TRANSBORDER TRAFFICKING AND INFLUX OF HARD DRUGS IN NIGERIA: EXPLORING THE LINKAGES

Ola ABEGUNDE, Ph.D
Department of Political Science
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti
ola.abegunde@eksu.edu.ng
+234(0)8037378939

John Udochi NWAGURU,
Department of Political Science
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti
johnudochi7@gmail.com
+234(0)7064659798, +234(0)8123980721

Abstract

The greatest challenges facing African states (Nigeria inclusive) is the inability to manage and man their borders owing to the compounded threat of globalization that is tearing down traditional borders and transformation of international relations. However, this paper discovered that hard drug trafficking across borders and its consumption has continued unabated such that it is not only affecting the socioeconomic and health of the country but denting her image in the international system. This study established the nexus between transborder trafficking and influx of hard drugs; the collapse of the security and health of Nigeria. Succinctly, the various crimes and anti-social vices that have posed serious challenge to lives and properties not farfetched from the unabated influx of hard drugs into the country from the same borders that are manned by security personnel. Therefore the failed state theory gave a theoretical approach to the issue under discourse. The paper is a documentary research and it therefore relies on qualitative data obtained from journals, newspapers, textbooks, etc. The data was subsequently analyzed using content analysis. Hence, this article concluded that hard drugs influx into the country is not accidental as it is imported through the same borders manned by security agencies owing to corruption that has facilitated transborder trafficking. It is therefore recommended that strengthening of Nigerian security agencies, charged with tackling drug trafficking and sharing of information among other security agencies will go a long way in reducing the rate of hard drugs trafficking in Nigeria

Keywords: Borders, Hard Drugs, Transborder, Crime and Trafficking

Introduction

The greatest challenges facing African states (Nigeria inclusive) is the inability to manage and man their borders owing to the compounded threat of globalization that is tearing down traditional borders and transformation of international relations (borderless states connected through trade, investments and ICT). Contemporarily, drug trafficking and crimes are committed without crossing borders and huge amounts of goods are sold through cyberspace. The usage of the internet has not only made it more difficult to manage borders and combat cross-border crimes, but has also effectively dismantled borders by allowing influx of drugs, Small and Light Weapons (SALWs), crimes, imports without going through the legal processes or custom checks. Osimen, et al. (2017) argues that transborder trafficking are said to have manifested themselves with the coming of colonialism which regrouped states and communities into new nation-state with defined borders manned by law enforcement agent

to protect the territorial integrity (polity) and its economy. Nigeria is a product of colonial partitioning whose end stage was the amalgamation of the southern and northern protectorate in 1914. Succinctly, Nigeria came to share international land border with Benin, Cameroon, Chad and Niger, with a land mass culminating about 4745sq.km. Nigeria also shares maritime boundaries with Equatorial Guinea and Sao Tome and Principle. Osimen, et al. (2017) further contends that like other partitioned areas in Africa, the territorialisation of Nigeria state poses some challenges that have affected the structure of interregional trade as a result of colonial and post-colonial economic system. Borderlands are both melting pots and security hot spots for transborder trafficking in Nigeria.

Succinctly, trans-border trafficking connotes a number of illegal narcotic and notorious activities carried out by individuals and group across national and international borders, either for financial or economic benefits. It is a criminal act whose perpetrators and repercussions go beyond territorial borders. The resultant effect of these transborder trafficking precipates the transfer of criminal activity from one country to another which is a spillover effect of immigration policies which loosen the borders for the purpose of development and enhancing great friendly balance crimes such as human trafficking, arm and drugs are seen to cut across one geographical area but the failure to check and properly control their various activities cause security issues especially the influx of arms around border (Osimen, et al., 2017). Abuse of hard drugs has become a major challenge that requires urgent institutional engagement to inform the general public about inherent evil in the consumption of hard drugs. In a related vain, Ekpeyong (2016) argues that trafficking in hard drugs has moved from being a mere criminal-justice issue to a transborder security crisis agenda for many state governments.

Problematique

Behsat (2014) had argued that drug trafficking is among the greatest nontraditional transnational security challenge affecting virtually all countries of the world with Nigeria experiencing more influxes. The ineffective control of the influx of drug trafficking has made it a threat to national security and drug dependent among a huge number of the country's population. Furthermore, Shelley (1995) in developing a multidimensional framework in analyzing international drug traffic, asserted that drug networks undermine rule of law, state legitimacy, instigate corruption, disrupt economic development, cause financial instability, and generate pervasive drug dependency and addictions that casts enormous societal costs (Shelley as quoted in Behsat, 2014).

