target population which was investigated. The chapter further highlights discussion of sampling procedures used in the study, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and ethical considerations of the study. The last sections consider data processing and analysis.

Research Design

Based on the various research paradigms that have been employed in discussing human trafficking-related concepts, a mixed research design was adopted for the study. This was because the data collected from the study lend themselves to qualitative and quantitative approaches. These approaches used in the study served as the blueprint which defined the framework of a study. Thus, the qualitative and quantitative approaches provided the framework for the collection and analysis of data. Key concepts, such as Act of human trafficking, victims exploited in human trafficking, the purpose of human trafficking, the means of human trafficking, how stakeholders institutions perceive human trafficking and identifiable stakeholders' institution that are mandated or voluntarily control

human trafficking were highlighted in the study's conceptual framework and specific objectives.

The study adopted descriptive survey due to the peculiar features of the study's target population. As Gravetter and Forzano (2006) indicated, "a descriptive survey typically involves measuring a variable or a set of variables as they exist naturally." Qualitative approach was employed in gathering the data used in the study. This was done by using interview guide and questionnaires to elicit the needed information from the targeted respondents and some key informants. Therefore, using frequencies and percentages, the study employed descriptive approach in analysing the data results. In some cases direct quotations were stated in line with the mixed method used for the study.

The strength of this design is that it was organised within appropriate framework and methodology. Moreover, the adoption of a mixed methods would invariably provide the study with an opportunity to triangulate and analyse the study's results in both quantitative and qualitative manner in order to bring out better understanding of the subject under investigation. However, due to time constraint, the study's design was structured in a manner that would favour the researcher to complete the study within the time scheduled.

Study Area

The study took place in eighteen (18) out of twenty-six (26) districts in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The size of Eastern Region is 19,223 square kilometres and lies between longitudes 1°20'W and latitudes 0°17'E. Its vegetation is mainly secondary forest, but savanna grassland can be found in the Afram Plains, the Yilo-

Manya Krobo and the Asuogyaman Districts. The relief of the region is dominated by the Akwapin Highlands, the Kwahu Plateau and the Atewa - Atewiredu Range near Kibi. These highlands form a deep gap which the Volta River occupies to serve as a major drainage system with the Birim, Pra, Ayensu and Densu rivers in the south serving as main streams (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). The Region shares common boundaries with Greater Accra, Ashanti, Brong-Ahafo and Volta Regions.

The Region has twenty-six Administrative Municipalities/Districts. These are made up of ten (10) Municipals and sixteen (16) Districts. Eastern Region is the sixth largest region of the country. Thus, it is the third most populous region, after the Ashanti and Greater Accra. According to the 2010 Housing and Population Census results, the Region has a population of 2,633,154 signifying a growth of 2.1 percent within a period of one decade. The Region's population which is very youthful is made up of 51 percent females and 49 percent males. About 41.2 percent of the population is aged below 15 years with about 5.3 percent above 64 years leaving 53.5 percent in the economically active age group Ghana Statistical Service (2012).

Economic activity of Eastern Region

The major economic activities in the Region are agriculture, mining, fishing and commerce. Thus, 67.3 percent of the employed population is engaged in agriculture, 10.7 percent in industry and the service sector employs 22 percent of the workers (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). Crop and livestock production are the main activities found in most rural communities of the region. There are also commercial farms producing pineapples, colanut, cocoa, coffee and oil palm on a large-scale for export. Towns and villages dotted along the Volta Lake undertake

canoe fishing for a living. Industrial establishments such as Akosombo Textiles, Volta River Authority, Joy Daddy Industries, Cocoa Research Institute etc. are located in various towns in the region. These factories produce drugs, lumber, poultry feeds, alcoholic beverages, furniture, textiles and other hardware.

Diamond, which is a major foreign exchange earner for the country, is mined at Akwatia in the Birim South District. Diamond mining at Akwatia has attracted many settlers to Oda, Akwatia and the surrounding villages, a situation which has contributed to the rapid development of the area. The consolidated Diamond Mines at Akwatia has become a tourist attraction in the region.

With reference to Urban/Rural split, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census' National Analytical Report, as much as 27.8 percent of the Region's population lives in urban settlements and 72.2 percent in rural communities. Akans are the dominant inhabitants and natives of the region. The dominant language of the people Akan and English are the main spoken languages. The Eastern region is the location of the Akosombo dam and the economy of the Eastern region is dominated by its high-capacity electricity generation (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012).

Vulnerability of Eastern Region in terms of poverty

Poverty is cited as one of the major factors that contribute to human trafficking across the globe (Anti-Slavery International Report, 2001). According to 2015 Ghana Poverty Mapping report, there are high variations in poverty rates among districts in the Eastern region. The incidence of poverty ranges from 4.6 percent in New Juaben Municipal to 59.7 percent in Kwahu Afram Plains South District. Eleven districts have poverty incidence higher than the regional average

of 22.0 percent (Ghana Statistical Service, 2015). Denkyembuor District and New Juaben Municipal have the lowest poverty depth of 1.1 percent, followed by Nsawam Adoagyiri Municipal and Suhum Municipal with 1.4 percent. The three districts with the lowest inequality are Upper Manya (27.2), Lower Manya (28.3) and Yilo Krobo (29.1). According to the Ghana Living Standards Survey round six (GLSS6), Kwahu Afram Plains South has the highest number of poor persons (67,555) in the region and Denkyembuor District the lowest (3,559) (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). Figure 4 provides the geographical locations of the various towns/districts that formed the study area.



Figure 4: Map of the study area

Source: Cartography and GIS unit, Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC (2015).

Study Population

The target population of the study were the human trafficking victims and all the stakeholders' institutions (both private and public) who are putting measures in place to deal with human trafficking issues in the Eastern Region of Ghana. In all, a target population of 200 was selected from eighteen districts with estimated target population of 650. Although a target population of 650 was estimated for the study's sample to be drawn from, after the study's pre-testing, the target population was reduced to 200. This was so because the pre-test results provided the researcher with a fair knowledge that at least thirty-five (35) victims and one hundred and sixty-five (165) stakeholders' institution respectively would be available and accessible in the data collection process. This projection became a reality during the data collection process.

Sampling procedures

Multi-stage sampling involving cluster, stratified and purposive techniques were applied to generate the sample size from the eighteen districts selected for the study. Thus the target population was first stratified into agencies, departments and communities. The working population in each of the agency, department, or community formed the sampling frame. In order to achieve a representative sample, the agency/department were selected based on simple random sampling, using proportion. This was done after the target population had been grouped into the various strata. Some respondents were also selected purposively to provide the needed information to address the study's research objectives. With these methods, a sample size of One Hundred (100) made of 70 administrative respondents and 30

non-administrative respondents were sampled from the target population of Two Hundred (200) for the study.

The cluster method was used to select 18 districts, taking into consideration the scattered geographical positions of towns in the municipality and the level of human trafficking activities reported. The stratified and simple random sampling methods were used to select 100 personnel from the stakeholder institutions. These sampling methods were employed to ensure the representativeness of the sample to the population of the study area. The breakdown of the personnel were as follow: 15 respondents from the police service, 14 respondents from immigration service, 9 respondents from the Attorney-General's office, 10 respondents each from social warfare and national commission for civic education and 12 respondents from the prisons service all in the 18 selected districts.

Two factors informed the sampling distribution: to obtain firsthand information from respondents who were directly involved in issue of trafficking of persons; and to gather information from respondents who were readily available to share their experience and observation regarding trafficking of persons. It was for these purposes that the respondents from police service and rescued victims constituted the highest number (15%) of the sample size. This was so because as already indicated, the researcher sought to obtain firsthand information from people who were directly involved in the issue of human trafficking.

Moreover, police personnel and rescued victims were willing and ready to provide information regarding the problem under investigation as compared to other respondents. The personnel of NGOs constituted the least number (7%) of the study's sample size because most of them were not readily available during the data

collection period. The simple random sample method was appropriate in selecting the personnel because it ensured that all the personnel in the six institutions had an equal opportunity of being selected to form the sample.

Proportionally, seven (7) personnel of NGO's and eight (8) chiefs and opinion leaders were purposively chosen to form the second category of respondents. The third categories of respondents were made of 15 rescued victims who were yet to be re-integrated into the society. The purposive sampling method was appropriate because it made it possible to deliberately select these category of people who are directly involved in handling of human trafficking issues at the local level. All the respondents were grouped according to their administrative roles. Moreover, since the rescued victims were not living together, snowballing was used identify 15 of them who formed part of the study's respondents. Table 2 shows how the sample size of the study was done using simple random sampling and proportions.

Sample size determination

Generally, the study employed both simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques in selecting the study's respondents from victims and the stakeholder institutions of the human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The simple random sampling was used to ensure that at least each of the study's respondents would stand the chance to be selected. On the other hand, purposive sampling approach was adopted to gather data from some lecturers, administrators, and student leaders who were purposively selected as key informants of the study.

