

As of 1 October 2002, the United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention (ODCCP) was renamed the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).

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**STRATEGIC PROGRAMME  
FRAMEWORK  
ON CRIME AND DRUGS  
FOR  
SOUTHERN AFRICA**

**2003**



**UNITED NATIONS**  
*Office on Drugs and Crime*  
**Regional Office for Southern Africa**

The Regional Office for Southern Africa covers the following 11 of 14 Southern African Development Community (SADC) member states: Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The other three SADC countries, Tanzania, Mauritius and Seychelles, are covered by our sister UNODC Regional Office for Eastern Africa (based in Nairobi, Kenya).

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## Foreword

In order to help address the significant problems of drugs and crime in Southern Africa, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has for years provided training and technical assistance to the governments and other stakeholders of the region. However, to maximize the effectiveness of such initiatives as well as those of other providers of similar assistance, there has been a need to develop an overall programmatic approach. On numerous occasions, this need has been expressed by governments of the region, regional and civil society organizations, and the international development partner ('donor') community, as well as by UNODC itself. In particular, having established its Regional Office for Southern Africa (ROSA) in 1998 as the region's only integrated drug and crime office, UNODC has sought to provide a more systematic approach to satisfy the ever-increasing requests from the countries of Southern Africa.

Additionally, members of the donor community continue to face the problems of matching their own myriad priorities to those of the countries of Southern Africa. Governments of the region in turn face the difficulties of matching their increasing needs for technical assistance with the funding and operational priorities of donors, including the United Nations. Regional organizations, in particular the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation (SARPPCO) and the Southern African Forum against Corruption (SAFAC), have stated that their activities need to be informed by the priorities of their members, their development partners and the United Nations alike. Thus, all the major players have expressed a need to develop a more systematic and programmatic approach to reduce the problems of drugs and crime in Southern Africa. In other words, the time has been ripe for the development of a regional strategic programme framework.

It is in this spirit that ROSA has undertaken to prepare this Strategic Programme Framework. Drawing on the inputs of all these regional stakeholders, our approach has been to be as open, transparent and inclusive as possible so that the result will be of optimal benefit to all. In this sense, we have tried to take into account the perspectives of all who have contributed to this initiative and who have a stake in this important region. We hope that this effort ultimately will allow the governments and people of Southern Africa to reduce the problems of drugs, crime and corruption in this region, together with their international partners, including the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime.



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## **Programme Strategy – Summary**

**(a) Development of, and assistance to, national crime prevention, criminal justice and anti-corruption strategies, including:**

*enhanced information gathering and information sharing on the crime, corruption and drug situations within and among each SADC member state so as to inform realistic and achievable national (and regional) crime, corruption and drug prevention and control strategies.*

**(b) Enhanced legislative and judicial capacities, including:**

*harmonization of both national legislation and SADC protocols with the UN drug and crime conventions, in particular the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the forthcoming United Nations Convention against Corruption, and*

*increased criminal justice system capacities and improved judicial integrity and court management, including development of juvenile justice systems and diversion options, so as to prevent harsh long term social consequences, relieve prison overcrowding, and promote social reintegration.*

**(c) Promotion of community-based prevention initiatives regarding crime and drugs, including:**

*increased awareness campaigns and workplace and school-based programmes.*

**(d) Targeted support to operational law enforcement, including:**

*an assessment of basic equipment and training requirements to combat cross border crime and drug trafficking in order to deploy limited assistance resources most effectively,*

*enhanced capacity to interdict the flow of contraband and illicit drugs, to prevent and combat the smuggling of and trafficking in persons, to disrupt market opportunities for organized criminals, and to apprehend criminal syndicate leaders so as to reduce other forms of violent and serious crime, and*

*development and extension of targeted training programmes for law enforcement agencies.*

**(e) An assessment and strengthening of treatment and rehabilitation capacities, prison management and broader reintegration programmes, including:**

*development of minimum standards and best practices.*



# **1. Introduction**

## **1.1 Strategic Programme Framework: Sources and Process**

To develop a programme strategy for the region, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), Regional Office for Southern Africa (ROSA) conceived and sponsored a regional Strategic Programme Framework (SPF) Conference. The Conference was constructed as one important instrument to collect information, to analyze it and to provide a systematic process to develop a programme of technical assistance projects for the region. The main objective of the Conference was to identify the intersection of the priority areas for action in drug control, crime prevention and criminal justice reform in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region. Annex 1 contains the Conference agenda.

The starting point of this initiative was to elicit from each of the SADC member states its national priorities and capacities. Similarly, and simultaneously, ROSA sought inputs from the members of the donor community as to their funding priorities and any limitations on their financial or in-kind assistance. At the same time, regional organizations such as the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organisation (SARPCCO) and the Southern African Forum against Corruption (SAFAC) were asked to identify their priorities and capacities to deliver specific training and technical assistance projects.

All these inquiries were conducted openly and transparently with all the Conference parties in the form of a questionnaire set out in the Conference Discussion Guidelines (Annex 2). The Discussion Guidelines were finalized with the inputs of the various regional organizations and the Institute for Security Studies (ISS). The Discussion Guidelines were then forwarded for completion to all SADC members (via their ministries of justice, interior and/or welfare and their national drug control authorities), the regional organizations, and the international donor community (Mini-Dublin Group, including development agencies).

Many of the SADC countries and the regional organizations, as well as a number of donors, provided the requested information before the Conference began, and others provided it during the Conference. The information received was made available to all the Conference participants, attending on behalf of all SADC member states with the exceptions of Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Of the other invited entities, all the regional organizations, many of the donor governments and agencies, and most of the NGOs were represented at the Conference. In all, there were over 60 delegates to the Conference (Annex 3).

On the basis of the information received before and during the Conference, further informed by the participation of NGOs active in the drug and crime arenas, a Draft Conference Report and a Technical Assistance Matrix (outlining each SADC member state's requested assistance) were prepared, and each was finalized with further inputs from the delegations following the Conference (Annexes 4 and 5, respectively). The main deliberations and outcomes of the Conference are reflected in the Conference

Report. The particular purpose of the Technical Assistance Matrix is to provide a quick summary of the type of assistance that was requested by each of the SADC members. (The Democratic Republic of Congo did submit its inputs to the Technical Assistance Matrix following the Conference, and these inputs are reflected in Annex 5.) It should be noted that the inputs to the matrix in some cases may reflect more the view of the participating governmental departments than they do a nationally vetted list of assistance priorities. This observation is not meant as a criticism, but rather as statement of fact that many sectors were underrepresented among the Conference participants (e.g., national health and welfare departments).

While the information solicited and obtained as a result of the Conference constitutes a significant portion of the materials analyzed in the preparation of this SPF report, it is not the only information that has been considered. ROSA took into account all information at its disposal, including its own national and regional analyses, mission reports from visits to the countries covered by the office, data from professional articles and other published and unpublished reports. Beyond these written sources of information, this SPF report also relies on the in-depth knowledge of ROSA staff regarding the regional drug, crime and corruption situation and trends, based on years of work and experience in the region.

This entire exercise, including the convening of the Conference and the preparation of this report, represents in itself a first-time effort to collect and analyze information for all these countries on drugs and crime both at the specific-country and regional levels. In certain instances, however, there clearly is a lack of information available, and this report notes these instances. Thus, if for no other reason, the report cannot claim to address exhaustively all the drug and crime challenges facing the Southern African region. Instead, the report should be read and appreciated as the first systematic effort to articulate and assess these challenges.

These limitations aside, the other goal in this exercise is not merely to produce an informed descriptive analysis, but also to suggest practical solutions to these critical problems. Any such solutions must take into account the developmental realities of the countries involved; thus, the report outlines in Annex 6 the human development levels of the eleven SADC countries covered by ROSA. Similarly, the current status of these eleven countries' accession to the several international conventions to combat drugs and crime informs the priorities, duties and capacities of the Southern African nations to take effective measures against these problems. The status of these international commitments is set out in Annex 7.

Against the backdrop of development levels and international legal obligations, the regional and national analyses of this report all lead to ROSA's specific proposals for concrete training and technical assistance projects, conceived and considered from an integrated and coordinated perspective, i.e., from a strategic perspective. By identifying specific and concrete projects that are of concern to the countries of the region, the governments and agencies that have an interest and ability to fund such projects, and the international and regional organizations that are capable of providing such assistance, one can translate the analysis of this SPF report into a programme of effective action.

Importantly, an attempt has been made to present such a programme, with due regard to the respective parties' interests, in a manner that accommodates all stakeholders with a minimum of duplication and divergence and with a maximum of efficiency and economy. This, in turn, should help to translate the political and legal commitments of the participating governments and organizations into effective action and results on the ground. In this regard, the SPF's ultimate conclusion consists of ROSA's proposed projects for the countries of the region.

## **1.2 Regional Overview**

The eleven countries covered in this analysis display an enormous diversity of population, political systems and levels of economic and social development. Despite this variety, common features include formidable problems of poverty, underdevelopment, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, massive food shortages, social inequities, vast economic inequalities and, in some countries, political instability and violent conflicts. Such circumstances are among those which foster crime levels that include some of the highest in the world. The growth of organized crime, often connected with drug trafficking, is intensifying the already difficult tasks of prevention, enforcement and prosecution.

While its interim coalition government came into effect as of July 2003, the Democratic Republic of Congo still experiences violent conflicts in some parts of the country. In Angola, a ceasefire agreement between the government and rebels has permitted peace to prevail in most of the country since mid-2002, but work to reverse the ravages brought on by almost three decades of civil strife has only just begun. In Mozambique, the negative consequences its civil war still affect that country's society a decade after its conclusion. These three countries face the most severe developmental challenges. The southern tier of the region comprising South Africa, Namibia, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland constitute a group characterized by greater relative prosperity and political stability, though they too reflect significant instances of violence, poverty and hardship. Zambia and Malawi, both landlocked in the centre of the region, continue to evidence periodic crises and impoverished populations. Zimbabwe has shifted from relative economic progress to endemic economic deterioration and political instability. Regionally, over 10 million people face severe food shortages in 2003, and the region is by far the worse affected by the global HIV/AIDS pandemic, with over 13 million infected people.

The summary statistics contained in Annex 6 outline these differences and similarities, including the relative economic advantage that South Africa and its demographically small neighbors of Botswana and Namibia have maintained compared with the other countries of the region. Nevertheless, these data should not disguise the fact that even in these three relatively more prosperous countries mass poverty is an everyday fact with which governments and civil society wrestle.

The regional developmental situation is characterized by the following salient problems:

- According to the United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index, Angola, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi,

Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe are among those countries in the “low human development” category, while the others are in the lowest part of the “medium human development” category (with the exception of South Africa which nevertheless is in the lower part of the “medium human development” category) (UNDP 2003).

- The prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the region is the highest in the world, with over 13 million people estimated as living with HIV/AIDS at the end of 2001. The number of deaths from AIDS-related diseases over the next decade is likely to be in the several millions. HIV/AIDS remains a spectre that may undermine all current social and economic planning as it takes its toll of the most economically active sectors of the population. Especially worrying is the rapid growth of "AIDS orphans" in countries such as South Africa (Schonteich 1999).
- Although the impact of HIV/AIDS on the demographic future of the region is likely to be severe and possibly catastrophic, population dynamics also contribute to the difficulty of forging sustainable development programmes. Thus, populations remain heavily skewed toward young people, with nearly half under the age of 15. Only South Africa is considered by development economists to have undergone a transition toward the lower levels of fertility that permit sustainable development.
- Over 10 million people in Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Lesotho, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe are currently at risk of hunger due to massive food shortages caused, *inter alia*, by a combination of drought, land ownership reforms, disagreements over implementation of food assistance programmes, and political conflicts and instabilities.
- The political situations in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Zimbabwe continue to be highly volatile. In the DRC, peace initiatives continue in an effort to reconcile the various armed factions that control sizeable parts of that vast country. In Zimbabwe, the prospects for improvements on the economic and political fronts in the short term seem bleak.
- The struggle for state control and state patronage is rife throughout the region and goes hand in hand with high levels of both petty and large-scale government corruption. The criminalization of the state, or parts of the state, is a challenge within the region that specifically exacerbates the problems of drugs and crime.