Enahoro (1985 as cited in Odo and Chukwu, n.d) argues that illicit drug trafficking became a worrisome problem in Nigeria in the 1980s. Before then, illicit drug abuse and trafficking in Nigeria was relatively unknown. Drug trafficking came to limelight in 1974 when Iyabo Olorunkoya, a Nigerian was arrested and jailed in Britain for trying to smuggle Indian hemp into the United Kingdom, a case of which two top military officers were also implicated and were promptly sanctioned (Enahoro, 1985). Yusuf (2015) further posits that between 1984 and 1985, the celebrated Gloria Okon drug trafficking scandal and other cases involving Nigerians in various parts of the world brought Nigeria to the forefront as a major transit country in the global trade in illicit drugs such as heroin, cocaine, and morphine. After then, hard drug trafficking across borders and its consumption has continued unabated such that it is not only affecting the socioeconomic and health of the country but denting her image in the international system. In its classification, hard drugs identified in Nigeria include hemp, cocaine, heroin, tramadol, opioids, and marijuana. Most of these drugs are either smoked, chewed, drank or eaten by addicts for its hallucinogenic and intoxicating effects. It is known by a number of slangs and names, including hemp, 'pot', 'grass', 'ganger', weed, 'igbo', 'wiwi', 'skunk' among others (Musbau, 2012). Marijuana is seen as the most popular illegal drug used globally and in Nigeria. According to Odo and Chukwu (n.d), Nigeria is no more seen as a drug transit nation but also an ardent drug consumer nation. Consumption of hard drugs is a common practice among the Nigerian youth. The rate of consumption and the volume of the population consuming it are high and the resultant effect is psychological related problem that are mostly difficult to manage by the experts. Hence, this has a grave consequence on the Nigerian nation.

It is in this light that the study set out to investigate the explicit linkage between drug trafficking and the influx of hard drugs in Nigeria which has undermine national security and proliferated increased crime rate in Nigeria which is invariably affecting national development. This study is necessitated by the increasing rate of influx of hard drugs irrespective of the border check security in Nigeria.

Methodology

The study is a documentary research. It derives its data from secondary sources i.e. books, journals, official documents of the government, newspapers and magazines and related information downloaded from the internet. The data collected were analysed using content analysis method.

A Review of the Nature of West African Borders

West African states borders are indeed porous irrespective of the acclaimed financial allocations by states to ensure its border security. Allocations to boarder security are poorly managed and mostly those involved in boarder trafficking are connected to the powers that are seen to be powerful than the states. Corroborating this claim, Okumu's (2011) contends that West African borders have become a safe haven for drug smugglers and human traffickers to penetrate due to the nature of West African borders. According to him, the revenues generated from border crossing points have been used to perpetrate other criminal activities and social problems such as prostitution (Okumu, 2011). On the other hand, Julins (2002) and Akinyemi (2013) note that globalization is the major cause of trans-border traffickings and crimes. To them, the advent of globalization has increased the rate of criminals' activities and is perceived as an opportunity of gaining greater rewards outside their traditional domain. Furthermore, Julins (2002) contends that the increase of border criminal activities to high levels of income in Western Europe and North America. Sadly, creating a safe haven for illicit trade of all kind such as drugs, currency, prostitution and many more.

On the contrary, De Andres (2008 as cited in Omolara, 2019) argues on the point that criminal trade is both sided, as countries export and import crimes as well. This is contained in 2004 UN Secretary-General Report on ways to combat sub-regional and cross border crimes in West Africa. On the basis of this report, Okumu (2011) identified the following problems: the continued weakening of the security sector, proliferation of roadblocks, explosive remnants of war (ERW), mass refugee movements and forced displacement and human right abuses in the sub-region. In response to managing the mayhem of cross-border crimes Okumu (2011) submits that these realities requires urgent attention and need for adequate mechanism for border management as well as joint effort to deal with the problem in the spirit of regional and continental integration. Veil (2008) is quick to respond that the rate of human trafficking cannot be overemphasized in West Africa, as young children and women are majorly transit from rural to urban centres especially from Mali, Benin, Burkina Faso, Togo, and Ghana to Côte d'Ivoire's to destination countries like Nigeria and Gabon. This is done through abduction of children, buying of children from poor parents, bonded placement of children as reimbursement for debt, placement for a token sum for specified duration or for gift items and enrolment for a fee by an agent for domestic work at the request of children's parents.