However, in calculating the sample size, the study adopted the Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins' (2001) sample size determination table based on the margin of error of 0.03 for continuous and 0.05 for categorical data with consideration of appropriate study population and alpha level as a reference for deriving the sample size. The approach adopted simplified lengthy calculation exemplified in Cochran's (1997) model of sample determination which may be used if margin of error shown in the sample size determination table is appropriate for the study and that sample size would need to be calculated if the error rates are not appropriate. Therefore, using an assumed population of 2,633,154 and error margin of 10 percent, the study specifically focused on Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins' (2001) approach to determine the sample size of the study which was 100. Using the error margin of 3 percent and 5 percent was found to be small in determining a sample size 100. Therefore, margin of error of 10 percent was found to be appropriate due to the heterogeneity of the study's population characteristics.

Mathematically, the sample size was determined using the formula given as:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(d)^2}$$

Where;

$$N = \text{Population} = 2,633,154$$

$$n = \text{Sample size} = ?$$

$$d = \text{Error margin} = .10 (10\%)$$

$$n = \frac{2,633,154}{1 + 2,633,154(.10)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{2,633,154}{26332.54}$$

$$n = 99.996$$

$n = 100$ to the nearest whole number

Hence, the study's sample size was found to be 100.

Table 1: Sample distribution across the Target Population

Stakeholders Administrative Institutions	Target Population	Respondents Sampled	Percent (%)
Police Service	28	15	15.0
Immigration Service	26	14	14.0
Attorney General's Office	18	9	9.0
Social Welfare	18	10	10.0
NCCE	17	10	10.0
Prison Service	20	12	12.0
<i>Non-Administrative</i>			
<i>Respondents</i>			
Personnel of NGO's	25	7	7.0
Chiefs and Opinion Leaders	13	8	8.0
Rescued victims	35	15	15.0
TOTAL	200	100	100

Source: Field Data, 2016

Sources of Data

Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources of information were collected using an interview guide and questionnaires which were used to gather data from the respondents. Interview guide was adopted to gather data from some victims and members of stakeholders' institutions who

could not read and write. On the other hand, questionnaires were given to highly educated persons and some key informants who were literates to provide the needed information that was relevant to the study. The two instruments were used to ascertain whether the responses which were given by the educated persons was going to differ from what was provided by those with low or no formal education. Secondary data were gathered from the unpublished classified information from the records of the police service in the Eastern Region as well as data provided by International Organisation for Migration (IOM) at conferences.

Institutions that formed part of the study group

Table 1 provides a list of the various institutions that were selected for the study and included in the sample. The rationale behind the selection of specific stakeholders' institutions was the fact that most of the management and staff of those institutions are professionals who are abreast with human trafficking issues. Typical examples of the professional bodies that deal with human trafficking in Ghana include the Police Service, Immigration Service and Customs Excise and Preventive Services.

Table 2: List of various institutions selected for the study

STATE/PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS	INDIVIDUAL GROUPS/PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS
Ghana Police Service	Traditional Authorities
Ghana Immigration Service	Plan Ghana International
Attorney General Department	Religious bodies
Social Welfare	Selected media houses in the Eastern Region
Children’s Department of the Ministry of Women and Children Affairs	Legal Aid
Customs Excise and Preventive Services	
Commission of Human Rights and Administrative Justice	
Department of Labour	
Social Welfare	
Department of Community Development	

Source: Field Data, 2015

Research Instruments

Respondents were interviewed using two main instruments: an interview guide and questionnaires. These research tools were considered the most appropriate because whereas the level of education of some respondents was low, and needed to be interviewed, the literates provided their responses on questionnaires to facilitate the data collection. Questions that were asked on both

the interview guide and the questionnaires were based on the specific objectives the study sought to achieve. In order to ensure consistency in the answers provided by the study's respondents, both the interview guide and the questionnaires were divided into four sections to address the four specific objectives the study sought to achieve.

Pre-test of Field Instruments

In order to identify questions that were ambiguous to the respondents and were wrongly answered from the questionnaire and interview guide a pre-test was conducted by the researcher to avoid possible inconsistencies in the data results.

Due to time and financial constraints, twenty-five (25) respondents from five districts that were not included in the study were selected to take part in the pre-testing. Districts that were selected for the pre-test include: Manya Krobo, Upper West Akyem, Kwahu South, Kwahu East and Atewa. Two reasons informed the selection of the above-named districts for the pre-test. The first reason was due to the fact that the researcher found readily available information from the five districts' police records, while the second reason had to do with access to good roads, telecommunication and electricity to facilitate the pre-test.

The respondents were grouped into three, where five victims (5) who were trafficked were assigned Group One; five (5) private stakeholders' institutions were assigned Group Two; and fifteen (15) public stakeholders' institutions formed Group Three. Using interview guide, the researcher interviewed Group One and Group Two to solicit their views on how they understood the research questions.

On the other hand, respondents in Group Three were given a set of questionnaires to provide the answers independently.

During the testing period, the respondents were given the opportunity to ask the researcher any question they had in mind if they wanted to do so. The whole exercise took place within the maximum of one week. After all the respondents had completed their sessions, the major problems identified were addressed, and both the survey questionnaire and the interview questions were reviewed by the researcher to meet the objectives of the study.

One key issue that came up from the pre-test was that half of the respondents were unable to provide the rightful answers to questions that sought to solicit their views on government' initiatives concerning human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. Such questions were therefore modified to the respondents' level of understanding. However, it was observed from the pre-test's results that there were consistencies with regard to the responses provided by respondents who were given questionnaires to answer and those who were interviewed. Another thing that was observed from the pre-test process was that the initial target population estimated for the study was not feasible, and therefore modification was made to that effect.

Data Collection

The data was collected between June to July of 2015 after clearance was given by both principal and co- supervisors. In this regard, a copy of an introductory letter given by the Department of Geography and Regional Planning and the research instrument was sent to the various agencies and institutions. In the letter,

the researcher's identity, purpose of the study and proposed time for the data collection were mentioned. In addition to the above, the study gave room for respondents who could not make time for the stipulate date to suggest a time that would be convenient for them.

Once the letters were submitted to the general offices of the identified institutions, follow ups were made to ensure that all recipients had received the letter. When a date was agreed, the researcher then met the respondents at their workplace or any location that might be deemed fit by the respondents which may include the respondents' home. However, the study's instruments were pre-tested before the main data collection process was commenced.

Challenges from the Field

Working with security personnel under the Ministry of Interior came with a number of challenges. The unpredictable nature of their job made it very difficult to get key respondents since they easily go on assignments and also run shifts. There had also been countless occasions where the researcher booked an appointment and only to be told later that the respondents have been called upon to act in an emergency.

With the frequent disappointments, the researcher relied on meeting the respondents in their homes on weekends and on their off days from work. Exploiting these options gave room for the researcher to have ample time to interact and obtain all necessary information that was needed for the study. Meeting the stakeholder for the interview was difficult to accomplish since these persons were actively engaged in their 3daily activities hence meting times were rescheduled

many times and in fear that it might affect the outcome of the study. The meeting venues were moved to the residence of some stakeholders and for other stakeholders, the meeting time was changed to the evening and weekends.

Another challenge was how to identify the victims of human trafficking to share their experiences on how they were trafficked. The Regional Anti Human Trafficking Unit and the department of social welfare were not willing to offer the database for this target group. To overcome this challenge, the traditional authorities were relied on to identify a few of the victims and subsequently snowballing was used to identify the rest.

Data Analysis

The data was obtained in the form of responses from respondents, and were coded and processed, using Statistical Product and Services Solutions (SPSS) software version 21. The coding helped the researcher to remove items, which were not completed. The coding also enabled numbers to be assigned to the various responses to the items of the questionnaires and interview schedule. The data obtained and processed was based on the objectives and the conceptual framework of the study.

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed in the data analysis. The qualitative data were well structured and analysed with respect to the research questions of the study. The quantitative data were analysed using mainly charts, graphs and tables that showed the frequency distribution and their corresponding percentages of the relevant variables captured in the data results.

Reliability and Validity

In order to ensure reliability in this study, appropriate research methodology was used. Thus, the researcher used field notes where observations were documented to check whether there was corroboration between the study's findings and the information given by the respondents. Hence as indicated by Flick (2009) "the quality of responses and documented data becomes a central basis for assessing reliability and that of succeeding interpretation". Reliability was also guaranteed by checking concretely the structure of the study's questionnaires. The relevance of the reliability is that it ensured consistency in the study's results.

The researcher also validated the study by seeking feedback on the findings and presentations on the field. Thus the process of guaranteeing validity and reliability in this study served as an attempt to "act sensitively in the field" (Flick, 2009). In validating the study's method, mixed procedure was adopted where the issuance of questionnaires and interview as well as qualitative and quantitative analysis were conducted to identify convergence responses among multiple and different sources of data to form themes or categories in a study. Therefore, based on the study's objectives the validity which is relevant to the results of this study was clearly defined in order to reflect the multiple ways of establishing representativeness of the study's findings.

Ethical Considerations

The study's methodology was subjected to rigorous ethical considerations. The researcher ensured that the methodological approach of the study did not violate research ethics. Respondents who participated in the study were briefed on

the objectives of the study and their consent sought. Under no circumstances was any respondent coerced to participate in the study. Strict confidentiality of the information the respondents provided was assured them. In addition, all protocols, with respect to the entry of communities where the study's data were collected were observed accordingly.