While the region faces immense socio-economic and institutional challenges, the situation must be evaluated against a series of positive factors. With the 1994 democratization of South Africa, the single most powerful state in the region has been able to turn its attention and energies to the task of ensuring the economic empowerment of all its citizens and promoting a similar empowerment among its neighbors. All eleven countries analyzed in this Strategic Programme Framework report are members of SADC, which has established institutions for common development and security purposes. SADC holds the promise of fruitful regional cooperation in its emergent

institutional framework (currently being reorganized), and all these countries also are members of the newly established African Union and to varying degrees likely will participate in NEPAD, the New Partnership for Africa's Development, which itself has the potential to benefit the integration and the socio-economic advancement of the region. Against this background, we turn to the specifics of the crime and drug situation of this region.



## 2. Regional Crime and Drug Analysis

### 2.1 Introduction and Overview

As would be expected in a region as large and diverse as SADC, a regional summary of crime and drug trends involves generalizations that do not necessarily hold for each individual member state. Still, the following broad statements seem warranted by way of introduction:

- Key officials and informed observers throughout the region believe that criminal activities, coupled – in the case of organized crime – with drug trafficking, pose a heightened threat to effective governance and to improving the social fabric.
- The extent of the threat of crime and drugs varies from country to country and in several cases is a function of a broader context such as ongoing civil strife or political fragmentation. One cause for optimism is that current political negotiations in the most severely affected countries may in the medium term bring about greater regional political stability as a whole.
- Official capacity for data collection and analysis of crime and drugs patterns is generally poor and is very unevenly distributed. In several countries, this capacity barely exists. Consequently, effective law enforcement, anti-corruption, criminal justice and drug control strategies are considerably less feasible where basic information is lacking. There also is a scarcity of information based on victim surveys. In general, the dearth of drug, crime, corruption and criminal justice information seriously impedes the analysis, evaluation and formulation of operational programmes as well as of the training and assistance programmes designed to facilitate them.
- A general perception of police performance ranges from poor in Swaziland, Lesotho and Namibia (less than one third of the respondents say that police are doing a good job), through mid-level satisfaction as in South Africa, Zambia and Mozambique (46%, 52% and 53% respectively), to 66% of respondents satisfied with the overall police performance in Botswana (UNICRI 2002a). Where available, however, victim surveys have revealed, high levels of public dissatisfaction with the way police handle reported crimes, ranging from a high of 69% in Zambia and 56% in South Africa, to 50% and 48% in Botswana and Namibia, respectively (see UNAFRI et al. reports for 2000, 2000a, 2001 and 2001a; see also UNISA/UNICRI reports for 1993, 1997 and 2001). Independent analysis casts doubt on the degree of attention that is paid by sub-Saharan police forces as a whole, whose officials generally are poorly paid, to the civil and political rights of the region's inhabitants (Hills 2001). While some of the southern tier SADC states may be a partial exception to this sweeping statement, policing capacity is clearly one of the key governance challenges facing most of these states.

- Data suggest that prison populations suffer from gross overcrowding, with a figure of 100% in the case of Botswana (van Zyl Smit & Dunkel 2001) and 68% in South Africa. Courts of the region also have been found in the main to be poorly resourced with a large backlog of criminal cases, and there also was found to be a lack of trained legal personnel (Scharf 1999). In an unpublished study on Malawi, it is reported that courts are physically inaccessible to a large portion of the population, magistrates lack proper training, and recording and translation services are altogether inadequate for a system that uses English for official purposes (Scharf et al. 2002).
- Under-resourced and inexperienced officials in key agencies struggle to assimilate the international assistance that is available. This problem is compounded by the often slow and incomplete implementation of the training and technical assistance programmes themselves.
- A consensus, in particular among law enforcement and criminal justice agencies of the region, appears to support the view that the drug issue is a subset of the larger crime and social disintegration problems, except to the extent that it is a health and welfare issue. Several SADC delegates used the closing session of the SPF Conference "to express the belief that a powerful linkage exists between the need for drug control and crime control within the region. Criminal threats were seen to be underpinning trends in drug abuse and trafficking in the region – i.e., the drug problem was described as one subset of a larger crime problem" (Conference Report 2002). Hence, within each section of this SPF report, the regional and national crime trends are reported first, followed by the regional and national drug trends.
- If anti-crime capacities are generally weak, there is little hope that a narrow focus on fighting drug trafficking and substance abuse can forge ahead successfully without strengthening those broader crime prevention and enforcement mechanisms. Thus, what is needed is a broad strategy, which is based on sufficient and reliable data, that promotes prevention, enhances the rule of law, strengthens law enforcement and judicial integrity, and fosters treatment and rehabilitation, so that energies can be brought to bear on the most acute problem areas, drugs included. This view was given strong articulation at the SPF Conference.
- Arguably there is a case for viewing certain aspects of the drug problem, notably specific rises in the consumption of drugs, as organic outgrowths of social disintegration and the increased availability of drugs. In such circumstances, the causal link between crime and drugs is less direct or may even be reversed.

## 2.2 Regional Crime Trends

Several SADC countries have barely any crime data gathering or collation capacity:

- There have been no relevant statistics provided in the case of Angola and the Democratic Republic of the Congo.
- Zambia has not provided police crime data, though court records from 1998-1999 act as a partial substitute. Mozambique has provided some aggregated data for 1998-2001.
- Lesotho and Namibia have little or no police crime data over the last three years, though earlier figures give some idea of trends.
- Official data for Botswana and Zimbabwe appear to be available only up to 2000, although before that year the statistics are useful.
- Swaziland's crime statistics are available in some cases up to 2001, but they are fragmentary. Likewise, Malawi has provided some crime data up to 2001.
- Only South Africa provides relatively detailed and up-to-date official crime data from the police reporting network. Even here, problems with the collection methodology and analysis led the South African government to place a moratorium on the release of police crime statistics for the year 2001. However, the Annual Report for 2001-2002 of the South African Police Service establishes a certain level of consistency for crime trends over a period of eight years between 1994-2002 (SAPS 2002).
- Other criminal justice statistics, such as prosecutorial, court and prison data, are even less available across the region.
- Since the mid-1990s, the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) has carried out the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) in more than 70 countries all over the world, including in the developing world (Zvekic & Alvazzi del Frate 1995; Alvazzi del Frate 1998). UNICRI, in cooperation with the United Nations African Institute for Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) and the Department of Criminology of the University of South Africa, has carried out the ICVS in the capital and/or largest cities in Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe, as well as in selected rural and urban areas in Mozambique. Despite certain limitations in the ICVS-Southern Africa, it does represent an important source of information on crime and criminal justice performance in the region.
- Among SADC members, apparently only in South Africa has a national victimization survey been carried out.

Noting these informational challenges, the following regional overview of the major crime categories is necessarily limited and must be treated as such.

**Serious and violent crime** is a region-wide problem. The incidence of such crime appears particularly acute in South Africa. The most recent Annual Report of the South African Police Service for 2001-2002 (SAPS 2002) suggests a decline or leveling off in the overall rates of serious and violent crime, although, as noted in the November 2002 ROSA *South Africa: Country Profile on Drugs and Crime*, violent crime “has shown a general increase since 1994 with a slight downturn in 2001-2002” (UNODC/ROSA 2002). Notwithstanding the actual trends, these recorded rates, which parallel the highest rates from other parts of the world, may be in part explained by a greater propensity to report crimes to the police and by a relatively efficient data collection capacity as compared with other countries in the region and elsewhere.

It bears noting, however, that despite obvious limitations in world crime data, the UNODCCP publication *Global Report on Crime and Justice* puts South Africa at the top for firearm-related homicide for 1994 (UNODCCP 1999). At 26.63 per 100,000 population, the figures for South Africa are just ahead of Brazil at 25.78 per 100,000. Undoubtedly, firearms, both legal and illegal, are used in a significant percentage of the serious and violent crimes – and in the various activities of organized criminals – committed in the region. There is a lack of data in this regard, and much research is needed. That said, in 2002, SADC adopted its Protocol on the Control of Firearms, Ammunition and Related Materials, though no SADC member state has signed the firearms protocol to the UN Convention against Transnational Crime (Palermo Convention), including those SADC member states which have ratified the convention itself (Botswana and Namibia).

Within the region, Botswana appears to have the lowest homicide rate, although assault cases have climbed quite steeply in recent years. Namibia may rank next lowest in homicide, though the latest data are from 1998.

**Property-related crimes**, as elsewhere in the region, appear to comprise the bulk of reported cases in those countries with data. High rates of car theft and cross-border smuggling of vehicles, especially from South Africa, constitute a major police problem (Gastrow 2001). Some theft is relatively specific to this region. For example, stock theft (theft of livestock) is widely reported even in the urban areas surveyed by the ICVS studies.

Problems of crime classification loom quite large in the quantitative assessment of property crime. The South African Police Service has struggled since 1994 to arrive at a crime classification code that will provide adequate data that do not conflate what are essentially property crimes with those involving serious violence.

The many types and the varying police classifications of property crime make comparisons among countries and over time complicated and in some cases unreliable. However, one form of property crime, burglary, is perhaps worth singling out. It is one of the most personally intrusive and feared crimes that stops short of actual violence. It is

also one crime on which data are available from victimization surveys in several SADC countries at the end of the 1990s. Burglary, or housebreaking with entry, represents a risk to most citizens because most people have a residence. The data below are taken from the eight ICVS studies conducted in Maseru, Lesotho (1998), Windhoek, Namibia (1999), Mbabane and Manzini, Swaziland (1998), Lusaka, Zambia (1999), Harare, Zimbabwe (1996-1997), Johannesburg, South Africa (2000) and Maputo (and selected urban and rural areas), Mozambique (2002). For South Africa, the ICVS results are set alongside the data from the South African National Victims of Crime Survey (South Africa 1998).

Burglary Victimization Rates (% of respondents): Main Urban Areas Only (and nationally for South Africa)							
Botswana	Lesotho	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
6.6	4.1	14.1	8.0	8.0 (7.2)	9.0	10.9	7.2

Despite the caveats that surround the ICVS and in particular the collection of the African data, these figures reveal that these developing countries' burglary rates are higher than those in the developed world, while the levels of violent crime are more similar (UNODCCP 1999).

Crimes related to **violence against women**, especially but not only rape, constitute a disturbing phenomenon that appears to be endemic in the region. All countries for which some figures are available from police or survey sources report high and, for the most part increasing, rates of such violence. Once again, the situation appears at its worst in South Africa, with the reported rates of rape among the single highest in the world (UNODC/ROSA 2002), but the increased incidence of rape also has been reported in Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, and Zimbabwe.

**Organized crime** appears to be on the increase in much, perhaps all, of the region, although it is a relatively new phenomenon (Gastrow 2001). Much "organized crime" consists of no more than small, loose and shifting groups of no more than five to ten individuals who plan armed robberies and bank heists. Reports of such groupings have been noted by the police services in Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. "Organized crime" as a criminological phenomenon, however, covers a wide spectrum of organizational types (Shaw 2001).

Due to its special geo-political position and economic opportunities, South Africa is the regional hub for organized crime, including drug trafficking. The increase in organized crime activities in South Africa has been accentuated since 1994 by the ending of its international isolation, its much freer and larger international trade and commerce, and its well developed financial, communication and transportation systems. The South African Police Service states that there are 238 criminal "syndicates" operating both domestically and across the country's borders (UNODC/ROSA 2002). Some organized crime rings concentrate on specific activities, such as those run by various "Nigerian" drug brds

(who sometimes actually are nationals of other West African countries) that dominate the illicit importation and distribution of cocaine and heroin in South Africa.