Similarly, Adepoju (2005) notes that Ghana is a transit route for Nigerian women trafficked to Italy, Germany, and Netherlands for commercial sex. This is evident in the high number of women and children trafficked to neighboring countries for forced labour and prostitution. Also, other women are trafficked from other countries in Africa to Europe as sex workers. He further argues that Senegal is both a source and transit country for women trafficked to Europe, South Africa, and Gulf States for illicit work (Adepoju, 2005). However, Omolara (2019) contends further that one major reason for this is the violent conflict in the region resulting in women the warring countries such as Liberia and Sierra Leone forced to prostitution in Mali. The implication is that Mali is sometimes used as a transit country of women from Anglophone African countries to Europe. Therefore, Africa is a region of migration, in which people often move voluntarily or involuntarily as result of violent conflict, civil war, poverty or environmental factors.

However, Omolara (2019) conceives the fact that due to many problems such as economic or political, the region has not paid adequate attention to the issues of trafficking. Thus, the problem of human trafficking in the region has been a domino effect that cut across other sub-regions of the continent. Based on this forgoing, United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) conducts a research in 2003 in both West and Central Africa on the rise of human trafficking in these regions. The study identifies poverty as a "major and ubiquitous" causal factor behind human trafficking, in which between 33% and 73% of the general population lives on less than $1 for a day (UNICEF Report, 2003). Salah (2001) posit that although, this problem is related to some factors such as "push and pull" factors. The push factors forced individuals to move from a country to other country in search of a better life elsewhere. This factor includes economic, environmental problems, poverty as well as unemployment (Salah, 2001). This is also compounded by various economic policies leading to economic decline and debt as the case may be. This in turn leads to political instability in many countries in the region. While the pull factor can be divided into two main causes. First is the demand for cheap labour and high demand for paid sex in destination countries. In these, children and women are the most vulnerable due to their weakness and ignorance. Thus, they are easily influenced and manipulated. This is because children can be forced to work for long hours with less food, poor accommodation and no benefits (ILO-IPEC Report, 2002).

Salah (2001) gave a detailed explanation on the historical and cultural patterns of migration and the placement of children outside the home. He gives example of child fosterage, sending children to live with extended family or friends to be educated, trained or to work in order to foster unity and solidarity in the family as another contributing factor to human trafficking in West Africa. UNICEF (2002) reports that parents who are financially incapacitated give their children out to traffickers for job, education or vocational training. It is on this note that the US Department of State in year 2000 produced a 'Trafficking in Persons Report' rating different countries in their effort to combat trafficking in persons. In 2004, most of the West African countries were in Tier 2 or below except Ghana (Tier 1). The link between effort in combating trafficking and aid from the US government has encouraged West African governments to examine the issue.

Thus, Omolara (2019) opine that Mali is sometimes used as a transit country of women from Anglophone African countries to Europe. Furthermore, United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) notes that some countries in the region such as Benin, Ghana, Nigeria, Mali, Burkina Faso, Mauritania, and Togo as the main suppliers of domestic workers to Equatorial Guinea, Cote d'Ivoire, and Nigeria. Most of these children are recruited through the network of agents to work as domestic servants in informal sectors or on plantations. They however blamed parents, which are often compelled by forces of poverty and ignorance for releasing their children, with hope that the illicit work will raise their living standards. Unfortunately, some of these children are used as slave, exploited and paid below living wages. Therefore, it has been considered that border security has a direct relationship with stability and development in the sub region. Increase in the poverty rate in the sub-region has motivated several individuals to search for greener pastures elsewhere thus, being trafficked in the process (Omolara, 2019). Hence, the continuous silence about the rectification of border porosity in the sub-region has greatly contributed to the unending mayhem of trafficking in humans and drugs.

Theoretical Framework

It has become necessary to anchor this study with a theoretical framework which will serve as the sub-structure upon which the study will be erected. Therefore, the essence of theories and concepts needs not be over emphasized here.

Failed State theory

The concept of failed state lies on the inability of a state to coordinate its affairs well (Rotberg, n.d as cited in Omolara, 2019). In his work, *Failed States, Collapsed States, Weak States: Causes and Indicators,* Rotberg (n.d as cited in Omolara, 2019) expresses that, nation-state fail because they are convulsed by internal violence and can no longer deliver positive political goods to the citizenry.

Sovereign states are expected to perform certain minimal functions for the security and wellbeing of their citizens as well as the smooth working of the international system. The implication is that the state has been amputated in controlling the affairs of its citizens.