Summary

The chapter sought to present the research methods and design employed in the study. Thus the chapter described the methodology that was developed to address the study's objective and research questions. The study's methodology gives insight into the assessment of the role of stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana, and sets out the research design used and criteria applied. It also included a detailed description of the data collection instruments used as well as population definition, sampling procedure, methods of data collection and ethical issues considered to implement this methodology by way of ensuring that the study's results would be analysed within the scope of the study's objectives. This chapter of the study was not without some limitations. Thus there was difficulty in determining the sample frame for the study due to heterogeneity of respondents' characteristics. However, appropriate method and procedure were employed in the study's design to ensure representativeness of the study's results.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter covers the presentation, analysis and the discussion of findings of the study. It is structured according to the research questions raised to guide the study. The chapter is broadly divided into two parts: the first part of the chapter focused on the background information of the respondents, and the second aspect concentrated on the presentation and discussion of the main findings of the study.

Background Information of the Respondents

The demographic background of respondents in a study is critical for the gathering of data on essential qualities of respondents. For instance, having a fair idea of the distribution of the respondents' sex, age, marital status and religious affiliation is crucial, because such data show the categories of people who are much involved in controlling human trafficking. This section of the study therefore discusses the background characteristics of the respondents. Issues discussed include sex, age, marital status, religious affiliation and educational background. Out of the 70 responses gathered, majority (67.1%) were male, while 32.9. This implies that more males were involved in the study as compared to their female counterparts. The study revealed that though the male respondents dominated in terms of numbers, they had little or no resources in most cases in addressing some pertinent problems relating to the control of human traffic. On the contrary their

female counterparts irrespective of their low numerical strength often provide temporary shelter, feeding and other resources to victims especially children, while investigation continued. This is because the region has no state-owned shelter to accommodate these victims.

A leading administrative stakeholder who happened to be the female Regional Director in the target group indicated that women and children were the most vulnerable victims of human trafficking in the eastern region. She stated that prompt attention was given to isolated cases reported to her at her outfit as a lawyer, to ensure expedited delivery against the seemingly marginalised victims of the menace. Age distributions of the respondents were identified. Thus to determine age differentials, respondents were asked to provide their age within a given age intervals, and the results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Age distribution of respondents

Age	Percent
20-29	28.6
30-39	34.3
40-49	15.7
50-59	21.4
Total	100.0

Source: Field Data (2015)

In addition to the above, the study sought to identify respondents age by using age groups with an interval of 10 as shown in Table 3. The results shows that 28.6 percent of the respondents were between the ages of 20-29, while 34.3 percent were between the ages of 30-39. The results further shows that 15.7 percent of the

respondents were between the ages of 40-49 whereas 21.4 percent were between the ages of 50-59. This implies that most of the respondents who were involved in the study were between the ages of 30-39. However, it was revealed in the study that most of the respondents between the ages of 20-29 years were new in their respective organisations and could not answer some of the questions. However, the new respondents were more abreast with technology and were able to provide useful information such as multi-sectorial database for easy accessibility of information. Moreover, responses of the respondents within the age bracket 30-39 and 40-49 showed that they had a considerable experience in the area of human trafficking and also had technological knowledge. They used their self-acquired improvised devices like palm tops, lap tops, and mobile phones to assist in the fight against human trafficking since they had little or no state support. Having identified the age and sex, the study went further to identify the marital status of respondents as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Percent
Single	30.0
Married	64.3
Divorced/Separated	5.7
Widowed	0.0
Total	100.0

Source: Field Data (2015)

Findings from Table 4 shows that 30.0 percent of respondents were single and this included respondents who were never married, 64.3 percent were married,

and 5.7 percent were divorced or separated. The results also show that none of the respondents was found to be widowed. This implies that majority of the respondents were married. The main reason identified for recording of majority of the respondents being married persons was that most of the respondents sampled for the study fell within the ages that constituted marriage couples in Ghana, according to Ghana Statistical Service report. Thus according to Ghana Statistical Service (2013), the percentage married persons in Eastern Region increases rapidly from age group 20-24 years and reaches a peak at age groups 40-44 years (71.3%) and 45-49 years (70.9%).

Since religion plays a key role in the Ghanaian socio-cultural settings, the researcher further probed respondents' religious affiliation and the results of their responses are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Religious Affiliations of the Respondents

Religious Affiliation	Percent
Christian	74.3
Muslim	25.7
Traditionalist	0.0
Total	100.0

Source: Field Data (2015)

As shown in Table 5, the data show that 74.3 percent of the respondents were Christians, 25.7 percent were Muslims and none of the respondent was a traditionalist. This implies that majority of the respondents (74.3%) were Christians. Both Christians and Muslims respondents despised the escalated rate of moral rot against humanity, especially on crime such as human trafficking locally

and internationally, they were willing to commit extra resources in transforming existing mechanisms that are in place to control the menace. Though some traditional rulers were interviewed, most of them indicated that they were Christians while a few claimed to be Muslims hence no recording was made for traditional religion. This finding is in line with Ghana Statistical Service (2012) population and housing census summary report at the national level, which showed that 71.2 percent of the Ghana's population profess the Christian faith, followed by Islam (17.6%), with only a small proportion of the population either adhere to traditional religion (5.2%) or are not affiliated to any religion (5.3%). On the regional level, the dominant religious group in the Eastern Region is Christianity with more than four-fifth (84.5%) professing adherence to the Christian faith. Moslems form only 6.7 percent of the population. The adherents to traditional religion form (1.4%) and those who have no religion constitute 6.5 percent (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013).

Table 6: Educational level of Respondents

Level of Education	Percent
Basic	0.0
Secondary	22.9
Tertiary	77.1
Total	100.0

Source: Field Data (2015)

One's level of education would play a key role in gathering data on issues of human trafficking. In assessing the educational background of the respondents, it was observed as shown in Table 6 that none of the respondents had basis

education, while 22.9 percent of the respondents have attained secondary education and this mainly include respondents who have successfully passed their West African Senior Certificate Exams and could express themselves in English. On the other hand, majority (77.1%) of respondents have attained tertiary education. Hence this implies that majority of the respondents have attained tertiary education. The study showed that most of the 16 respondents representing 22.9 percent had little field experience in controlling human trafficking. Meanwhile, some of them had served for many years with enormous exposure and experience in the area of human trafficking. The remaining 54 respondents representing 77.1 percent with tertiary education were often placed at supervisory level. This results are contrary to the findings of Ghana Statistical Service (2013) concerning educational status of districts in the Eastern Region. According to the report, the majority (59.8%) have primary or JSS/JHS/Middle school education with less than 10 percent having senior secondary/high education and negligent proportions have vocational technical, post-secondary and higher education.

In order to achieve the study's specific objectives, analysis and discussions were made based on the research questions that were posed, and appropriate answers were sought from the study's respondents. The results of respondents' responses were discussed using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. In this regard, all the discussions were descriptive in nature. Table 7 therefore discusses the level of policy awareness among stakeholders on Human Trafficking.

The Level of Policy Awareness Among Stakeholders on HT

In order to ascertain the degree of policy awareness among stakeholders on human trafficking, a question was posed to solicit the study's respondents' views. The result showed that 35.7 percent gave a positive response to the statement that stakeholders have specific policy on human trafficking, while the majority (64.3%) gave a negative response that stakeholders do not have any specific policy on human trafficking. This implies that majority of the stakeholders are not fully aware of policy directions on human trafficking. This evidence therefore shows that most respondents were not abreast with human trafficking menace. Linking this with the Theory of planned behavior it came to light that most stakeholders of HT in Eastern Region had no specific policy direction hence had no control over all factors affecting the actual performance of their roles in curbing HT (Ajzen,1991). Also, in a study conducted by UNODC, (2011) on Responses to human Trafficking in Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka it was established that Nepal was the only country out of the four that has taken a number of steps including Legislation to strengthen anti – trafficking measures. The lack of specific structures in the selected Asian countries where HT is reported to be high is in tandem with the study's findings which reveal that there is limited policy direction among stake holders in HT within the Eastern Region.

In order to obtain further evidence about respondents' awareness regarding policies and principles on human trafficking, some provisions of Ghana's Human Trafficking Act (2005) and United Nations recommended principles on Human Rights and Humans as shown in Table 8 were adopted to assess respondents' views. One stakeholder narrated her observation as follows:

My husband and some persons were lured by some individuals for greener pastures outside the country specifically in the Arab Nations. Upon reaching Qatar from Suhum, my husband just like other victims did not realised the promise he was given and was forced in to the prostitution where they were sodomised and maltreated (Key informant interviewed, 2016).

Table 7: Human Trafficking Act 2005 and UN Recommendation

Ghana's Human Trafficking Act 2005 (Prohibition of trafficking)*	UN Recommended Principles on Human Rights and Humans Trafficking (2002)**
1. A person shall not traffic another person within the meaning of section 1 or act as an intermediary for the trafficking of a person.	The human rights of trafficked persons shall be at the centre of all efforts to prevent and combat trafficking and to protect, assist and provide redress to victims.
2. A person who provides another person for purposes of trafficking commits an offence even where the person is a parent.	Strategies aimed at preventing trafficking shall address demand as a root cause of trafficking.
3. Conveyance in trafficking includes use of public transport and other forms of transport such as conveyance by land, water or air.	States shall adopt appropriate legislative and other measures necessary to establish, as criminal

Table 8 continued

	offences, trafficking, its component acts and related conduct.
4. A person who uses a trafficked person commits an offence and is liable on summary conviction to a term of imprisonment of not less than five years	States shall effectively investigate, prosecute and adjudicate trafficking, including its component acts and related conduct, whether committed by governmental or by non-State actors.
5. A person who contravenes subsection	Commits an offence and is liable on summary conviction to imprisonment for a term of not less than five years.