Often complicit in high-level official corruption, more extensive and enduring criminal networks appear to be behind the rise in the laundering of illicit drug proceeds, and they help drive the trafficking in firearms, stolen vehicles and endangered species. All anti-drug efforts are likely to face organized opposition, and such efforts must become increasingly sophisticated to counter the expertise of drug syndicates that are simultaneously engaged in other criminal activities.

There is much work underway in terms of promulgating anti-organized crime legislation, particularly in view of the requirements of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (Palermo Convention), which is scheduled to come into force on 29 September 2003. With the exception of the Democratic Republic of Congo and Zambia, all SADC member states have signed the Palermo Convention, and Botswana, Namibia, Mauritius and Seychelles have ratified it. (Mozambique has also ratified the Convention but still has not deposited its ratification instrument.) There remain several key challenges for ratification and implementation of the Palermo Convention including: (1) the weakness of the economic and financial systems as they pertain to money laundering, (2) domestic legislation for the four mandatory offences under the convention, i.e., participation in organized criminal activity, money laundering, corruption, and obstruction of justice, and (3) harmonization of laws regarding extradition, mutual legal assistance, and confiscation and forfeiture of proceeds of crime (Goredema 2001). It is expected that the SADC Protocol on Extradition and the SADC Protocol on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters, both adopted in October 2002, will greatly facilitate the harmonization of domestic legislation to meet the requirements of the Palermo Convention as well as of these regional protocols.

Efforts are underway to establish law enforcement organized crime units, but the majority of SADC countries do not have such integrated organized crime units. Instead, they generally have units specialized in, for example, vehicle theft, serious crime, and gold and diamond smuggling. South Africa is exemplary in terms of both the organized crime units within the police as well as within the prosecution service.

**Corruption**, like organized crime, is an omnibus term referring to a host of activities. It encompasses bribes to police, customs, judicial, and other state officials in exchange both for special favors and for services rendered which the bribed official was otherwise obligated to provide. Corruption can also refer to criminal activity that may undermine the foundations of political, financial and administrative integrity at the highest levels, and it can involve millions, if not billions, of dollars worth of illegal transactions.

“Corruption is increasingly perceived as a serious problem in the region, . . . although from an international perspective . . . SADC as a region fares much better than Africa as a whole. . . . Business leaders are . . . considered corrupt by more than half of those surveyed [in the region]. . . . The public sector is seen as disproportionately more vulnerable to corruption than the private sector . . . [and] appears to be centered in law enforcement and the delivery of basic services. . .” (Zvekic 2002). Corruption appears to

be of particular concern in countries that are undergoing or have undergone the devastation of civil war (Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Mozambique), but corruption of various levels of seriousness is perceived as quite widespread in all SADC countries.

On the other hand, regional research findings show that there is “*a huge gap between perceived levels of corruption and actual experience with corruption . . .* [, and also that citizens] on average feel that their governments are not sufficiently committed to combating corruption” (Zvekić 2002). These perceptions exist among the citizenry, although it should be noted that in almost all the countries in the region there is much legislative anti-corruption work taking place, particularly in view of the SADC Protocol against Corruption (adopted in August 2001). Similarly, half of the SADC member states have established dedicated anti-corruption agencies, and another five members are contemplating the establishment of such agencies. These agencies operate with different degrees of effectiveness and independence, as the degree and periodicity of political support given to them varies (Zvekić 2002). The Southern African Forum against Corruption (SAFAC) was established in 1999 as a regional network of anti-corruption agencies, and efforts are underway to strengthen a regional civil society anti-corruption network.

The dual phenomena of **trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants** exist in the region. Regional trafficking in persons comprises both the trafficking of women and children into the region from Asia and Eastern Europe and from the region to Europe, North America and Asia. It also includes intra-regional trafficking and in-country trafficking, particularly of children. Much of the intra-regional trafficking is southward to the wealthier southern tier of the region. In addition, at least four countries in the region have indicated a problem of trafficking in human body parts. Illegal smuggling of migrants appears to be a huge problem in the region, particularly from countries devastated by political and social unrest and poverty, including famine. South Africa is a hub as both a destination and transit country, while Mozambique and Swaziland are known transit points. Transnational organized crime, both foreign and indigenous-based, is heavily involved in the human trafficking and smuggling businesses, but much more systematic research needs to be conducted on the magnitude of these two crimes and on the exploitation of the victims. Throughout the region, there is an absolute lack of legislation and law enforcement capacity to deal with these problems. Although most SADC member states have signed the Palermo Convention, not all that signed have the convention have signed the two related protocols on trafficking and smuggling. However, out of the four countries that have ratified the convention, Botswana and Namibia also have ratified these two protocols.

New patterns of organized crime, drug trafficking and terrorist financing have placed the issue of **money laundering** firmly on the agenda of a number of key SADC states. These center on South Africa, with its relative wealth and sophisticated economy and financial sector. Drug money, for example, is reported to be moving into property and construction in Mozambique, and the case may well be similar in South Africa. The laundering of drug proceeds through the international banking system is rendered easier by the inadequate level of preparation and countermeasures on the part of states only

recently exposed to the activities of criminal cartels. The situation seems particularly critical in the short term for Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia and Swaziland, which are neighbors of the commercial and financial magnet of South Africa, as well as in that country itself. Nine of the eleven countries covered by this Strategic Programme Framework report – all except Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo – are eligible to participate in the recently inaugurated 14-member Eastern and Southern African Anti-Money Laundering Group (ESAAMLG), which has its secretariat in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

### 2.3 Regional Drug Trends

Overall, the SADC region remains a net exporter of cannabis, usually in herbal (often compressed) form, and a net importer of other illicit substances including cocaine, heroin, MDMA ('ecstasy'), methaqualone ('mandrax'), hashish, amphetamines and LSD. An unquantifiable amount of the drugs imported into the region is destined for transshipment elsewhere, mainly Europe. One recent trend is the increasing local production of synthetic drugs like ecstasy and mandrax, especially the latter which is mainly intended for the South African market. Raids on facilities geared to the production of mandrax (and more recently of related precursor chemicals) have risen dramatically in the past few years, especially in South Africa (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

The main psychoactive substances of abuse in all countries of the region are alcohol and cannabis (SENDU 2002). However, since the early 1990s, it is clear that the entire spectrum of illicit drugs has begun to penetrate the region, with market conditions making South Africa the most attractive destination for long distance smuggling operations. An affluent consumer can now obtain any illicit drug in the main urban areas or tourist destinations of the region (UNODC/ROSA 2002). Thus while cannabis and alcohol dominate treatment demand, arrests and community concern, there is an increase in harder drug use in some countries, especially heroin. In addition, there has been a noted emergence of intravenous drug use in some countries and the spread of drugs historically confined to particular areas (e.g., mandrax in South Africa spreading to Botswana and Namibia) (SENDU 2002).

**Cultivation.** Cultivation of illicit substances in the SADC region is comprised overwhelmingly of **cannabis**, which has been grown in southern Africa for several hundred years (MacDonald 1996). In 2000, almost one fourth of the cannabis herb seized worldwide was seized in Africa, mainly in South Africa (UNODC 2002; INCB 2002). In 2001, the amount seized in Africa increased, although the proportion from Southern Africa decreased somewhat (UNODC 2003). Southern Africa continues to be the major, sometimes exclusive, source of the cannabis found in the region. All eleven states covered in this report are known to cultivate cannabis to some degree. However, in a number of them, such cultivation is limited and only meets a fraction of local demand: Namibia, Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Data for Angola and the DRC are so limited as to make even rough quantification impossible. The bulk producers consist of South Africa, Malawi, Lesotho, Swaziland and Mozambique, probably in that order of descending magnitude. Estimates of the crop size for these main producer countries vary. A recent unpublished UNODC study of the cannabis situation in South Africa indicated

that the current South African Police Service estimate of 1,000-1,200 hectares appears to be accurate (Aziz 2001). Better quality cannabis is smuggled out of the region, mainly into Europe. In many southern African countries, cannabis cultivation is increasing, as cannabis is often seen as a more lucrative substitute for licit agricultural products.

The extent of the cultivation of **khat** is unknown. This hypnotic drug derives from the plant *catha edulis*, which is grown extensively in the Horn of Africa and on the Arabian Peninsula. It also is found along the entire East African coast, including the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa (Hirst 1997). In the past two years, there has developed a South African market for "cat", which is derived from methcathinone, the active ingredient of the plant. In 2002, South African police uncovered ten processing laboratories for this drug, a dramatic increase from one in 2001, suggesting that a new cottage industry may be underway in that country, where cat is developing a reputation as the "new cocaine", with dealers claiming it to be a "safe" alternative stimulant.

Although not illicit in many countries, the herbal drug called '**datura**' (or 'malpitte' in South Africa) is causing some concern, primarily in the Democratic Republic of Congo and South Africa.

**Production and manufacturing.** Production and manufacturing of illicit substances, such as mandrax and ecstasy, exist in the region. Most of this production occurs in South Africa whose advanced infrastructure and developed chemical industry make concealment of illicit activities much easier. Traffickers either set up laboratories themselves, or provide local residents with the necessary expertise and materials to do so. The main substance manufactured in South Africa – with some facilities also uncovered in recent years in Mozambique and Zambia – remains mandrax.

Likewise, the transshipment of **precursor chemicals** appears largely localized in South Africa and Mozambique. Shipments of various precursor chemicals destined for the local manufacture of mandrax have been intercepted in various parts of the world in joint operations between the South African authorities and their foreign counterparts. In addition, but to a significantly lesser degree, the exportation from South Africa of precursor chemicals for other drugs such as cocaine has been uncovered (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

**Trafficking.** Trafficking in illicit substances in the region has increased in volume and spawned new networks since the early 1990s. The main cause of the change has been the opening up of South Africa. This has driven a two-fold process. First, the country's internal market, which possesses the purchasing power for effective demand, has become far more open to a range of illicit drugs. Second, foreign nationals either have relocated to the country, or they have established networks independently or in cooperation with indigenous drug cartels, to add new transshipment routes linked to the lucrative European, North American and even Australasian markets. With these processes acting as catalysts, the region has experienced a far greater exposure to traffickers of imported drugs. After South Africa, Mozambique appears to have emerged clearly as the region's second largest drug trafficking hub.

**Licit diversion.** The diversion of drugs intended for the licit market into illicit channels has become an issue in South Africa lately, with traffickers seeking to make use of South Africa's chemical manufacturing capacity to divert licit industrial substances for exportation as well as for illicit consumption within the country. The diversion of pharmaceuticals such as diazepam from legitimate medicinal usage into illicit marketable commodities has also occurred in Lesotho.

**Price trends.** Drug price trends have demonstrated both stability and change, depending on the markets considered. In the region generally, imported drugs command a premium that often puts them outside the reach of the majority of their relatively low income populations. This is true even of cannabis in countries such as Namibia and Botswana. In South Africa, however, the significant increase of imported drugs into a previously under-exploited market, together with the falling value of the South African currency in the period 1994-2002, paradoxically appears to have coincided with a decline in the U.S.-dollar price of even the more expensive drugs (UNODC/ROSA 2002). One outcome is that wider sections of the population are able to access cocaine, heroin and synthetic drugs.

**Consumption and demand.** The consumption of and demand for illicit drugs throughout the region needs to be seen against the background of current levels of alcohol abuse. Alcohol abuse remains the region's primary drug-related public health problem (MacDonald 1996; SENDU 2002; WHO/UNDCP 2003). It is a prominently contributing factor to the perpetration of violent crime and to dangerous sexual practices in an era of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, as well as to a general disintegration of the social fabric (Morojele 2003). In addition, the primary illicit substance of abuse, cannabis, has maintained its market dominance among a wider population, either on the basis of custom or because of its continuing affordability. Because of the drugs-HIV/AIDS nexus, the authorities of the region face a much more intractable substance abuse problem than ever before.