However, a failed state is such that its institutions are no longer self-regulating, rather, they are regulated by few influential in the society. Also, a failed state is the one that cannot ensure provision and maintenance of security of her citizens.

Failed states are those whose power grids have experienced frequent, sustained, and massive breakdown, such that the state authorities are no longer able to project real power on a consistent basis (Gros, 2011). This theory is best suitable to the woes that African countries are facing in the contemporary period particularly the boarder trafficking. The states have been neglecting its social responsibility and only gunning towards embezzling of public funds whereby the gap between the ruling class and the ruled continue to grow wider. The resources are not evenly spread resulting into the unhealthy struggle for the available resources. The proletariat therefore results into practicing illegal activities in order to continue to maintain their status. This results in the various crimes which thereafter spread to neighboring countries. The concept of failed state informed the rational choices made by individuals in order to survive in the country.

Transborder Trafficking and Influx of Hard Drugs in Nigeria: The Nexus

Interestingly, this paper focuses more on the relationship between transborder trafficking and the unabated influx of hard drugs in Nigeria especially as the country battles the high rate of crimes and other anti-social vices owing to the intake of hard drugs by youths. Transborder trafficking and the influx of hard drugs in Nigeria has become a giant and poses a significant and growing threat to national sanity and security, with dire implications for public safety, public health, democratic institutions, and economic stability across the globe. In other words, not only has transborder trafficking created a disarray in national security, it has brought about the convergence of influx of hard drugs threats that were once distinct and today have explosive and destabilizing effects.

Succinctly, Ekpeyong (2016) contends that hard drugs traffickers have hijacked the entire policy and political processes of governments and states in West Africa including Nigeria, and also institutionalized criminality in the conduct of public affairs which plays itself out in terms of the way in which the cartels, as a powerful, well-financed and highly organized special interest group, takeover policy-making through their proxies, and sponsor political advocates and protectors whose day-to-day dealings effectively put criminal interests ahead and above all other interests. On its consequences, Buzan (1991 as cited in Akachukwu, 2019) argues on the premise that the consequences of illicit/hard drugs use human capital are widespread, causing permanent physical and emotional damage to users and negatively impacting their families, co-workers, and many others with whom they have contact. These hard drugs impacts on health of mostly youths and adults which in extreme cases causes addiction, often leading to sickness and disease. In many cases, users die prematurely from drug overdoses or other drug-related illnesses.

According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) as cited in Behsat 2014, nearly 250,000 people lose their lives due to drug consumption (UNODC, 2012). Majority of the existing literature in Nigeria, however, perceived the drug abuse as social, criminal and health problem rather than a national security threat. Studies revealed that intensive international drug trafficking increased the availability of drugs in the country. Hence, it is evident that Ekpeyong (2016) notes that several experts stated that transnational drug networks began to target domestic markets in addition to exploitation of Nigeria as a transition route.

According to World Drug Report (WDR) (2012), Nigeria is no longer just a transit route for hard drugs but also a final destination. Furthermore, World Drug Report (WDR) (2012) highlights the association of drug users with acquisitive crime as well as behavioral challenges including aggression or violence. While the above revelations question the nature, effectiveness and resilience of the

existing legal and institutional framework for responding to drug trafficking in Nigeria in particular and West Africa generally. Wabala (2013) contends that the emerging drug consumption levels in the country and the sub-region suggests the potential impact of drugs on human security in West Africa. In his field survey, Ekpeyong (2016) noted that in Nigerian culture, drug consumption is a humiliation that leads to isolation in society. Family members pay special attention not to reveal the drug addiction, which can lead to unemployment and stigmatization among the peers. Most of the respondents do not report the truth to the drug addiction surveys because of their desire to keep it as fairly secret. Many of the interviewed experts reported that the actual number of drug abusers is significantly higher than official government reports because information are mostly not totally revealed to researchers.

Drug related deaths are a clear indicator of erosion of human capital. Individuals who become dependent on or addicted to trafficked substances could suffer from social, physical and psychiatric complications with resultant untoward effects on themselves, their families, their work, their communities and the nation at large. This point was further supported by research conducted by Turkish Monitoring Center for Drugs and Drug Addiction (TUBIM) (2012). According to TUBIM (2012), a total of 365 people lost their lives as a result of direct and indirect effects of drug consumption in 2011. For TUBIM, the number of drug-related deaths increased by 163% over the past five years. Even though the death rates are relatively low in Nigeria compared to the United States and Europe, its growth rate is alarming. Almost all interviewed experts reported that the existing official data underestimates the scale of drug induced fatality. As there is no integrated data collection system, the information on drug-related deaths is collected via special requests to the hospitals. Many of the hospital administrations do not reply to the questionnaires. Moreover, there is no reliable data on traffic and job accidents occurred under the influence of drugs as reported by TUBIM.