Source: *Ghana's Human Trafficking Act 2005; **United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2002)

Another stakeholder in Suhum had this to say on human trafficking menace concerning his colleague who happened to be a victim:

One victim narrated his ordeal on how he was promised of menial jobs that would earn him about 1500 dollars a month and upon hearing this. To his surprise, the recruiter took care of the air ticket and other travelling expenses and upon reaching Kuwaiti, the recruiter ceased their travel document since he had incurred

some cost on them which would have to be paid back and ceasing their traveling document was one sure way of securing their loans. According to this respondent, the recruiter managed to find his colleague the job as promised but the remuneration did not commensurate the promise made in Ghana. Upon protecting through their host agents and were asked to offset the debt of the recruiter and after 2 years of maltreatment, lower wages and exploitation by the recruiter, they managed to offset the recruiter and their host agents agreed to release their document once they had enough to pay for their owe air plane ticket (Key informant interviewed).

This narration is not far from Robison's (1994) 'Blame the victim theory', which maintains that, "Victim-blaming occurs when the victim of a crime or abuse is held partly or entirely responsible for the actions committed against them.

Stakeholders' Views on Kinds of Human Trafficking in their Communities

This section looks at the stakeholders' view on what they consider human trafficking. The purpose of this section was to ascertain if the key stakeholders who are in charge of averting the menace of human trafficking understood human trafficking as revealed in the literature review. The results based on the research questions are presented in Figure 5 and Figure 6 which have common linkage.

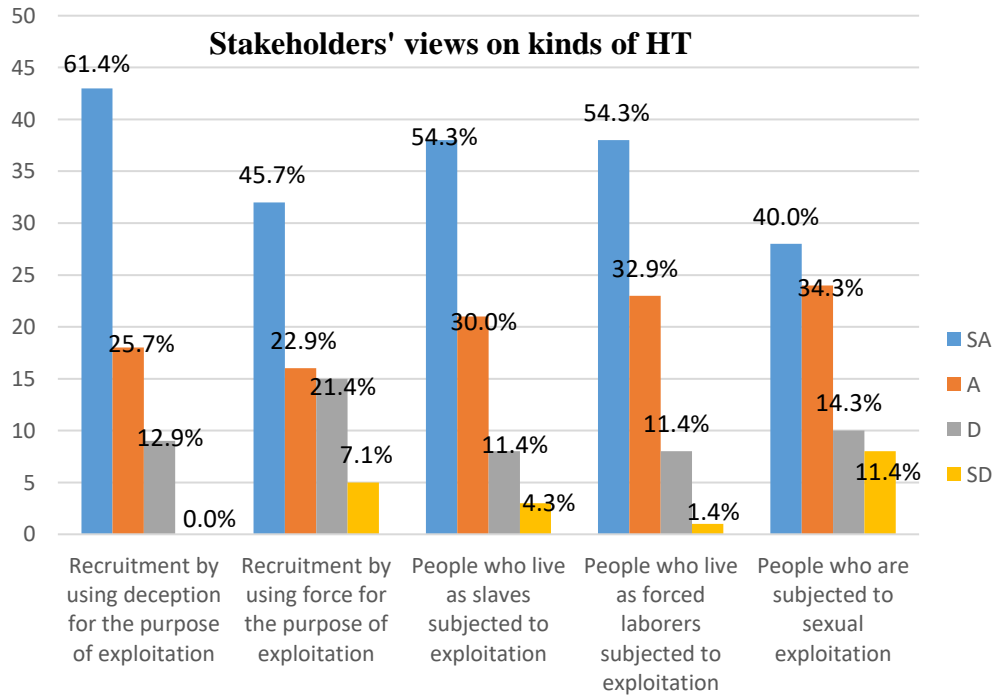


Figure 5: Views of stakeholders on what constitute human trafficking

Source: Field Data, 2015

[SA=strongly agreed; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree]

The common link that exists between the results in Figure 5 and Figure 6 is that whereas the former provides information on the mode of recruitment through deception and coercion, and the kind of work persons recruited are subjected to do, the latter highlights where the trafficked victims are transported to and the kind of work they are made to do at the destination. These linkages highlight the percentages of categories of human trafficking and the mode of transportation of trafficked persons both internally and externally. The results of the nature of human

trafficking and the mode of transporting the victims are also presented in Figure 6.

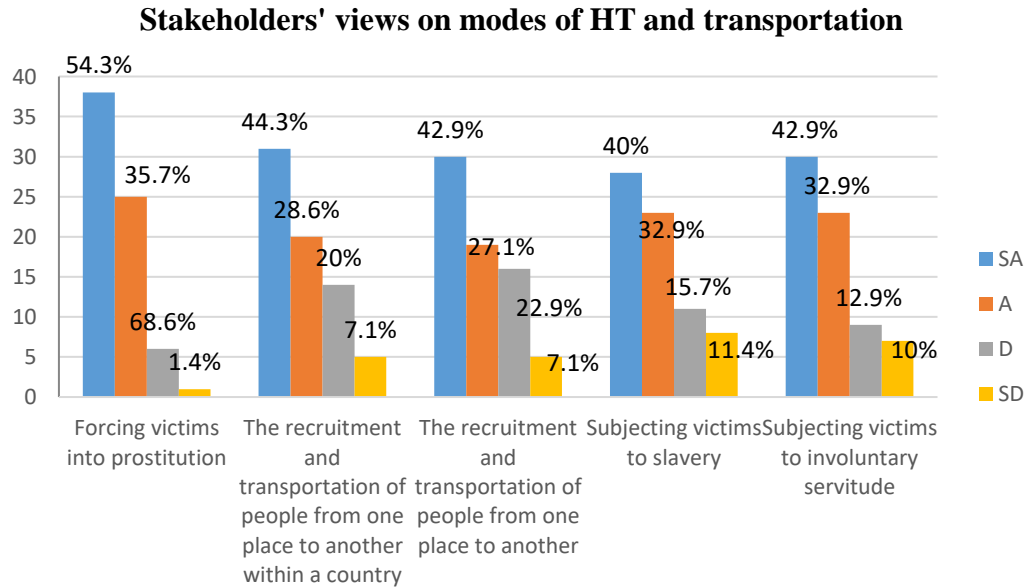


Figure 6: Views of stakeholders on modes of HT and Transportation

Source: Field Data (2015)

[SA=strongly agreed; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree]

The results in Figure 5 and Figure 6 showed that majority of the stakeholders (61.4%) perceive human trafficking as a form of recruitment by using deception to exploit their victims. Furthermore, whilst most of the stakeholders (54.3%) were of the view that human trafficking is a form of activity where people live as slaves subjected to exploitation, equally 54.3 percent of the respondents also believed that in human trafficking people live as forced labourers subjected to exploitation.

In addition to this, there were also some 54.3 percent stakeholders who were of the view that in human trafficking the victims are sometimes forced in to

prostitution. The various views expressed by the respondents to constitute the activity of human trafficking such as deception, force, enslavement, and prostitution shows that they have adequate knowledge on the activities of human trafficking as emphasised by the literature (UNICEF, 2013; ILO, 2015).

The research question of which parts in the Eastern Region does human trafficking occur most was posed to find out from the respondents the parts of the Eastern Region that human trafficking occurred most. The responses from the respondents showed that the people were mostly trafficked from as far as Tantale near Walewale and other towns in the Northern Region that serves as places of origin of the victims.

Majority of the respondents indicated that in situations where the Eastern Region serves as place of destination, towns like Donkokrom, Koforidua, Akropong, Kwabibrim, Begoro, Kibi and Akim Afiase communities are the major place that serves as destinations for human trafficking in the Eastern Region. On the other hand, if the Eastern Region serves as a place of origin, Nsawam, Oyoko, Suhum, Koforidua and Begoro serve as major towns that the victims are taken to.

The various routes and destinations are shown in Table 8. All the information in Table 8 was gathered from reported cases at the Regional Anti-Human Trafficking Units in Koforidua, which shows some places of origin, transit and destination of human traffic in eastern region and beyond. Additionally, the responses which were gathered from the study's respondents revealed that the Northern Region, Upper East and West, Volta as well as Greater Accra region all served as places of origin where people are trafficked through to Koforidua and

some catchment areas in the Eastern Region to do menial jobs such as mining, weeding, house helps, head porting and sexual exploitation as shown in Table 8.