## **2.4 Regional Crime and Drug Policies and Priorities**

### **2.4.1 Crime and Drug Policies**

In principle, all SADC states have shown their willingness to align their crime and drugs policies with the major international instruments or to formulate regional protocols that incorporate current global thinking, including UN resolutions and guidelines. On crime and drug policies, there are no maverick states in the region. Neither do there appear to be powerful constituencies that are attempting to challenge the dominant international paradigm. Little local support appears to exist, for example, to decriminalize cannabis use.

Where states in the region have been hesitant to commit to international agreements and best practices, the major reason appears to be that the governments lack either the capacity or the political will to implement specific convention or agreement requirements for changes to a country's legal and governance systems.

Seven of the eleven SADC states reviewed here have developed, or are developing, crime prevention and control strategies, with South Africa the most notable example as shown by the 2000-2002 National Crime Combating Strategy (NCCS) of the South African Police Service (South Africa Report 2002). As delegates stated at the Benoni Conference in August 2002, crime prevention strategies in the region have not advanced as far as drug control strategies (Conference Report 2002).

SADC states have made some progress toward regional agreements and operational cooperation on the crime and drugs front. Although at the country level, the overall picture may be marked by ad hoc plans and projects, it is clear that the SADC states are willing and able to cooperate with considerable success in a number of areas. One example is the completion of several "Operation Rachel" successes involving South Africa and Mozambique in the destruction of small arms. Similarly, the UNODC-funded projects on drug interdiction at both seaports and land border posts in South Africa, Swaziland and Mozambique have resulted in some major seizures.

The Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organisation (SARPCCO) – which includes all the countries covered by this report with the exception of the DRC – has ensured that the SADC states are conscious of the growing importance of cross border organized crime and has promoted active steps to combat it. For instance, in response to the questionnaire sent out ahead of the UNODCCP/SARPCCO Crime Information and Organized Crime Threat Analysis Workshop, held in South Africa in April 2002, the responding police agencies stated that progress was being made in fighting organized vehicle theft by the introduction of a regional Vehicle Clearance Certificate system. In general, these respondents indicated that the region's police agencies were keen for much more regional cooperation, *inter alia*, through far more information sharing on organized crime networks and methods to combat them.

According to Southern African law enforcement authorities, the abuse of and trafficking in cannabis is the main drug problem facing the region. In recent years, they have conducted a series of cannabis eradication operations – often joint operations among law enforcement agencies in neighboring countries – under the auspices of SARPCCO. At the September 2002 meeting of the Heads of National Drug Law Enforcement Agencies, held in Nairobi, Kenya, representatives emphasized the threat posed by the abuse of and trafficking in cannabis to security, health and socio-economic development in Africa. They noted that the *tetrahydrocannabinol* (THC) content of cannabis seized in the region had increased significantly. It was also stated that the reclassification of cannabis by the government of the United Kingdom would undermine the efforts of African governments to counter illicit cannabis cultivation, trafficking and abuse. That action, it was held, sent the wrong message and could lead to increased cultivation of cannabis destined for the United Kingdom and other European countries (INCB 2002). A similar position was taken by delegates to the Sixth Meeting of Heads of African National Drug Services in Lusaka, Zambia in July 2003 (INTERPOL 2003).

## 2.4.2 Crime and Drug Priorities

Arising out of UNODC's experience of the past three years, and drawing partly on the points made by delegates at the recent Benoni SPF Conference, the following crime and drug priorities appear to enjoy broad regional support:

*(a) Harmonizing legislation to promote the ratification and subsequent implementation of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.*

Such harmonization would help law enforcement and justice agencies enormously in the region. Two specific examples include problems of extradition and corruption. Extradition operates extremely inefficiently in the region. The Royal Mounted Lesotho Police, for instance, report that they have not been able to extradite a single person to South Africa since the signing of an extradition treaty with that country (Lesotho Report 2002). This point was made forcefully at the Benoni Conference. Similarly, "[i]t must not be assumed that, because most of the SADC states signed the Palermo Convention, they are all in an immediate position to ratify the Convention and implement a set of measures to comply with the obligations it creates" (Goredema 2001). As a number of challenges relate to the ratification and implementation of the Palermo Convention, international technical assistance in this area is considered one of the main regional priorities.

Second, the fight against corruption requires that SADC states take a uniformly firm stance, among other things, by the imposition of much stiffer penalties and the introduction of effective anti-money laundering and asset forfeiture measures (Zvekic 2002). The adoption of the SADC Protocol against Corruption was an important step in this direction. SADC has commissioned the development of an anti-corruption strategy study from the Human Rights Trust of Southern Africa to be presented by August 2003 (SADC 2002). Such a strategy and the implementation of the regional anti-corruption protocol require the establishment of a standard regional monitoring methodology (Kunaka & Matsheza 2002; Zvekic 2002). Finally, as Goredema points out, "Some legislative changes will need to be complemented by political reforms to be acceptable to civil society and the judiciary alike" (Goredema 2001). The uncertain course of political democratization in the region presents one of the major obstacles in this regard.

*(b) Strengthening and increasing operational strategies and capacities to combat cross border crime and drug trafficking.*

The efforts of SARPCCO and its individual police agencies against cross border crime have borne considerable results. SARPCCO leaders are keen to build on successes in this area, as evidenced by UNODC seaport and border control projects and other successful innovations. There are a number of pressing priorities if this aim is to be achieved. These include:

- *Improved information technology and information sharing capacity.* The South African Police Service is concerned, for example, that its 52 land border posts lack the equipment to communicate vital information that could lead to the interdiction or

arrest of drugs, stolen property such as vehicles, and wanted criminals. A similar situation holds true throughout the region.

- *Continued training of border and port officials in risk analysis and screening, together with an effort to increase staffing levels at these points.* Of all the anti-drug and contraband strategies that have a proven efficacy, the upgrading of border and port control will have the obvious consequence of increasing the traffickers' and smugglers' costs, both in terms of forcing the criminals to take additional steps to avoid interdiction and increasing the fees charged by couriers concerned about the risk of detection. This will affect the criminals' overall net profit. In a region of low resource availability, and where "many [law enforcement] interventions make no sense because they are focused at the wrong point in the market chain" (Leggett 2002), it does make sense to focus efforts where a law enforcement intervention will have greatest impact.
  - *Assessing the border control technologies of the region, along the lines of the very informative evaluation of forensic laboratories in the SADC region (SADC 2000).* At the Benoni Conference, SADC delegates indicated a need for drug testing kits, helicopters, sniffer dogs, information technology equipment, vehicles, and standard operating procedures on such methodologies as controlled deliveries. An assessment of border control needs may allow for a judicious use of limited resources to strengthen capacity.
- (c) *Promoting operational strategies and capacities to combat organized crime, drug trafficking and corruption.*

Enhanced regional cooperation will be of little efficacy if attention is not simultaneously paid to the various national law enforcement agencies themselves. It is important here to recall that the South African government recently thought it necessary to create a new agency within the National Prosecuting Authority, called the Directorate of Special Operations ("the Scorpions"), aimed at swift and efficient apprehension and prosecution of high-profile crime and corruption cases. Also, the South African Police Service has created a very sophisticated anti-organized crime operational network (UNODC/ROSA 2002). The continued support and encouragement of reform among law enforcement, judicial and correctional agencies in the region as a whole remains a key priority.

- (d) *Improving national and regional capacities to collect, analyze and publish crime statistics that can help formulate policies.*

Current data collection, collation and analysis on crimes reported to the police are weak to nonexistent in the majority of SADC states. It is also possible that some police agencies actually collect more reliable statistics than they publish. Oral presentations by police delegates at the UNODCCP/SARPCCO "Crime Information and Organized Crime Threat Analysis Workshop" indicated that most of the agencies claimed to have a system of data collection from the station-level to headquarters (UNODCCP/SARPCCO 2002). Yet published data, with the exception of South Africa, are of poor quality and/or out of

date. This seems an obvious priority area if realistic crime prevention and enforcement strategies are to be developed.

Victimization surveys are a complementary element to police data and need to be developed and applied in all the countries of the region. The ICVS carried out in eight countries of the region and other local victimizations surveys present an important contribution to this objective, but they cannot replace regularly conducted national victimization surveys. Similar efforts need to be undertaken regarding the prosecution, court and corrections systems. It would be desirable that crime and criminal justice statistical systems follow a standard and compatible inter-agency methodology to enable for the monitoring of both trends in crime as well as trends in the performance of the individual criminal justice agencies and the criminal justice systems as a whole.

In view of the ever increasing threats of cross border and transnational crime, as well as in promoting effective regional cooperation, it is of fundamental importance to develop a regional crime prevention strategy and a regional crime and criminal justice statistical standard, including a focused regional database.

*(e) Improving national capacities to collect, analyze and publish substance abuse and drug-related data that can help formulate policies.*

Fortunately, the means to this end are at hand and are being implemented. The work of SENDU (SADC Epidemiology Network on Drug Use) and its South African-based counterpart SACENDU (South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use) has laid the basis for the regular provision of sentinel survey data on drug abuse that can serve to alert law enforcement, health and welfare authorities to the trends in consumption as well as trafficking. SENDU has recognized the urgent need for SADC member states to develop the kind of information produced by a sentinel surveillance system to monitor substance abuse and associated consequences (SENDU 2000) (see Annex 8). The report noted that while there is an uneven capacity to develop substance abuse monitoring systems among SADC member states, there is still potential, even within those states with the least capacity, to develop such systems within the medium term. The report suggested that the medium term might be about five years.

*(f) Supporting the development of drug prevention master plans, crime prevention strategies and public awareness campaigns.*

Delegates at the Benoni SPF Conference indicated that drug and crime prevention initiatives and drug awareness campaigns in most member states need further support. Such programmes need to target youth in particular and incorporate ways to measure the impact of the prevention activities themselves. Expanding current youth programmes – such as in South Africa to build effective juvenile justice courts and diversion programmes (including the activation of traditional diversion mechanisms) – is an obvious priority as are victim support programmes in the broader field of crime prevention.

*(g) Providing treatment and rehabilitation facilities for substance abusers and prison populations at large.*

Several SADC countries lack *any* public treatment centres for substance abuse, with the exception of correctional facilities and psychiatric wards. In addition, in view of the link between (non-injecting) drug abuse and the spread of HIV/AIDS, delegates argued for more attention to treatment and rehabilitation, especially among prison populations. In this connection, the issue of rehabilitation touches on a much wider problem. Prisons in the region are usually extremely overcrowded and lack the facilities even to begin to address re-education of the convicted. Penal reform appears to be low on the priority list of donor assistance to the region, which instead tends to be channeled to the perceived front end of the criminal justice system, i.e., the police. The issue of court management and reducing delays in bringing people to court, as well as in diverting a larger proportion of those awaiting trial away from custody, were mentioned by few delegations at the Conference and therefore merit special attention.

*(h) Linking drug master plans, drug eradication campaigns and crime prevention strategies to rural development and legitimate income-generating activities.*

Several delegates at Benoni noted that the cultivation of cannabis is difficult to restrict in areas where the rural populations have little other income-earning capacity (Conference Report 2002). Supply-side action needs to take place within a developmental context if it is to have any chance of success. With respect to the eradication operations that have been and are being conducted, Southern African authorities regularly call for alternative development to provide licit sustainable development income for the marginalized farmers who form the bulk of the peasant population which engages in cannabis cultivation (UNDCP/HONLEA 2002; INTERPOL 2003). These authorities recognize that to date there has been no expression of interest among donor countries in funding such alternative development strategies with respect to cannabis in Southern Africa.