On the contrary, the preceding issues have seen the effects of these limitless intake of hard drugs to the society, it is not out of place to question the source of the influx of hard drugs in the country irrespective of the high manpower security personnel in the borders. Nigeria has been the new hub for all forms of transborder trafficking ranging from women and child trafficking, internet fraud (419), to smuggling of hard drugs (Mobolaji & Alabi, 2017). Hence, transborder activities tend to affect the security measures already been put in place by the various security agencies. According to Mobolaji and Alabi (2017), the porous border for instance has been an easy route for criminals to easily ply their trade with less difficulty. The quest for survival led many into smuggling various goods from Benin Du Republic; they avoid paying custom duties thereby reducing revenue generation by the government. Also, this allows for influx of unchecked and sub-standard products resulting into Nigeria becoming a dumping ground for all manners of products.

For Onuoha (2013), the high level of insecurity on African borders is largely due to the way they are administered and managed, and less to do with how colonialists drew them. Extensively put forward, Adeolu and Fayomi (2012) contends that despite the spirit of enterprising and promising neighborliness, the borders linking into Nigeria especially between Nigeria and Benin Republic are the most problematic because of the activities of internationally reputed criminals engaging in smuggling and trafficking of virtually everything from human trafficking, ammunition, arms, drugs, manufactured goods, agricultural produce, prostitution, and child labour to religious fanaticism, terrorist attacks and insurgency (Adeolu & Fayomi, 2012). Accordingly, the proximity between these borders has become problematic as this has seen the unrestricted transborder movements as individuals moves freely from one part of the country into the other without been asked questions or been checked and it's through this movements that crimes are been perpetrated.

In his submission, Akachukwu (2019) argued that the various crimes and anti-social vices have posed serious challenge to lives and properties and it is not farfetched from the unabated influx of hard drugs into the country from the same borders that claim to be mann by security personnel. In their findings, Mobolaji and Alabi (2017) revealed that lives were usually lost on regular bases especially in border communities during gun fight between the security agencies and the border cartels or drug lords.

Punch (2021) notes that there have been community clashes leading to the death of security agents and also smugglers in border communities. Mobolaji and Alabi, (2017) further noted in their findings that, often, crisis escalate into expanded conflict during faceoff between security agents and the communities while trying to protect their people. The security agents need to perform their work diligently but the communities often serve as a stumbling block and it is dangerous to the security of lives and properties (Mobolaji and Alabi, 2017).

Conclusion

This study had interrogated the effect of transborder trafficking on the influx of hard drugs in Nigeria. It is important to note that drug trafficking is problematic to the health and security architecture which has the potential to revamp itself into a more lethal opus by integration with other national disasters. Hard drugs influx into the country is not accidental as it is imported through the same borders manned by security agencies. This is because of the corruption that has encouraged the unabated transborder trafficking. According to the findings of this study, a failed state theory is relevant as the Nigerian state cannot address the anomaly of trafficking on her borders. This paper indicated that transborder organized crime groups are insidious threats that strike the Nigerian community and undermine Nigeria's power as a nation. In conclusion, if government, its institutions and agencies are performing their expected roles as stipulated by the constitution, there will be reduction in the rate of poverty that is a major pulling factor to engaging in hard drug either for commercial purposes or addiction. Therefore, a country that is alive to its responsibilities to her citizens will not give room for citizens seeking alternative means for survival.

This study therefore makes recommendations corroborating Ekpeyong (2016) for the strengthening of Nigerian Security Agencies, charged with the responsibility of tackling drug trafficking. This can be done through capacity building, financial empowerment, training, retraining of personnel and information sharing among security agents. Recruitment of ICT compliant personnel is urgently needed too. Also, the study recommends information sharing job collaboration and management among Nigerian Security Agencies. This is because, transborder trafficking have its foundation laid on organized crime (a network syndicates operating nationally and across borders) which in turn exacerbates insecurity in Nigeria. Securitization of illicit drug trafficking entails bringing to fore the importance of protecting Nigerian citizens from sociocultural, economic, health and political damage and restoring Nigeria's international image resulting from illicit drug trafficking. Another important point is that the government should ensure sensitization and education of Nigerians on harmful effects of consumption of illicit drugs and drug abuse. Reintegration of drug addicts into the society through proper health diagnosis and rehabilitation programme.