Table 9: Access route for trafficked victims

PLACE(S) OF ORIGIN	PLACE(S) OF TRANSIT	PLACE(S) OF DESTINATION
Tantale	Nkawkaw	Koforidua
Akosombo	Koforidua	Akropong
Oyoko	Suhum	Accra
Nsawam	Tamale	Guinea & Sierra Leone
Suhum	Accra	Qater
Koforidua	Accra	Kuwait
Ejisu	Nkawkaw	Begoro
Begoro	Koforidua	Belgium & other parts of Europe
Bolgatanga	Kumasi	Akim Afiasa, Ahwiniase
Kumasi	Begoro, Oda, Nkawkaw & Accra	Belgium, Italy & South Africa
Niger	Kumasi	Guinea & Sierra Leone
Bole	Nkawkaw	Quatar
Cape coast	Nkawkaw	Kuait
Atimpoku	Begoro	Donkokrom
Ada	Koforidua	Yeji & Afram Plains
Akwatia	Suhum	Kibi

Table 10 continue

Hohoe/ Aflao	Koforidua	Akim Manpong & Anyinam
Asesewa/Somanya	Koforidua	Oda, Gyadam & Aduasa

Source: Field Data (2015).

A classic example of the information about the various routes and destinations of human trafficking is what has been provided by some stakeholder who fight against human trafficking. Thus information from the field by the Ghana Police Service, Children’s Department, Social Welfare and Attorney-General’s offices revealed that recently, a group of people under the pretext of setting up a soccer academy trafficked some young people abroad.

The victims of this trafficking incidence who were from some parts of Eastern Region such as Begoro, Nkawkaw and Oda were sent to countries like Belgium, Italy and South Africa where they ended up being deceived and reassigned to other exploitative jobs. This example gives some idea about inactiveness of the enforcement agencies. It supports Sosuh’s (2011) assertion that continuous occurrence of human trafficking in Ghana is as a result of poor performance of the enforcement agencies due to their low resource capacity. This has resulted in little or no control for human trafficking. This is in line with the Social Disorganisation Theory which links human trafficking to lack of formal and informal controls put in place to curb the activity (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993).

In order to buttress the facts about how human trafficking victims are transported within and outside the borders of Ghana, a pictorial representation is provided within the map of Ghana. The rationale behind this pictorial representation was to provide an observable routes through which human beings

are illegally transported by human trafficking agents. The inter cross-sectional and intra cross-sectional routes where human beings are transported from the origin to the destination through a transit is therefore presented in Figure 7 below.

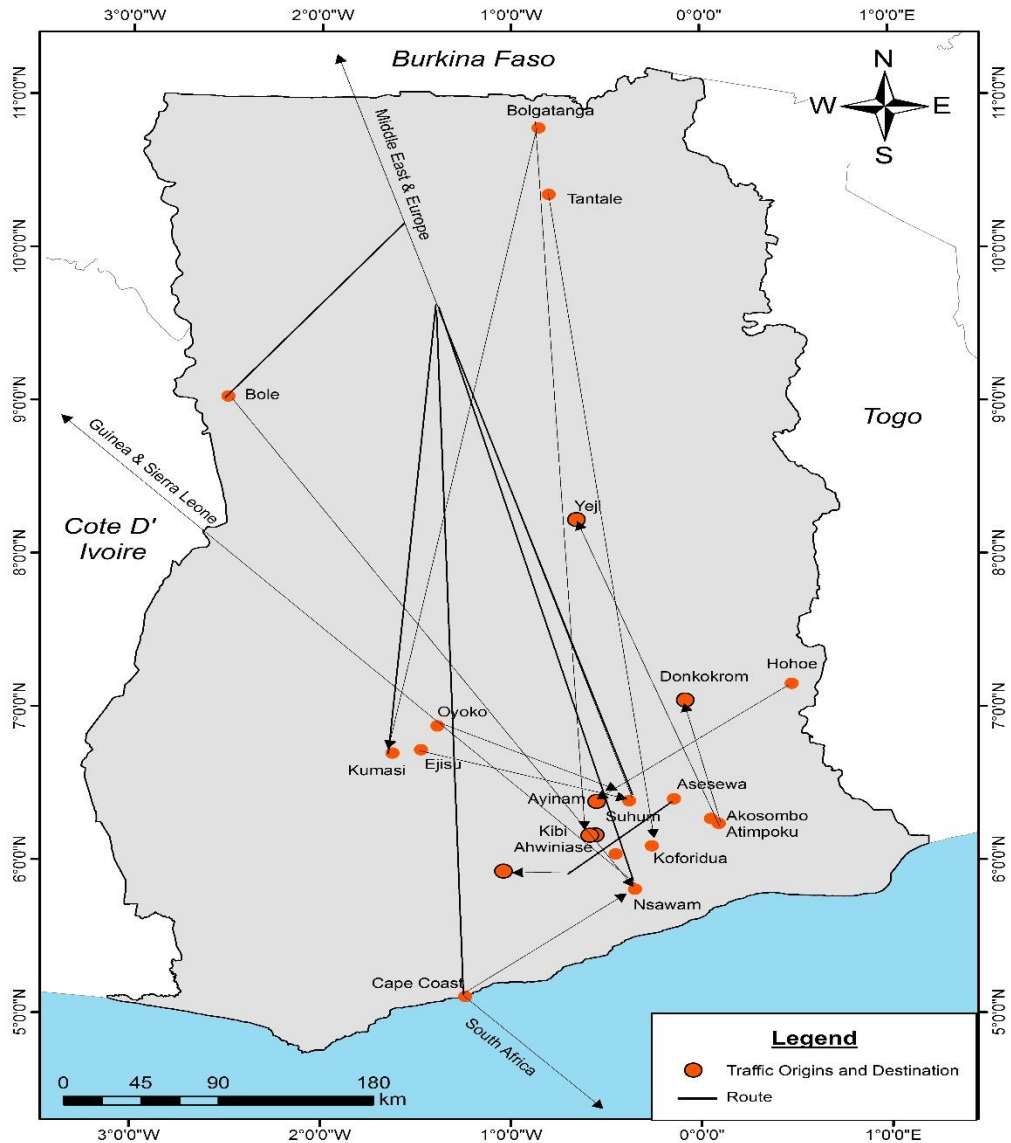


Figure 7: A Map showing Access route for trafficked victims

Source: Source: Cartography and GIS unit, Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC (2015)

Figure 7 shows both inter and intra cross-sectional routes where human beings are transported from the origin to the destination through a transit. For instance, it is observed in Figure 7 that victims are transported from Nsawam (destination) to Ahwiniase (internal) where transit is made to Bole (internal) and another transit made to Burkina Faso (external destination). This shows that series of movements could be made by human trafficking agents internally before the trafficked victims are received at the intended destinations. These findings supports Taylor's (2002) observation that human traffickers use different means including land and air to transport their victims to their destinations.



Figure 8: Security agencies and trafficked victims

Source: Field Data, 2015

Figure 8 shows the security agencies' commitment to address Human Trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The background of the image shows a

mining site at Birim South where human trafficking victims were rescued by the police and the Army personnel. To identify whether the stakeholders had adequate/enough human and institutional capacity to control human trafficking in the Eastern Region, specific question regarding institutional capacity was posed to solicit the views of the study's respondents. Figure 8 highlights the results gathered from the respondents.

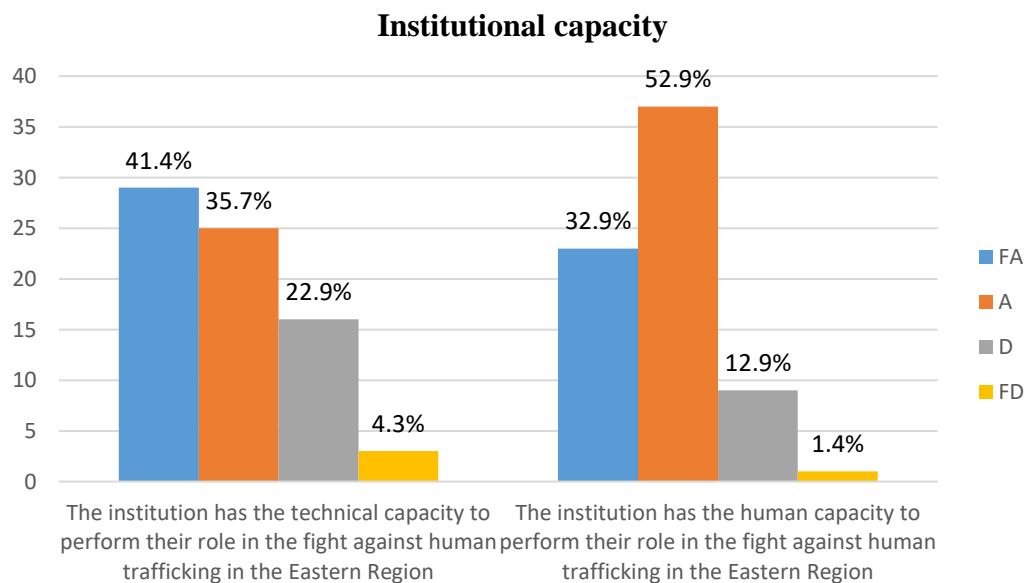


Figure 9: Adequacy of Human and Institutional Capacity to Control Human Trafficking in the Eastern Region

Source: Field Data (2015)

[FA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; FD=strongly disagree]

Figure 9 shows the adequacy of human and institutional capacity to control human trafficking in the Eastern Region. Results from Figure 9 showed that in responding to the first statement on the subject under discussion (technical capacity to fight HT), 41.4 percent of the respondents strongly agreed, 35.7 percent agreed,

22.9 percent disagreed and only 4.3 percent strongly disagreed with the statement. On the second statement (human capacity in fighting HT), the results indicated that 32.9 percent of the respondents strongly agreed, 52.9 percent agreed, 12.9 percent disagreed and only 1.4 percent strongly disagreed with the statement. This implies that there is adequacy of human and institutional capacity to control human trafficking in the Eastern Region. Overall, the stakeholders who had adequate human and institutional capacity to manage the menace was 64.3 percent, while 85.8 percent had human capacities. However, there were insufficiency in technical and logistical support as well as adequate dawning for stakeholders in fighting human trafficking menace.