As is reflected in all the national drug master plans for countries in the region, authorities uniformly and routinely point to the consumption of cannabis as a major public health problem and hence a health and social welfare priority.

## **2.5 Regional Institutional Frameworks and Capacities**

As a region, SADC has established a number of institutions and organizations whose effective functioning is vital to the fight against crime and drugs. These bodies are in both the public sector and within civil society.

SADC has established its own Drug Control Committee (SDCC). The Southern African Anti-Corruption Forum (SAFAC) was founded in 1999, and efforts are underway to establish an anti-corruption civil society network in the region. They all need financial and technical assistance plus strong political support to carry out their mandates effectively. The establishment of the International Law Enforcement Academy in Gaborone, Botswana is an important step for regional cooperation and collaboration. UNODC also runs a judicial training program, with numerous SADC law enforcement

and judicial personnel having attended courses at the South African Justice College and the Ugandan Law Development Centre.

Regionally, the key law enforcement association is SARPCCO, operationally headed by national police commissioners, whose governing body is comprised of the respective ministers to whom the commissioners report. While not an official affiliate of SADC, it is closely involved with the regional organization's work on crime prevention and drug abuse. SARPCCO has operated with some success in coordinating police efforts against transnational crime. The work of Interpol/Harare is also of relevance, including in its role to date as SARPCCO's secretariat. Both these organizations can draw upon significant resources regionally and at the international level (Van der Spuy 1997). From mid-2002 through mid-2003, Zimbabwe has held the SARPCCO chairmanship, to be followed by Mozambique, Tanzania, Angola and Lesotho for one year each.

The NGO sector in the region is a vital component in crime and drug prevention strategies. The work of both local and international NGO partners is, for example, indispensable in anti-corruption campaigns and drug abuse interventions. At the same time, such NGOs are extremely vulnerable to unpredictable and inadequate funding and in some cases to harassment from both state officials and organized crime groups. South African NGOs have suffered since 1994 as international donors have tended to switch their assistance from civil society entities to government-to-government projects. This trend is now regaining some balance as shown by the degree of cooperation with the quasi-state organization SENDU and a range of other civil society organizations.

## 3. Country Profiles

### 3.1 ANGOLA

#### 3.1.1 Introduction and Overview

Angola and the Democratic Republic of the Congo are the two countries in this report with the least reliable data on crime and drug trends. The conclusions here are therefore necessarily limited. Both are, or have been, the scene of immense loss of life, social disruption and weak governmental structures derived in part from civil conflicts. The assemblage of basic data is an obvious priority for both countries when conditions permit. In Angola, on the basis of anecdotal information, high crime trends in most of the major crime categories constitute an area for extreme concern as the country attempts to move away from a war footing to peacetime stability. Alcohol and cannabis are the substances most abused, with the use of the country as a transshipment point for other drugs, notably cocaine, being a problem of potentially major regional proportions.

#### 3.1.2 Crime trends

No official statistics or victimization survey data are available for any of the crime categories used in this report (serious and violent crimes, property crime, violence against women, organized crime, corruption, trafficking and smuggling of persons, and money laundering). Basic crime data collection efforts are made at the police station level, and they are collated provincially and nationally, but the lack of trained personnel hinders informed analysis (Angola Paper 2002). The same source indicates that **organized crime** is indeed a problem with regard to drug trafficking, serious robbery, motor vehicle theft and diamond smuggling. **Corruption** is popularly perceived to be widespread (UNODCCP/ROSA 2002), though on the positive side Angola is a signatory to the SADC Protocol Against Corruption (Zvekić 2002). Other forms of criminality are considered to be at high levels in the aftermath of the civil war and the large-scale displacements of populations to urban centres, notably Luanda (Angola Paper 2002; Lewis 2000a). The attractiveness of Angola for **money laundering** is considered low given the poor state of the country's banking and financial institutions.

#### 3.1.2 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of drugs appears limited to cannabis for local consumption, although it is widespread in the central highlands and the east and northeast of the country. There is no confirmation of reported coca production in the border area in the northeast (Lewis 2000a).
- **Production and manufacturing** of illicit substances appears limited or nonexistent due to the lack of industrial and technical capacity.
- **Precursor chemicals** are not considered to present a major problem for counternarcotics efforts.

- **Trafficking** in drugs, notably cocaine, constitutes one of the foremost drug-related problems confronting the country. Seizures indicate that Angola, especially Luanda International Airport, is being used as an entry point for onward shipment of drugs inbound from South America whose destination is South Africa. Between 1990 and 2000, the annual incidence of cocaine seizures rose from nothing to 10 kg, with a high of 39 kg in 1998 (Lewis 2000a). Cocaine seizures in Angola are consistently among the highest in Africa (UNODC 2002; UNODC 2003). Spillover consumption occurs locally but is limited by high prices. There does, however, appear to be a rise in the use of cocaine and crack in Luanda in recent years (Lewis 2000a). Heroin smuggling into the country has been reported via both African and European routes, but its extent seems limited for the moment.

- Given the absence of processing capacity, **licit diversion** of precursor chemicals is not an issue for the immediate future.

- **Price trends** have not been ascertained.

- Reliable data on the **consumption of and demand for** harmful substances are absent as Angola has yet to be incorporated into SENDU and to generate treatment figures on patients admitted for substance abuse. It would appear that consumption patterns remain centered on alcohol and cannabis, with crack and cocaine, inhalants and other substances of limited importance. Given the social conditions as a result of the civil conflict, however, this situation could change if peace restores a measure of governmental stability, economic development and the inflow of foreign nationals and associated criminal networks. A UNODC-funded assessment of drug consumption patterns is ongoing.

## 3.2 BOTSWANA

### 3.2.1 Introduction and Overview

With several decades of democratic stability, promising economic growth, and a low population density, Botswana constitutes perhaps the least problematic country in the region in terms of criminality and drug trafficking and abuse. Reported crime in categories of concern has risen however in recent years. Botswana has ratified the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the related protocols on trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants. The country is not a major producer of drugs or a significant drug transit country. Limited amounts of cannabis are cultivated locally, but consumption is mostly from imports from the north and east (UNODCCP 2001). The incidence of abuse of other drugs appears restricted, with the Botswana criminal justice system cracking down hard on smugglers and consumers. The authorities, however, are concerned that the situation could change should supply and demand factors rise. This could occur, *inter alia*, by greater efforts of drug syndicates to penetrate Botswana's extensive borders (Botswana Paper 2002).

### 3.2.2 Crime Trends

Overall, recorded crimes have risen from 131,525 in 1997 to 172,132 in 2000 (the most recent year for which statistics are available). However, approximately 40% of this rise can be accounted for petty traffic offenses (Botswana Report 2002).

- **Serious and violent crimes** have increased in some categories but are stable or lower in others. The homicide rate remains low and has either decreased or stabilized between 1997 to 2000. Unlike other SADC countries (e.g., South Africa), firearm use in crimes is low, with only 15 cases recorded in 2000. Assault cases vary in severity; however, there is a worrisome increase from 14,134 in 1997 to 16,895 in 2000. One cause for alarm is vehicle theft, with about 10% of such cases involving hijacking with violence (Botswana Report 2002).

- **Property-related crimes** have increased, from 16,676 in 1997 to 31,551 in 2000. The statistics, which display an alarming rise between 1997 and 1998 (from 16,676 to 28,961), suggest that other factors besides actual crime incidence may be at work, such as altered recording systems or reporting patterns.

- **Violence against women** is a matter for concern, with reported rape statistics rising from 1,183 in 1997 to 1,383 in 2000.

- **Organized crime** is reported to be involved in three major areas: drug trafficking, motor vehicle theft, and fraud. Police report the syndicates are mostly small (three to ten members), in often fluid groupings, and at times with multi-national participation. Other areas in which the Botswana Police encounter organized, cross border criminal organizations are the illicit diamond trade – Botswana is a leading producer of quality diamonds – and the slaughter of elephants and rhinoceros for their tusks (Botswana Paper, 2002).

- **Corruption**, unlike in other countries in Africa, does not appear endemic. Police records show a total of 74 cases recorded between 1997-2000, with 46 cases resulting in convictions. Botswana has one of the most effective anti-corruption agencies, the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (established in 1994), which utilizes the Hong Kong “three-pronged attack”: investigations, prevention and public education. Annually, it receives about 1,800 complaints, on which it launches an average of 400 investigations, resulting in approximately 50 new prosecution cases (Zvekic 2002).

- The major concern of the government with regard to the **trafficking and smuggling of people** is illegal migration, both from Africa and Asia. In some cases, illegal immigrants appear to be trying to use the country as an entry point to South Africa.

- **Money laundering** has not been reported as a major problem in the country.

### 3.2.3 Drug trends

The number of persons charged with drug-related offenses actually declined from 1,000 in 1997 to 787 (with 489 convictions) in 2000. Most cases appear to have involved cannabis trafficking or dealing. In the first five months of 2002, 292 cases of unlawful cannabis possession were recorded involving 321 suspects. Otherwise, the major drug-related problems appear to involve small amounts of cocaine and heroin, usually smuggled in by mail, and destined for onward shipment to South Africa (Botswana Report 2002).

- **Cultivation** appears exclusively to involve small patches of cannabis grown for personal consumption.
- **Production and manufacturing** of illicit drugs have not been recorded in Botswana.
- The country is not a major producer of **precursor chemicals**, nor has the trafficking of these substances been reported as a problem of any magnitude. Seizures of precursor chemicals have not been reported in the recent past (Botswana Report 2002; UNODCCP 2001).
- **Trafficking** is largely of cannabis and far smaller quantities of cocaine and heroin. Mandrax is now making an appearance in the country, probably as a spillover from South African consumption and trafficking (SENDU 2002). Botswana is presumed to be merely a transshipment route for cocaine and heroin en route to South Africa, although seizures of these drugs have been low (UNODCCP 2001). With the ending of South Africa's isolation in 1994 and the resultant reduction of international air traffic into Botswana, it is speculated that the country's role as a transit route for the so-called hard drugs has decreased (SENDU 2000). Most cannabis is smuggled in from the nearby countries of Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique for fairly widespread use in the lower income urban areas (Botswana Report 2002).
- **Licit diversion** does not appear to be an issue.
- **Price trends** suggest that the cost of drugs, mainly cannabis, is considerably higher than in South Africa, with retail cannabis prices being two to three times higher than in the latter country (UNODCCP 2001).
- **Consumption and demand** center around alcohol and cannabis, with the former a worrisome problem that appears to be on the increase both from Traffic Department reports and Lobatse Mental Hospital data sources. Botswana participates in the SENDU network, and the latest comparative trend data on treatment demand, arrests and seizures are contained in Annex 8.

## 3.3 DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

### 3.3.1 Introduction and Overview

Although an interim coalition government has been established in July 2003, the political situation remains fragile, and in some parts of the country rebel groups continue to be active. The resulting instability and violence inhibit international assistance, including in the crime and drug area, and make the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) the most problematic SADC member state in terms of designing and implementing effective crime and drug control strategies. Along with Angola, the DRC is one of the two countries in the region with the least reliable data on crime and drug trends. When it becomes feasible to do so, the collection of such data will be essential. Notwithstanding that reliable data are difficult to obtain, it would appear accepted generally that due to the absence of effective governance mechanisms, high levels of criminality and drug abuse prevail over many parts of the country. The following details are drawn from the UNODCCP Mission Report (Salay 2000) and in particular from the December 2001 UNODCCP Mission Report of the visit to Kinshasa (Zvekic & Lewis 2001).