References

Adeolu, L.G., & Fayomi, O. (2012). The political and Security Implications of Cross Border Migration between Nigeria and her Francophone Neighbors. *International Journal of Social Science Tomorrow, 1*(3), 7.

Adepoju, A. (2005a). *Operationlising the ECOWAS Protocol on Freee Movement of Persons: Prospects for Sub-Regional Trade and Development*. Network of Migration Research on Africa (NORMA). Retrieved from www.gfmd.org/files/documents/AdepojuS8.pdf/retrieved02/01/2010.

Adepoju, A. (2005b). *Creating a Borderless West Africa: Constraints and Prospects for Intra-Regional Migration*. Geneva: UNESCO.

Akachukwu, C.I. (2019). Fighting Corruption Through Regional and International Conventions: A satisfactory Solution? *European Journal of Crime, Criminal Law and Criminal Justice*. doi:10.1163/092895607X209120.

Akinyemi, O. (2013). Globalization and Nigeria Border Security: Issues and Challenges. *International Affairs and Global Strategy, 11*, 5.

Beshat E. (2014). International Drug Trafficking and National Security of Turkey. *Journal of Politics and Law; 7* (2).

Buzan, B. (1991). New Patterns of Global Security in the Twenty-First century. *International Affairs, 67*(3).

Ekpeyong, N.S. (2016). Drug Trafficking and the Threat to Nigeria's National Security. *Canadian Social Science*. 12 (12).

Enahoro, P. (1985). Cracking down on Hard Drugs Traffic. *Africa Now*, Number 46.

Gros, J. (2011). Failed States in Theoretical, Historical and Policy Perspectives. In W. Heitmeyer, *Control of Violence*. doi:10.1007/9978-1-4419-0383-9.

Julins, O. (2002). Exploring Strategies for Effective Management of Nigeria- Niger Border Security. In Amdii S. et al; *The Nigeria-Niger Trans-border Cooperation and Management*. Proceedings of the International Seminar Organised by National Boundary Commission and Niger Boundary Commission.

Mobolaji, O. and Alabi, J. (2017) Trans-Border Crime and Nigeria Security: A Study of Seme Border (1999-2017), *Global Journal of Human Science*, 17 (2).

Musbau, R. (2012). Marijuana and the Challenge of Curbing Crimes. *Daily Independent*. Retrieved on May 20, 2019 from http://dailyindependentnig.com/2012/09/marijuana-and-the-challenge-of-curbing-crimes.

Odo, M.T and Chukwu, Q. (n.d). Illicit Drug Trafficking and National Security. In *Nigeria*. *Journal of Science*, 2(3), 12-27.

Okumu, W. (20011). *Border Management and Security in Africa*. Retrieved April 2, 2022, from http://www/reserchgate.net/-/wafula-border_security/-/bordermanagement.

Omolara, A. (2019). Porous Borders and Increasing Human Trafficking in West Africa: Issues and Challenges. *International Journal of Social Science Research, No. 2*.

Onuoha, F. (2013). *Porous Borders and Boko Haram's Arms Smuggling Operation in Nigeria*. Retrieved from Al jazeera Centre for Studies Report: http://studies.aljazeera.net/mritems/documents. Retrieved on 3rd June, 2014.

Salah, R. (2001). *Child Trafficking in West and Central Africa: An Overview*. Paper presented at the first Pan African Conference on Human Trafficking Organised by Wotclef at the International Conference Centre, Abuja.

Shelly, L. (1995). Transnational Organized Crime: An Imminent Threat to the Nation-state? *Journal of International Affairs Editorial Board, 48*(2). Retrieved from www.jstor.org/stable/24357599. Retrieved on 3rd June, 2014.

United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. (2002). *The Issue of Child Domestic Labour and Trafficking in West and Central Africa*. Retrieved March 24, 2022, from http://www.unicef.org/media/newsnotes/africchildtraffick.pdf.

UNODC. (2012). *The Globalization of; A transnational Organized Crime Threat Assessment*. United Nations Publication,. Retrieved from www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-ana ly sis/ t octa/TOCTA_Report_2012_low_res.pdf/ Retrieved on 3rd June, 2014.

Williams, P. (1998). Trans-Border Criminal Organizations and International Security in Michael T. Klare and Yogessh (eds.) *World Security Challenges for the New Century*, St .Martin's press, New York.