The resultant effect could be linked with lack of motivation among stakeholders which is a recipe institutional corruption. Also since stakeholders are not adequately resourced border are made porous thereby causing an upsurge crime Sosuh (2011). An increase in the prostitution scene, international focus on HT and public debate on HT as findings by Strom (2008) on the construction of HT as a social problem conducted in Norway could be as a result of insufficient technical and logistical support as well as inadequate trading among stakeholders of HT in the region.

More so, another study conducted by UNODC (2012) on responses to HT in Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka (South Asia) no proper structures existed in combating the HT menace in the four Asian countries. However, Nepal was reported to be the only country with formalised legislature in place to fight the HT menace. This, when related to prior findings, points to the fact that there are insufficiencies in logistical and the technical supports as well as training of

stakeholders to deal with HT. These weaknesses also affect the distribution of case of crime due formal and informal social controls that affects the structural characteristics of affected communities in the region. This explains the social disorganisation Theory which posits that social control had the potential to destroy institutional structures (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993).

The blame the victim theory which addresses the fact that institutions mandated to curb crime are partly or entirely held responsible, could be related to this study because of the lapses in logistical and technical supports in this study. Also, it was found out that some victims interviewed voluntarily availed themselves through the deception by their perpetrators as per the concepts of this theory (Robinson, 1994).

Stakeholders from most organisations such as Ghana Police Service, Immigration Service and Attorney General's Department among others indicated that they had the human capacity but needed extra training both nationally and internationally. They also suggested that a common data base was created to make information readily available to them on technical and logistical support all key stakeholders interviewed emphasised inadequacy in same and called for modern equipment such as computers, tracking devices, stationery among others to enhance their output in curbing the Human Trafficking menace. Moreover, Sosuh (2011) in her work on border security in Ghana; Challenges and prospects highlighted the inadequacies in logistics and other resources for stakeholders in the security services. This lack of motivation she said could be a recipe for institutional corruption.



Figure 10: Lumber site where trafficked children work

Source: Field Data, 2015

Figure 10 presents the picture of officers from Criminal Investigation Department and trafficked victim at lumber site at Suhum in the Eastern Region. At this site the Police investigation has revealed that children and women who were sent to the place do not only engage in sawmilling, but also some are forced to involve in mining, farming, fishing and petty trading. This observation is not far from the U.S. Department of State Diplomacy in Action's (2015) report that Ghanaian boys and girls trafficked are subjected to forced labour within the country in fishing, domestic service, street hawking, begging, portering, artisanal gold mining, quarrying, herding, and agriculture.



Figure 11: Mining (galamsey) site at Akwatia in the Birim South District

Source: Field Data, 2015

Figure 11 shows illegal mining (galamsey) site at Akwatia in the Birim South District where a lot of school-going age children, youth and women have been trafficked to mine diamond. One of the key informants from the police service in the area narrated the incidence of human trafficking reported case to their outfit:

A tipoff was given to them that a new diamond mining site had been commenced illegally by some group of people in the middle of a forest. Upon gathering the information, we deployed our men and to our surprise, we found about thirty-five young men and woman and children who were victims trafficked to the site to work for their agents. Our men rescued the victims and brought them to the Eastern Region Police

Regional Headquarters for further investigation (Key informant interviewed).

The need to determine the kind of support stakeholders’ institutions receive from the general public to control human trafficking was paramount to the study’s objective. Figure 9 therefore presents the results of the public support received by stakeholders’ institutions in controlling human trafficking.

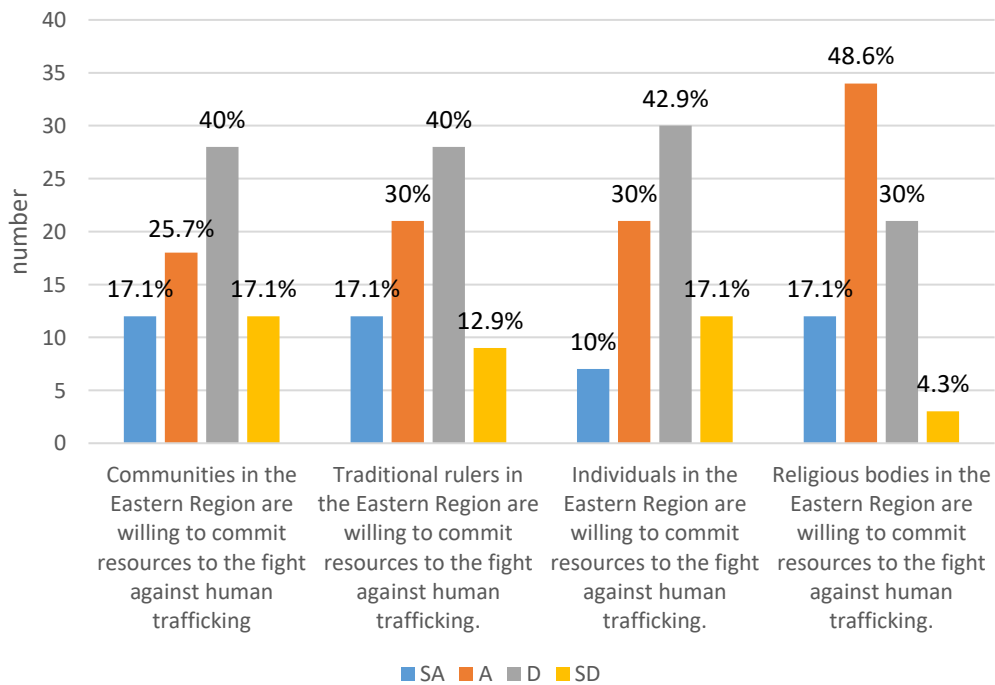


Figure 12: Public Support Received by Stakeholders in Controlling Human Trafficking in the Region

Source: Field Data (2015)

[SA=strongly agree; A= agree D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree]

Figure 12 shows the public support received by stakeholders in controlling human trafficking in the region. The result showed that on the responses of the respondents on whether or not communities in the eastern region are willing to

commit resources to the fight against human trafficking. The results showed that 17.1 percent strongly agreed, 25.7 percent agreed, 40.0 percent disagreed and 17.1 percent strongly disagreed. Relating to the statement on the willingness of traditional rulers to commit resources to fight against human trafficking, the results showed that 17.1 percent strongly agreed, 30.0 percent agreed, 40.0 percent disagreed and 12.9 percent strongly disagreed with the statement. Owing to the fact that individuals in the eastern region are willing to commit resources to the fight against human trafficking, the results revealed that as 10.0 percent strongly agreed, 30.0 percent agreed, 40.0 percent disagreed and 17.1 percent strongly disagreed. Finally, on the support from religious bodies, it was found out that 17.1 percent strongly agreed, 48.5 percent agreed, 30.0 percent disagreed and 4.3 percent strongly disagreed with statement. It came to light that the willingness of communities, traditional rulers and individuals to commit resources in the fight against HT were 42.6 percent, 47.1 percent, 40 percent and 65 percent respectively. This was attributed to low level of information and public education on places where HT occur.

The study also showed that children are trafficked with the full approval of their parents. Mends (2013). However, the low percentages recorded as willingness of individuals, communities and traditional rulers to commit resources to combating HT could be attributed to their poor or inadequate management of HT. Also the high readiness of Religious bodies to commit resources in the fight against HT could be attributed to their approval on grounds of little or no public education on the menace. More so, the high readiness of Religious bodies to commit resources in the fight against HT confirms his finding that religious organisations are mostly

responsible for the rescue of victims. The fact that these institutional stakeholders play key roles in the fight against HT, the blame the system theory in one breath addresses their unwillingness to commit resources to partly or entirely prevent HT in the region since some victims willingly bow to deceptive stories of perpetrators, parents, communities and traditional rulers are often in agreement victims to go far greener pastures. The victim in another breath is blamed. Hence use of the blame the system blame the victim theory Robinson (1994).



Figure 13: Rescued victims from fishing communities in Afram Plains

Source: Field Data, 2015

Stakeholders interviewed from key institutions like Legal Aid, Police, Social Welfare and CHRAJ stated that communities, individual and traditional authorities have lower commitment in the fight against human trafficking as opposed to religious organisations in the region. For instance, a prominent chief in Eastern Region who was one of the key informants recounted his son's experience when he was interviewed:

My son decided to leave Ghana for Qatar when he was promised of high earning menial jobs in the destination. This son refused to heed to the advice of the chief who had had extensive education on human trafficking since a cross section of the youth in his community are have been victim. Upon reaching Qatar and deluded of his dream job, the chief had to offset the local recruiting agency of all expense they have incurred in sending the child to Qatar and this amount can be as high as 6000 dollars depending on some considerations and other conditions. We had to pour libation for our ancestors to intervene to bring back our son (Key informant interviewed). This assertion is consistent with the study of Mends (2013), which revealed that chiefs and religious bodies often assist in the rescue and support of trafficked victims.