### 3.3.2 Crime trends

- The extent of **serious and violent crime** is unknown, but probably high, and difficult to disentangle from the violence and brutality (and war crimes) inherent in a civil war situation (Zvekic & Lewis 2001).
- **Property crime** is reportedly increasing as are all other forms of conventional crime.
- **Violence against women** and **trafficking and smuggling of human beings** are reportedly on the increase, the one often associated with the other, at times involving children abused with parental consent.
- **Organized crime** is reportedly widespread, controlling a large part of the drug trade.
- **Corruption** associated with extremely low levels of official remuneration, especially but not exclusively for law enforcement personnel, is considered prevalent.
- No legislation concerning **money laundering** is in force in the DRC. An increase in both money laundering and counterfeiting has been reported (Zvekic & Lewis 2001).

### 3.3.3 Drug trends

• **Cultivation** of cannabis is widespread. It appears to be replacing staple crops in the provinces of Kasai, Bandundu and Lower Congo, as its cultivation is far more lucrative than maize (Zvekic & Lewis 2001). There has been one reported eradication effort. Reports of experimental coca cultivation have been denied repeatedly by official sources, and there are no independent confirmations of these reports. The abuse of the hallucinogenic *datura stramonium* plant has been increasingly noted. This plant is

widespread throughout sub-Saharan Africa, including South Africa, where it is regarded as a weed (Zvekcic & Lewis 2001).

- No data on the **production and manufacturing** of synthetic drugs are available. Under the circumstances in the DRC, the issue is not likely to constitute a major problem. The same remark probably holds true with regard to **precursor chemicals**.

- **Trafficking** in cannabis is widespread. Cocaine and heroin are imported by West African, principally Nigerian, traffickers, and the two drugs being available on both sides of the Congo River between the Kinshasa and Brazzaville, Congo. A police operation in Kinshasa that began in June 2002 reportedly resulted in the arrest of 300 persons suspected of involvement in drug trafficking, among them foreign nationals from West Africa and Asia. Some 130 kg of cannabis, one half of a kilogram of heroin and a small amount of cocaine were seized during the operation, named "Screen streets" (DRC 2002).

- **Licit diversion** of potentially dangerous substances is facilitated by hardly any control of the sale of over-the-counter drugs.

- **Price trends** vary from low for cannabis (approximately \$0.05 per joint) to prohibitively high for other drugs, which puts the latter outside the reach of most ordinary Congolese, with both cocaine and heroin reportedly costing \$20 per gram on the street (Zvekcic & Lewis 2001).

- Levels of **consumption and demand** cannot be ascertained at present, but are they likely to be high among combatants, if not more generally, particularly in the case of relatively inexpensive cannabis, often combined with alcohol (Salay 2000). The country is not yet part of the SENDU network.

## 3.4 LESOTHO

### 3.4.1 Introduction and Overview

Lesotho is a small and largely poor country. It does not feature high levels of organized urban crime or a sophisticated illicit drug market. The mountains in the east of the country create conditions in which stock (livestock) theft and the cultivation of cannabis appear to be the only relatively flourishing illegal enterprises. Nevertheless, the spillover effects from South Africa exert a considerable influence, and the nation's law enforcement agencies are hard pressed to deal with cross border stock theft, vehicle theft, and the opportunities for violent property theft and corruption that even this unpromising environment offers to syndicates with international links.

### 3.4.2 Crime Trends

- **Serious and violent crimes** are not disaggregated in the available official crime statistics provided by the Lesotho Mounted Police Service in 2002. There is, for instance, no separate category for homicide which, given its seriousness and high rate of

international reporting, is regarded as one of the best indicators of the overall level of social violence (Lesotho Paper 2002). The ICVS in Maseru, Lesotho notes that "[f]rom their records the most common crimes reported to the police are assault (40%), house breaking (25%) and stock theft (17%). Although the statistics of reported cases only show a constant increasing trend for the years 1987 to 1997 (69%) in the case of rape, excluding 1995 when only 252 (sic) rape cases appear to have been reported, rape incidences average only 5.4% of the known crime phenomena. Murder accounts for 4.3 percent and robberies for approximately 5.6 percent of all known crimes" (UNAFRI et al. 1998). Taking these figures at face value, they certainly suggest that Lesotho is facing high and increasing rates of serious and violent crime. In addition, the Lesotho submission to the SPF Conference mentioned an increase in children in conflict with the law.

- **Property crime**, as in the case in most of the other countries in the region, constitutes the single largest category of crime in Lesotho according to the ICVS and official statistics (Lesotho Paper 2002). The data suggest an upward trend in these offenses over the last three years, from 16,653 in 1999-2000 to 18,243 in 2001-2002.

- Data on **violence against women** from the ICVS imply that sexual abuse and assault of women are alarmingly high, at least in the urban area of Maseru. Eighteen per cent of female respondents there stated that they had been victims of such offenses at least once over the previous five years.

- **Organized crime** is reported in the following areas: armed robbery (often of livestock), vehicle theft, stock theft in general, drug smuggling and dealing, illegal firearms, and trafficking in human beings (Lesotho Report 2002).

- **Corruption** is considered unacceptably high among the respondents to the ICVS. Nineteen percent of the sample of 1,010 respondents reported they had encountered corrupt practices with government officials (27%), customs officials (45%) and police (19%). However, less than 2% of corruption victims reported the corrupt incident to the police. It should be noted that both within the region and internationally, Lesotho gained prominence through very successful prosecutions and convictions, which are still underway, related to the Highlands Water Project, involving national, foreign and multinational actors.

- **Trafficking in and smuggling of human beings** is reported by the Lesotho police, with Nigerian nationals especially alleged to have been involved in luring young Basotho women overseas (mainly to London) under false pretexts (Lesotho Report 2002).

- **Money laundering** data are not available. The Central Bank of Lesotho has recently issued a directive that any suspicious financial transactions must be reported to it by the banks (Lesotho Report 2002).

### 3.4.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of illicit drugs appears to involve exclusively cannabis, which is grown in many parts of the country, but especially in the eastern highlands by small farmers and sold either locally or for the South African market (OGD 1997). Its extensive cultivation, especially in the districts of Berea, Mokhotlong, Thaba-Tseka and Qacha's Neck, is driven by the economic incentive it presents for impoverished rural dwellers as well as the low level of capacity for law enforcement to monitor the extremely remote cultivation areas (OGD 1997; UNODCCP 2001a).
- The national drug Master Plan makes no mention of the **production or manufacturing** of illicit substances such as mandrax or ecstasy, nor does it refer to **precursor chemicals**, which similarly do not appear to be trafficked in Lesotho (Lesotho Master Plan 2000).
- **Trafficking** in cannabis is widespread and mainly for local and South African consumption, although small amounts may make their way to Europe (INL, 2002). Only very small quantities of cocaine and heroin have been seized in recent years (UNODCCP, 2001a). It is thought that these drugs were in transit to South Africa and not for the local market. Quantities of hashish also were seized in or around Lesotho in the mid-1990s, although it seems likely that they were only for storage and further shipment to South Africa (OGD 1997).
- **Licit diversion** of prescription sedatives (diazepam) and analgesics, mainly consumed by women, appears to be a problem (UNODCCP 2001a; OGD 1997). An official government report has noted: "There are many leakages in the current system of distribution of licit drugs with addictive qualities that could foster dependency on sedatives or hypnotics specifically" (Lesotho Master Plan 2000).
- **Price trends** are uncertain, but appear low for cannabis (about \$0.50, for a standard matchbox or "baggie"). Cannabis also is reportedly bartered in large quantities for firearms or other commodities (UNODCCP 2001a).
- The main drug **consumption and demand** problems perceived in Lesotho relate almost exclusively to alcohol and cannabis. There is concern, however, about dependence on prescribed sedatives and analgesics. There are rare cases of mandrax use and no recognized use of so-called harder drugs (UNODCCP 2001a). The two local treatment centres and the Maseru Hospital report that alcohol and cannabis, with the former being the significantly greater problem, comprise the vast majority of substance abuse cases treated (UNODCCP 2001a). The leading role of alcohol is underlined also in the earlier report from the Paris-based Observatoire Geopolitique des Drogues which states that "although marijuana is smoked on a large scale in Lesotho, alcohol is, by far, the source of most substance abuse with the direct consequences as regards public health" (OGD 1997). Lesotho is now one of the four SADC countries stated as being "fully on board" the developing SENDU network. SENDU likewise reports that the majority of treatment cases at centres in the country (85%) were for abuse of alcohol as the primary drug. The rest were for primary abuse of cannabis (15%), with none reporting mandrax as the

primary drug of abuse. For a full set of the latest comparative trends for treatment demand, arrests and seizures, see Annex 8.

## 3.5 MALAWI

### 3.5.1 Introduction and Overview

Rural poverty and the internationally renowned quality of Malawi's large cannabis crop make sizeable reduction in the cultivation and distribution of this substance a challenge for the foreseeable future. Despite the second highest seizures rate for Africa in 2000 of 312 tonnes compared to 780 tonnes in South Africa (UNDCP/HONLEA 2002) income from cultivation of the drug has transformed many former staple and cash crop farmers in the central and northern regions into suppliers for a ready market. Cannabis is widely consumed in the regions of cultivation and the popular international tourist resorts on Lake Malawi. At the same time, it is estimated that the bulk of the crop is exported to the rest of Southern Africa and Europe. The Malawian police report that worrying trends in armed robbery have developed in the 1990s in the nation's three main urban centres. A currently stable political situation, though with potential for disruption because of the leadership succession question, a pool of well-educated personnel, and experience with international assistance suggest that despite these negative factors, the country could benefit from targeted anti-crime and drug abuse initiatives.

### 3.5.2 Crime trends

- It is difficult to ascertain reliable trends on **serious and violent crimes**. The Malawi Police themselves comment that their latest statistics are "approximate because not all data was collected due to logistical problems". In addition, there are no crime analysts in the police service (Malawi Report 2002). Available statistics suggest that armed robbery and robbery may have declined in incidence between 2000 and 2001. Nevertheless, figures for the last five years show a generally increasing trend in serious crime since 1997. Armed robbery in particular was highlighted by the police as a major concern due to the importation of automatic rifles (AK-47s) from Mozambique in the late 1990s (Malawi Report 2002).
- **Property crime** remains a problem and has risen to relatively high levels in the country's three major urban centres since the 1990s.
- **Violence against women** appears to be on the increase (cited under the category of "Defilement" in police statistics), rising from 67 recorded cases in 1997 to 252 in 2001. In light of regional trends, these statistics tend to indicate significant underreporting.
- Armed robbery involving pay heists and vehicle thefts, bank fraud (forged checks), and the illicit drug trade have been identified as the key areas for **organized crime** in the country (Malawi Paper 2002).

- The extent of **corruption** cannot be estimated from any official data, but the public perception of corruption in government as a whole puts Malawi in the middle tier of the region's countries, for example above (more corrupt than) Namibia, Lesotho and Botswana, but below (less corrupt than) South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Zvekic 2002). Malawi established its Anti-Corruption Bureau in 1997 and, similarly to Botswana, has adopted "the three-pronged approach". Its annual intake varied from year to year with the peak of more than 4,000 complaints in the first year of its operation to just over 1,200 complaints in 2000-2001. Since 1997, of some 8,300 total complaints, one third were authorized for investigation, resulting in the prosecution of 99 people so far.
- While no official data have been reported, it appears from some preliminary research carried out by the International Organization for Migration that Malawi is both a country of transit and origin for the **trafficking and smuggling of persons**, in particular for the intra-regional trafficking of women and children (IOM 2003).
- **Money laundering** has not been reported.