Figure 14: Human Trafficking Victim being interviewed
Source: Field Data, 2015

Figure 14 portrays an interview session between some stakeholders' institutions mandated by the Ghana government to investigate and identify areas in the Eastern Region where human trafficking menace is pervasive. This effort made by the Ghana Government supports U.S Department of State Diplomacy in Action's (2015) report that Government of Ghana demonstrated a modest increase in anti-trafficking prevention efforts. With support of an international organisation in 2014, according to the report, the government reconvened the Human Trafficking Management Board (HTMB), the inter-ministerial committee responsible for advising the Ministry of Gender, Children, and Social Protection (MGCSP) on anti-trafficking policy, promoting prevention efforts, and facilitating the rehabilitation and reintegration of trafficking victims.

According to U.S Department of State Diplomacy in Action's (2015) report, the government did not employ formal procedures to identify victims among vulnerable groups, such as women in prostitution or children at work sites. However, law enforcement agencies operating at the border initiated questioning to recognise indicators of trafficking. The government encouraged an unspecified number of victims to assist in the investigation and prosecution of trafficking offenders and provided them with protective escorts and legal counsel during trial proceedings; however, law enforcement officials stated they did not have the means to provide shelter or to effectively protect witnesses (U.S Department of State Diplomacy in Action).

Summary

The focus of this chapter was to analyse and discuss the result of the data used in the study. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were employed in discussing the study's data results. The whole analysis was descriptive in nature. In addressing the research questions and objectives, frequencies and percentages were used in the analysis and discussions. In some cases, direct quotes were made to represent what the study's respondents actually said when they were interviewed. The findings of this study, supported by several intuitive empirical literatures, reveal that in terms of policy direction on human trafficking, few of the state institution had specific policies on human trafficking despite their perceived stance in the fight against human trafficking. Additionally, it was observed in the discussion that the various state institutions had different perceptions on what constituted human trafficking.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The chapter focuses on the summary of the study, the conclusions drawn from the findings and recommendations made for policy implication. The final section of the chapter looks at the areas for further research, highlighting the alternative approach that could be used by other researchers to investigate the current problem. The summary, conclusion and recommendation are based on the study's objective in assessing the role of stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana

Summary of Major Findings

Overall, the study sought to assess the roles of stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in the Easter Region of Ghana. Personnel from the Police, Immigration, Attorney-General's office, Social Welfare, National Commission for Civic Education, the Prisons Service, NGO's, the chiefs and elders of communities and rescued victims in other to ascertain the role of key stakeholders play in the fight against human trafficking. The total sample size for the study consisted of 100 respondents. There were three categories of respondents for the study, 70 administrative stakeholders, 20 NGO's and Opinion Leaders and 10 victims who were or have been rescued.

The main research instruments used were a set of self-administered questionnaire and interview guide. The descriptive survey design was used to collect data. The researcher made use of personal contacts, observational guide, personal observation in conducting the interviews and administering questionnaire during data collection. The analysis of data was done using the Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) software version 21. Data were presented by the use of percentages and frequencies, and in some cases, direct quotations were used since the study rendered itself to mixed methods.

Major Findings of the Study

Based on the study's specific objectives, the study reveals a summary of the major findings which include the following:

1. The study found that in terms of policy direction on human trafficking, few of the state institution had specific policies on human trafficking despite their perceived stance in the fight against human trafficking.
2. The study again found that the various state institutions had different perceptions on what constituted human trafficking. However, there was a clear understanding of human trafficking among all the administrative stakeholders.
3. The study also found that, the major places of destination for human trafficking in the Eastern Region were places like Akwatia , Oda, Kibi, Anyinam, Akim Manpong and Paming, Kwabeng, Morso, Moseaso, Akrofu, Apapam, Ahweniease, Kubreso, Akim Gyadam and Akim Aduasa among other towns where mining activities are the highest paid jobs. On the

other hand, farming and fishing communities like Begoro, Donkokrom, Tiase, Asesewa, Otokpolu, Akim Tafo, Klo Agogo, Ahwiabeng, Atimpoku, Gyakiti-Akwamu and Akwamufie also serves as places of destination where victims are kept in farming and fishing activities.

4. On the places of origin in the Eastern Region, the study found that Donkokrom, Adaeso, Kwabibrim, Oyoko, Nkawkaw, Koforidua, Somanya, Asamankese and Oda are places where victims of trafficking are trafficked from to other parts of the country.
5. Another finding of this study was that, almost all the institutions have adequate human and institutional capacities to manage the menace of human trafficking in their respective jurisdiction. However, it was also found that, there were deficiencies in the technical and logistical capacities of the institution sampled for the study.
6. Also, the study found that, in the area of public support for the key stakeholders in their fight against human trafficking, the institutions had very little support from their respective communities. Some of these support ranged from information on places where the act was taking place and supports in public education by religious leaders.

Conclusions

Overall, the role of key stakeholders in managing human trafficking in the Eastern Region has little or no policy directions in their quest to manage human trafficking. Consciousness-raising efforts by stakeholders aimed at stressing the illegality of trafficking must be combined with efforts that promote economic

stability and offer solutions for families deemed most at-risk within countries of origin. Efforts such as these address both the legal and juridical nature of trafficking as a crime, but also address the potentially causative or exacerbating effects of inequality in both core and peripheral nations.

Increasingly, social welfare advocates are recognizing the global interconnectedness of practices and contexts that violate human rights and enhance social injustice. Advocates also understand that narrow intervention or prevention approaches are not effective when dealing with complex problems like human trafficking. The challenges faced by many of the organisations combating contemporary slavery and human trafficking throughout the world are directly linked to efforts at combating poverty, economic insecurity and social inequality across the globe.

Moreover, discrepant policies may make efforts at family reunification difficult given the international scope of the trafficking process. Though very much a global problem, efforts at treaty reform and inter-continental agreements may promote education, sensitisation, and outreach efforts that are also specifically targeted at the family and relevant community.

In order to protect the rights of trafficked persons and to work toward the elimination of trafficking, human rights advocates across multiple sectors should advance a movement based on shared goals. It can also be concluded that the absence of technical and logistical strength of the key stake holders are resistance to their capabilities of fighting the human trafficking crimes.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were made.

1. The study recommends that the national security should consider improving the human and technical capacities of the key stakeholders by way of providing related logistics and training for the key stakeholders to adequately play their role in addressing issues of human trafficking in the country, specifically the Eastern Region.
2. The study recommends that since the major places of origin and destination of human trafficking in the Eastern Region were mining, farming and fishing communities, it would be prudent for the key stakeholders to jointly embark on periodic public sensitization and orientation for the people of economic communities.
3. The study recommends that to avoid an overlaps in the performance of the duties of the key stakeholders, there should be a clear-cut policy direction for all the key stakeholders to ensure proper networking among them.
4. The study again recommends that the National Security together with the Ministry of Gender and Social Protection and international bodies like USAID, UKAID, UNICEF, ILO, IMO, as well as international NGO's such as Plan International and World Vision to support in the expansion of the infrastructure and provision of logistics for receiving stakeholders such as the Social Warfare, Children's Department and the Ghana Police Service.
5. To ensure that the all the key stakeholders work effectively, there is the need for NGO's, opinion leaders, rescued victims, and the general public to offer

all the necessary support and partner the state agencies in other for a proper harmonisation of their activities in the fight against human trafficking.

6. Given the complex realities of human trafficking, it is recommended that prevention initiatives need to be related to local contexts and situations, as well as being flexible and able to adapt over time. Overall, a comprehensive strategy based on UN Guidelines should have a number of characteristics, including working cross-sectional with a number of governments departments; horizontally with other governments and their departments; and with civil society partners including non-government organisations and the business and private sector. It would need to establish a series of short, medium and longer-term goals, and funding streams, leverage resources, and include strong monitoring and evaluation components. The development of specific initiatives also requires a clear diagnosis of the context and situation, and vulnerable groups and sectors, which at the local level can be assisted by the use of safety audits.⁹⁴ Only through tracking the progress of initiatives can better evidence of their effects and effectiveness be gained.

Suggestion for Further Studies

The study suggests the use of other analytical tools such as multiple regression analysis, correlation and chi-square analysis as an alternative approach should be employed in future research on the current problem under investigation. Such studies should be conducted on cross regional basis to examine the role of stakeholder institutions in controlling human trafficking in Ghana. This will

enhance the reliability of the results obtained from the study. It is further suggested that broad operationalisation should be done in future studies to incorporate more variables that will widen the studies' results and discussion. This is crucial because this study focused on few variables in the analysis. On the other hand, sample size of future studies should be increased, since this study considered only 100 respondents, and such sample size might not be representative of the larger population of the region within which the study was carried out.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES –DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY

AND REGIONAL PLANNING

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE STAKEHOLDERS

This questionnaire has been put together to gather information about your opinion on the role of key stakeholders in managing human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. You are kindly being requested to take some time of your busy schedule and provide the necessary information and wish to assure you that the answers provided will be used for academic work only and treated confidentially. Thank you in advance for your time and agreeing to participate in this study. Write or tick (✓) the appropriate response to each of the questions that follow:

SECTION A: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

1. Age in completed years:

- (a) Less than 19 (b) 20 -29 [] (c) 30 – 39 []
(d) 40-49 [] (e) 50 – 59 []

2. Sex: 1. Male [] 2. Female []

3. Marital Status: 1. Single [] 2. Married [] 3. Divorced/Separated [] 4.
Widowed []

4. Religious Affiliation: 1. Christian [] 2. Muslim [] 3. Traditionalist [] 4.
Others []
specify.....

5. Highest level of education attained: 1. Secondary [] 2. Tertiary []

Others please specify.....

6. Rank/Position:.....
7. Number of years in service:
8. Unit or Division.....
9. Institution:

SECTION B: The Technical, Human and Institutional Capacity of the Anti-Human Trafficking Stakeholders

Please read each item carefully and select/tick the response which best expresses your response. (Write or tick (✓) the appropriate response in this section)

10. Does your institution have a specific Department [], Unit [], Committee [] or Person(s) [] working on the issue of human trafficking?
11. Please state the name of the specific section of your institution that work on human trafficking.....
12. Your institution have a specific policy, on human trafficking.
Agree [] Disagree []
13. If you agree, please briefly describe the specific objectives of the policy (could you provide a hard copy if possible).....
14. If no, there is the need to have one? Fully Agree [] Agree []
Disagree [] Fully Disagree []
15. How many institutions do you know are mandated to combat human trafficking?
(a) 1 [] (b) 2 [] (c) 3 [] (d) 4 [] (e) 5 [] (f) Others, specify.....

16. Can you mention names of the key institutions mandated to fight against HT in order of importance?

No.	Institution	Role
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

17. (a). The institution has the technical capacity (physical and operational ability of the institution) to perform their role in the fight against human trafficking in the Eastern Region?

Fully Agree [] Agree [] Disagree [] Fully Disagree []

(b). Please, explain your choice of answer

18. (a). The institution has the human capacity (personnel with professional competencies) to perform their role in the fight against human trafficking in the Eastern Region?

Fully Agree [] Agree [] Disagree [] Fully Disagree []

(b) Please, explain your choice of answer

.....

Please suggest three things that could be done to improve the technical and human capacity of these stakeholders in other for them to play their role effectively in managing human trafficking:

Suggestions		
No.	Technical Capacity	Human Capacity
1.		
2.		
3.		

19. Is your institution undertaking any action in the field of human trafficking?

Yes [] No []

20. Please indicate the particular action(s) by ticking the appropriate box below:

Type of measure	Past	Ongoing	Planned
Awareness raising/advocacy			
Employment creation/income generation			
Educational programmes			
Inspection/monitoring mechanisms			
Reporting			
Assist in the investigation of cases			
Outreach activities			
Legal reform			
Penal sanctions			
Capacity building			
Research and data or information gathering			

SECTION C: Stakeholders' Views on what Constitute Human Trafficking

Please tick (√) the appropriate column to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement on the statements from question 22 to question 28.

- (a) Strongly Agree (SA) (b) Agree (A) (c) Disagree (DA)
 (d) Strongly Disagree (SDA)

	Statement	SA	A	DA	SDA
21.	Recruitment by using deception for the purpose of exploitation				
22.	Recruitment by using force for the purpose of exploitation				
23.	People who live as slaves subjected to exploitation				
24.	People who live as forced labourers subjected to exploitation				
25.	People who are subjected to sexual exploitation				
26.	Forcing victims into prostitution				
27.	The recruitment and transportation of people from one place to another within a country				
28.	The recruitment and transportation of people from one country to another				

29.	Subjecting victims to slavery				
30.	Subjecting victims to involuntary servitude				

31. Kindly describe the nature of human trafficking in the Eastern Region?.....

.....

SECTION D: Stakeholders Knowledge on where Human Trafficking Occur in the Region in particular

Please write or tick (✓) the appropriate response in this section.

32. There is a problem of human trafficking in the Region?

(a) Strongly Agree ()

(b) Agree () (c) Disagree () (d) Strongly Disagree ()

33. Kindly mention three (3) known settlements (town, district, region and country)

which serve as the origin and destination of human trafficking in the Eastern Region.

No.	Origin	Destination
1		
2		
3		

34. Please indicate in order of seriousness three (3) groups of the population in the region that are most vulnerable to this practice.

1.....

- 2.....
 3.....

SECTION E: Level of public support stakeholders receive in managing and controlling Human Trafficking in the Region

Please tick (√) the appropriate column to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement.

35. Communities in the Eastern Region are willing to commit resources to the fight against human trafficking. Strongly Agree () (b) Agree ()
 (c) Disagree () (d) Strongly Disagree ()
36. Traditional rulers in the Eastern Region are willing to commit resources to the fight against human trafficking. Strongly Agree () (b) Agree () (c) Disagree () (d) Strongly Disagree ()
37. Individuals in the Eastern Region are willing to commit resources to the fight against human trafficking. Strongly Agree () (b) Agree () (c) Disagree () (d) Strongly Disagree ()
38. Religious bodies in the Eastern Region are willing to commit resources to the fight against human trafficking. Strongly Agree () (b) Agree ()
 (c) Disagree () (d) Strongly Disagree ()
39. Would your institution like to receive assistance from the public in the fight against HT? Yes [] No []
40. If yes, list three types of support you would need in order of importance.

No.	Support
1	

2	
3	

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES –DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY

AND REGIONAL PLANNING

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NGO’S AND OPINION LEADERS OF
SELECTED COMMUNITIES IN THE EASTERN REGION**

This interview has been put together to gather information about your opinion on the role of key stakeholders in managing human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. You are kindly being requested to take some time of your busy schedule and provide the necessary information and wish to assure you that the answers provided will be used for academic work only and treated confidentially. Thank you in advance for your time and agreeing to participate in this study.

Write or tick (✓) the appropriate response to each of the questions that follow:

1. Age:

a) 20 – 29 years []

b) 30 – 39 years []

c) 40 – 49 years []

d) 50 – 59 years []

e) 60 years and above

2. Your present status in the society?

.....

3. How long have you been on that status?
- a) 0 – 5 years []
- b) 6 – 10 years []
- c) 11 – 15 years []
- d) Over 15 years []
4. Are you aware of the problem of human trafficking in your town/community?
- Fully Aware [] Aware [] Not Aware [] Not Fully Aware []
5. Please indicate three (3) most vulnerable groups of the population affected by human trafficked in the Region?
6. Mention the main towns of origin and destination of victims if trafficking is taking place.

No.	Origin	Destination
1		
2		
3		

7. Are you providing any direct or indirect support to victims and institutions mandated to combat human trafficking?
- a. Yes [] b. No []
8. If yes, kindly state the types of support.....
9. If no please explain why.....
.....
10. What kind or form of support are you providing?

Forms of support	Always	Sometimes	Not at all
Assist in awareness raising/advocacy			
Provide educational programmes			
Provide accommodation for victims			
Reporting of cases of human trafficking			
Assist in the investigation of cases			
Outreach activities			
Penal sanctions			
Capacity building			
Research and data or information gathering			
Financial support			
Logistical support			

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES –DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY

AND REGIONAL PLANNING

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR RESCUED VICTIMS

This interview has been put together to gather information about your opinion on the role of key stakeholders in managing human trafficking in the Eastern Region of Ghana. You are kindly being requested to take some time of your busy schedule and provide the necessary information and wish to assure you that the answers provided will be used for academic work only and treated confidentially.

Thank you in advance for your time and agreeing to participate in this study.

Write or tick (✓) the appropriate response to each of the questions that follow:

Section A: Background of Respondents

Age:.....

Sex:.....

Level of Educational Qualification:.....

Section B: How were you rescued

1. Who brought you where you are now?.....
2. How did you meet the person/people who brought you here?.....
3. Did you want to leave when the person/people wanted to take you from where you were trafficked to? Yes [] No [].

4. Kindly explain your answer

Section C: How rescued Trafficked Victims are reintegrated into the Society

1. How have you been treated in the family/community/foster care upon your arrival?
2. What kind of assistance were you given upon your return to the family/community/foster care?
3. How have you been involved in activities in the family/community/foster care after you returned?
4. What is the attitude or behaviour of the people towards you since you returned?

Section D: Access to Education in the Community

1. Are you in school?.....
2. If yes, what level are you?.....
3. If no, why are you not in school?.....
4. Who provide you with financial support and writing materials for school?.....
5. What other support do you get for your education?.....
6. How do friends (peers) and relatives relate to you?.....
7. Apart from formal education, are you interested in any skill training?.....
.....
8. If given the opportunity, indicate in order of importance three (3) areas you will be happy to receive training.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....

Section E: Access to Health Care

1. How do you receive treatment whenever you fall sick?
2. Do you have a hospital or clinic in your community?
3. How do you access health care?
4. How friends do (peers) and relatives relate to you?

Section F: Emotional support provided

1. Did you undergo any counseling when you were rescued?
2. Are your parents always around you when you need them?
3. Do you have friends who always come around to visit when you are lonely?