### 3.5.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of illicit drug centers exclusively on the large cannabis crop. According to the 2001 UNODC Information Needs and Resources Analysis (INRA), Malawi's primary problem is cannabis use, fueled by the growing of cannabis as a cash crop. Subsistence farming has given way to cannabis cultivation in areas of the northern and central regions, the export price of cannabis rendering the production of legitimate crops financially unrewarding.
- **Production and manufacturing** of substances such as mandrax have not been reported, and there have been no reported incidents of the trafficking in **precursor chemicals**.
- **Trafficking** in drugs is concentrated around the country's established cannabis trade, with most of the crop reportedly exported. The international tourist industry around Lake Malawi appears responsible, both with regard to demand and supply, for the increasing incidence of seizures of cocaine, heroin and hashish since 1998. The discovery of large quantities of mandrax tablets dates back to at least 1991, when 148,000 tablets were seized (Malawi Report 2002). Arrests for trafficking in these substances are, however, minimal compared with those for cannabis. The Dangerous Drugs Unit located in Zomba, which is responsible for all drug law enforcement in Malawi, reports making about 1,000 arrests per year for drug-related offenses (UNODCCP 2001b).
- No data is available regarding the **licit diversion** of controlled substances.
- **Price trends** have not been ascertained.
- Information on drug **consumption and demand** in Malawi is limited. The use of cannabis by locals is perceived to be problematic, but it is not well documented. The perception of professionals in both the health and law enforcement sectors is that

cannabis is the major illicit drug problem in Malawi, stemming partly from the cultivation of cannabis as a cash crop, particularly in northern and central Malawi. Generally, use of other illicit drugs was perceived to be higher in tourist regions around Lake Malawi. Tourism dominates the lake region and is thought to contribute to the local market for cannabis and other imported drugs (UNODCCP 2001b). Malawi participates in the SENDU network, and the latest comparative trend data on treatment demand, arrests and seizures is contained in Annex 8. Funded by UNODC, an assessment of drug consumption patterns and a study on the nexus between drug consumption and HIV prevalence are due to commence in the third quarter of 2003.

## **3.6 MOZAMBIQUE**

### **3.6.1 Introduction and Overview**

The catastrophic civil conflict that ravaged the country and ended only a decade ago forms the backdrop to the current efforts of Mozambique to develop effective forms of governance and to contend with the threats from uncivil society posed by crime and drugs. In recent years, Mozambique has benefited from strong economic growth, investor and donor interest, and the resources that its neighbor South Africa can make available under cooperation agreements. However, there are serious concerns regarding whether progress is being recorded on the drug and crime fronts as well as whether crime, in particular organized crime, has penetrated the formal economy and the state itself (Gastrow & Mosse 2002). According to the U.S. government's annual assessment of the international drug situation, in Mozambique "corruption in all areas is pervasive" (INL 2001). The ICVS and a study conducted by the NGO Etica both suggest that large numbers of Mozambican citizens consider many public officials to be corrupt (Etica Mozambique 2001). The recent assassinations of people prominent in the anti-corruption effort have further undermined public confidence and reinforced concern about the association of criminal networks with senior levels of government. Nonetheless, the absence of reliable, systematically-collected data on crime patterns and corruption prevalence makes a balanced assessment difficult. One priority is the collection of more reliable data or at least an intensive analysis of the existing data sources by experts who are well acquainted with the situation on the ground. Officially, Mozambique has requested extensive forms of assistance on both the crime and drugs fronts.

### **3.6.2 Crime trends**

As is the case with some other countries of the region, Mozambique too has not provided systematic crime data. However, within the framework of UNDP/UNICRI technical assistance to the Mozambique police, the ICVS was carried out in rural and four urban areas (Maputo, Beira, Nampula and Quelimane), and an analysis of the institutional profile of the criminal justice system was provided. Regarding the police statistics summary, data cover the period 1998-2001, both at the national and provincial levels. ICVS data relate to 13 types of crime for the period 1996-2001 (UNICRI 2003).

- **Serious and violent crimes and property crimes** are on the increase. However, only summary data are provided for crimes against persons and against property and the public order. Since 1998, there has been a slight increase in property crime and a slight decrease in violent crime, although murder increased in the period 1998-2001. Of the total crimes recorded by the police in 2001, almost 40% are against persons, which is quite a high proportion. Only data for total recorded crimes are given by provinces, showing that Maputo is the most crime ridden area followed by Sofala, Zambezia and Gaza. However, due to the weak collection capacity, the reliability of data is questionable. The ICVS data for 2001 show that the most frequent victimization experiences are related to burglary and attempted burglary, personal theft, theft and assault. However, two urban areas covered by the ICVS, Quelimane and Beira, exhibit higher rates for burglary, attempted burglary and personal theft than Maputo, but Maputo shows somewhat higher rates for assault (UNICRI 2002).

- Official data on **violence against women** have not been provided. The ICVS data indicate that the rates of violence against women differ from site to site, but on average they are not too high as compared with some other countries in the region. Violence against women often takes place quite close to the victim's residence or in the victim's home, and the perpetrator is often known by name or by sight both in rural and urban areas (UNICRI 2002). ROSA will conduct a specific survey on violence against women in 2004.

- **Organized crime** is a particularly acute problem in Mozambique, with networks involved in vehicle theft, the illegal firearms trade, drug trafficking and trafficking in persons and human body parts. The problem is compounded by allegations that there is a penetration into the state at the highest levels by the most aggressive syndicates (Gastrow & Mosse 2002).

- **Corruption** is perceived to be widespread involving public officials of various ranks. Although the data from Etica Mozambique and the ICVS differ in terms of the exact level of corruption, there is a concordance between the two surveys that corruption has reached very serious levels (Etica Mozambique 2001; UNICRI 2002).

- Mozambique is perceived as one of the most important regional hubs for the international **trafficking in and smuggling of persons** (IOM 2003). An alarming additional problem is that of trafficking in human body parts of victims especially murdered for the purpose of supplying a demand from traditional healers across the border in Swaziland and South Africa. Possibly ten organized groups are thought to be involved in this gruesome trade (Gastrow & Mosse 2002).

- **Money laundering** appears on the increase and is linked primarily to drug trafficking. Large sums of drug money are suspected to flow into property, construction and high-cost luxury items. In addition, it is thought that some of the ten banks and 33 foreign exchange bureaus – two others were closed in 2001 by the central bank – may provide a ready conduit for laundering large sums overseas (Gastrow & Mosse 2002).

### 3.6.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of illicit drugs appears confined to cannabis, which is widely grown on small plots in all provinces, but primarily in the provinces of Tete, Sofala, Manica and Maputo. There also are reports that since the end of the civil war cannabis plantations have developed in forested regions run by ex-combatants. It is reported that these commercially oriented plantations produce the bulk of the country's cannabis crop, much of it for export (UNDCP 1999).

- **Production and manufacturing** of mandrax have been taking place for some time, with laboratories producing the substance being raided and closed down in 1995. In February 2000, the South African police supported the Mozambican government in dismantling the largest mandrax laboratory detected (as of that date) in the southern hemisphere. The operation took place in Maputo and resulted in the seizure of 292 kg of mandrax tablets. With Mozambique's close proximity to the main markets for this substance in South Africa, this problem may recur. In 2002, the Indian authorities reported the diversion of mandrax-producing machinery to Mozambique.

- Regarding **precursor chemicals**, during 2001 at the request of South Africa, authorities in France stopped a shipment of 25 tonnes of anthranilic acid to Mozambique when it was determined that the consignment was to have been transshipped through Mozambique to South Africa, where it would be used in the illicit manufacture of mandrax. Trafficking groups capable of handling such large consignments are well established and possess well organized networks to transport, store and use such a large quantity of precursor chemicals (INCB 2001; UNODC/ROSA 2002). In December 2001, another ten tonnes of anthranilic acid were seized in Maputo harbor en route to South Africa from Mumbai, India (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

- **Trafficking** in illegal substances often appears highly organized. Not only cannabis and mandrax, but also significant quantities of hashish as well as heroin and cocaine (the latter two apparently destined for South Africa) have been seized between 1998 and 2001 (Mozambique Report 2002). In 2001, 8,112 kg of cannabis and 23.4 kg of hashish were seized. Extremely large hashish hauls have occurred over the past decade on or off the coast of Mozambique, the most recent involving 15 tonnes near the coastal city of Inhambane in August 2000. None of this seized hashish appears to have been intended for domestic markets in either Mozambique or South Africa. For example, the consignment of 1,863 kg of hashish seized in Tanzania in 2002 had entered the African continent via Mozambique. Mozambique's extremely long and open coastline, together with limited interdiction capacity at the major ports, suggests that the country is likely to become an even more important entry point for bulk smuggling of illicit substances into the region. Increasing concern centers on the suspected heroin smuggling from Tanzania into and through the northern province of Cabo Delgado and the nearby island of Pemba. In 2001, Mozambican authorities seized 3.9 kg of heroin. While no mandrax was seized in 2001, in 2000 660 kg was seized in cooperation with South African authorities. In addition, ecstasy and prescription drugs (diazepam) have been seized in small quantities.

- The extent of **licit diversion** has not been established.

- **Price trends** are high in general and keep the local cost of illicit drugs, except for cannabis, at levels prohibitive for the majority of the population.

- **Consumption of and demand for** harmful substances cover a wider range of drugs than is the case in several other SADC countries. While substances such as alcohol and cannabis exhibit high consumption levels, the consumption of much smaller quantities of heroin, hashish, ecstasy, diazepam, morphine and mandrax has been uncovered. A survey in Mozambique conducted by UNODCCP shows that in 1998-1999 of 1,070 respondents interviewed in Mozambique, 18% reported that they used drugs regularly. The highest percentage of users was found in the urban neighborhood areas of Maputo (26%). Respondents were also asked which drugs were available in their area. Of the 1,070 respondents, 55% indicated that cannabis was available, 37% indicated that cocaine was available, 18% indicated that mandrax was available, and 18% indicated that heroin was available (UNDCP 1999). Heroin use appears to constitute a growing problem and is spread over several port towns. The Infulene Psychiatric Hospital, for example, recorded 41 cases of patients treated for heroin abuse in 2001, compared to 38 for cannabis, and 18 for alcohol (UNODCCP 2002). Mozambique participates in the SENDU network, and the latest comparative trend data on treatment demand, arrests and seizures is contained in Annex 8.

## **3.7 NAMIBIA**

### **3.7.1 Introduction and Overview**

Together with South Africa and Botswana, Namibia appears to possess the greatest amount of reliable data among the SADC member countries regarding the drug problem. Similarly, it possesses an overall administrative capacity that is relatively more developed in comparison with other SADC countries. Surprisingly, however, the Namibian Police have been unable to collate, or at least to make public, crime statistics for the last four years. The public perception is that serious and violent crime levels are rising. A pattern of widespread abuse of alcohol and cannabis resembles that in other SADC countries, though there are a variety of factors that appear to underpin the increasing use of other illicit substances from quite a low base since the early 1990s. Namibia has ratified the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the two related Protocols on the trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants. The Minister of Justice was the chair of the SADC Legal Sector.

### **3.7.2 Crime trends**

- **Serious and violent crimes** are considered to be on the increase. The most recent data released by the Namibian police date from 1998. Ministry of Justice statistics report a total of 69,301 cases that were recorded in the magistrates and regional courts during 1997. Serious crime cases forwarded for the decision of the Prosecutor-General from these courts totaled 1,324 for the eleven months from January to November 1998. For the seven months December 1998 through July 1999, there were 1,348 such cases. These

figures bear out the popular perception that serious crime is on the increase. In descending order of incidence, the serious crimes with the highest figures were rape, robbery and murder. The figures suggest the following rates per 100,000 population: rape 35.5, aggravated robbery 20.5, murder 17.9, housebreaking 462.4, commercial crimes 48.9, vehicle theft 28.7 and stock theft 155.0 (UNAFRI et al. 2001).

- As expected, **property crime** has far and away the highest incidence figures in the general crime statistics. Burglary and stock theft comprise approximately 90 percent of such crimes.

- The figures for rape (35.5 per 100,000 population) indicate that **violence against women** constitutes a major problem facing the country.

- **Organized crime** is considered by the Namibian police to be on the increase but not so much as to be out of control (Namibia Paper 2002). Detection rates for armed robbery cases, for example, are said by the police to be high, and the problem is not currently out of hand (Namibia Paper 2002).

- **Corruption** in Namibia appears to be at a lower level than in some other SADC countries. For example, in 2001, Transparency International ranks Namibia, along with Botswana, as the least corrupt of the seven SADC countries reviewed. Similarly, regional surveys reveal Namibia is perceived to be less corrupt than other countries in the region, and citizens in Namibia have been four times more likely to perceive public corruption than to experience it. Still, the level of corruption as experienced by the citizens of Namibia cannot be considered low (Zvekić 2002).

- Data on **trafficking and smuggling of human beings** do not appear to exist.

- **Money laundering** receives no mention in *The National Drug Control Master Plan for Namibia 2002-2006* (Namibia 2002), nor is it highlighted in the other relevant sources. However, Namibia possesses a sophisticated and efficient banking sector similar to that of South Africa, and South Africa is very concerned about both current and future use of its sector for money laundering.

### 3.7.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of drugs appears to be restricted to cannabis, which is on a relatively small scale in the higher rainfall northern region.

- **Production and manufacturing** of illicit substances do not appear to take place, and problems of **precursor chemicals** likewise do not seem to have been raised.

- **Trafficking** in illicit substances is the major drug control problem facing the Namibian authorities. The bulk of cannabis appears to originate outside the country, and most seems to be imported from South Africa, Angola and Zambia (UNODCCP 2001c). Cross border smuggling networks are quite widespread. *The National Drug Control Master Plan for Namibia, 2002-2006* notes that mandrax use (smoked with cannabis, as in South

Africa) has been present since the 1970s, while smaller quantities of cocaine, heroin, LSD and ecstasy have been detected since about 1999 (Namibia 2002). Local consumption is considered to be partly a function of Namibia's role as a transshipment point for these drugs en route to South Africa, with the port of Walvis Bay and the frequent international flight connections to Europe, especially to and from Germany, constituting significant entry points for these hard drugs (Lewis 2000).

- **Licit diversion** of harmful substances has not received much attention and is not stated as constituting a major issue, although the *INRA for Namibia* (UNODCCP 2001c) notes that the “abuse of OTC [over the counter] or prescription medicines and solvents also occurs”.

- **Price trends** indicate that all drugs command considerably higher retail prices than in South Africa, for example (Lewis 2000).

- **Consumption of and demand for** harmful substances indicate that as with other countries of the region, these primarily relate to alcohol and cannabis abuse. Sources on patterns at various treatment centres and hospitals plus official seizure data confirm this (*The National Drug Control Master Plan for Namibia: 2002-2006*). In addition, a smaller but significant number of patients are admitted for mandrax use (UNODCCP 2001c; Lewis 2000; SENDU 2002). Cocaine, LSD, ecstasy and heroin appear to be available in places such as Windhoek nightclubs, and treatment centres admit patients seeking treatment for these drugs. Namibia is a member of SENDU and, together with Botswana and South Africa, is the SADC country most advanced in terms of its participation in the network (SENDU 2001). The latest SENDU comparative trend data on treatment demand, arrests and seizures are contained in Annex 8.

## 3.8 SOUTH AFRICA

### 3.8.1 Introduction and Overview

South Africa presents the region as a whole with perhaps its greatest opportunities but also its most intractable challenges in countering rising crime rates and drug abuse. Given its economic dominance, its range of sophisticated resources (by regional standards) and its attraction for criminal enterprise of all kinds, any significant improvements on the crime and drugs front in this country could reverberate positively around the whole of Southern Africa. The South African government appears earnest in countering both domestic and transnational crime, although there are a number of significant challenges facing its law enforcement and criminal justice sectors. Successful projects in South Africa could help pull other SADC countries in its wake, with implications that stretch wider than the crime and drugs situation to the question of improved governance as a whole. Of course, the converse is true. A deterioration of the situation in South Africa would likely serve to undermine the possibility of progress among its partners in the region. In 2002, the South African National Commissioner of Police was elected as the Interpol Vice President for Africa. Released in November 2002, the UNODC/ROSA report, *South Africa: Country Profile on Drugs and Crime*

(UNODC/ROSA 2002), presents a detailed analysis of the drug and crime trends and the responses to them in terms of legislation, law enforcement, prevention and treatment.

### 3.8.2 Crime trends

Among the countries of the region, South Africa has the best available crime and criminal justice data, both in terms of official statistics and victimization surveys. There have been three ICVS surveys carried out in Johannesburg in the years 1992, 1996 and 2000 (see reports by UNISA/UNICRI for 1993, 1997 and 2001). In addition, there have been four city surveys: Johannesburg, Pretoria, Durban and Cape Town (see Louw 1999). Finally, there has been one national victimization survey (South Africa 1998), the only such national survey carried out in the region. Although there are some methodological difficulties with these various crime and criminal justice statistics, their content and methodologies are superior compared with those from other countries in the region.

- **Serious and violent crimes** are consistently rated by the South African public as one of the two or three most pressing problems facing the country. High rates of violent crime inflict incalculable harm on ordinary citizens, damage investor confidence, and have led to the loss of a large, unquantifiable number of skilled and professional persons essential to robust development. Crime statistics released by the South African Police Service's Crime Information Management Centre showed that for 1996 (SAPS 1996), of the 114 countries for which comparable figures were available, South Africa had the highest rates of murder (61 per 100,000 population), rape (119), and robbery and violent theft (281), and also was near the top regarding serious assault and sexual offenses in general (SAPS 1999). While such figures must be treated with the usual caution, few doubt that they pointed to an underlying reality. The most recent figures, however, suggest that a turning point is not out of the question. The Annual Report of the SAPS for 2001-2002 (SAPS 2002) shows that rates for the majority of crimes have decreased somewhat in 2001-2002, although they are still at higher levels than for the period 1994-1995 to 1999-2000. There are, however, significant variations among the nine South African provinces, with the two most developed ones (Gauteng and Western Cape) having the highest (or among the highest) rates for murder, aggravated robbery and serious assault. Violent crime is accentuated by the availability of firearms. While murder has shown a steady decline from 1994 to 2002 (a total decrease of 29%), this is not the case with serious and common assault and attempted murder, though there was a slight decrease in 2001-2002 for serious assault.

- **Property crime** likewise showed a slight decrease in 2001 compared to 2000: 3,581.2 per 100,000 people in 2001 and 3,631.6 in 2000. Motor vehicle theft rates have declined steadily, if slowly, between 1998-1999 and 2001-2002. Reported rates of residential housebreaking generally have exhibited an upward trend and declined only slightly in 2001-2002. Presumably due to improved security measures, burglaries at business premises have declined slightly, but consecutively, over the last four reporting years. Theft of firearms remains a serious problem, with the incidence reported to have doubled since 1994. This in turn feeds into the proliferation of illegal guns that are used in violent crimes (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

• **Violence against women** when judged by the reporting of rape to the police remains at disturbingly high levels. While the reported rate is down from its high of 126 per 100,000 in 1996-1997, it showed a slight increase between 2000-2001 and 2001-2002 when rates went from 118.6 per 100,000 to 119.4 per 100,000. Indeed, the level of reported rape is among the single highest in the world (UNODC/ROSA 2002). It should be noted that while the first and only national crime victimization survey found that 46.6% of sexual assaults were reported to the police (South Africa 1998), a city victimization survey in Johannesburg in 2000 suggested a reporting rate of only 39 percent. By contrast, a similar victim survey in Durban found that a majority of respondents claimed to have reported sexual assaults to the police (Robertshaw et al. 2001). It is perhaps impossible to obtain reliable data on this issue given the delicacy of the problem, and more precise estimates of underreporting of sexual crimes cannot be obtained with current instruments and measures. A particularly alarming trend, highlighted by high profile gang rape incidents, is the number of girls under 18 who are victims of sexual assault, often of the most brutal kind. The SAPS reported that 15,000 children (under 18 years) had been raped in the period January-September 2001, some as young as a few months old (SAPS 2002).

• **Organized crime** has undergone an explosive increase in South Africa since 1994. It should not, however, be forgotten that criminal gangs and the related prison gangs have long been a feature of South African life, especially in the greater Cape Town area, and they have always played a role in the cannabis and mandrax trade. What has changed since 1994 is the increasing internationalization of the participants and the involvement of organized groups leading to steeply higher rates of specific crimes such as motor vehicle theft and trafficking of hard drugs by specific foreign national groups. Cross border crime has proliferated and become increasingly sophisticated, with a kind of continuous arms race between law enforcement agencies and the criminal syndicates themselves. The most recent data from the SAPS put the figure of known organized crime groups at 238 with a total of 3,845 individuals involved (UNODC/ROSA 2002). The police rank the top ten organized crime threats as drug trafficking, motor vehicle theft, armed robbery, fraud, car hijacking, corruption, illegal weapons and ammunition trafficking, other theft related crime, illicit diamond and gold trafficking, and murder-related crime (SAPS 2002).

• **Corruption** in both the official and private sectors is widely perceived as a problem by the South African public and is perceived to have increased since 1994. Corrupt practices among law enforcement officials, especially SAPS personnel, have been widely reported in the press, although survey data show that only in Johannesburg have some 20% of the public considered the police to be corrupt (Louw 1999). Coordination of the twelve government agencies with anti-corruption mandates is an additional challenge. In 2002, the government adopted the Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy, and implementation has begun. The Prevention of Corruption bill is currently pending in Parliament, and its passage into law will strengthen greatly the anti-corruption legislative framework, which although relatively sophisticated, has acknowledged shortcomings. Released in April 2003, the *Country Corruption Assessment Report* (UNODC/DPSA 2003) is the first comprehensive description and analysis of the corruption and anti-corruption situation in South Africa. The report analyzes the

strengths and weaknesses of the legislative framework, institutional capacities for prevention, investigation and prosecution, management policy and practice, ethics and public education, and the role of civil society, mass media and political parties. In addition, it provides research findings on both the perception of and experience with corruption by the general public, business, mass media, and selected public service departments and their clients. It also presents findings based on feedback from focus groups of parliamentarians, trade unions, journalists, magistrates and prosecutors. The report details strategic and operational recommendations on the basis of which further anti-corruption activities should be identified and carried out. The report reveals that the country occupies a mid-level position in global terms of its vulnerability to corruption and that the government has made a public commitment to prevent and fight corruption. It also shows that it has initiated a number of concrete steps in this regard.

- The extent of **trafficking and smuggling of human beings** in South Africa is uncertain, with the Department of Home Affairs unable to furnish figures. It is generally accepted, however, that trafficking in young women for sexual abuse is taking place, often with the involvement of organized foreign syndicates (Chinese, Bulgarian, Russian and Central and West African) (UNODC/ROSA 2002). There are inbound trafficking flows both from Asia and Eastern Europe as well as from other African countries (e.g., Mozambique and Malawi). There also is trafficking in body parts for ritual purposes as well as organized smuggling of illegal migrants from neighboring countries and Asia. South Africa's long and porous borders make these crimes particularly difficult to combat, although increasing attention has been paid to border patrolling.

- **Money laundering** is likely to be on the increase in South Africa given the country's sophisticated but relatively unprotected banking and financial sectors plus the magnitude of the local crime and drug networks. No figures are available, nor have any prosecutions for money laundering been launched. However, the South African Reserve Bank has estimated that drug money flows in the last few years have been large enough to counter the bank's own monetary actions in open market operations. Rapid improvements on this front should become evident as the Financial Intelligence Centre Act passed in December 2001 comes into effect (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

### 3.8.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of illicit drugs in South Africa appears confined to the widespread cultivation of cannabis in the eastern half of the country and in some northern areas. The estimated area under drug cultivation has been a controversial matter in recent years, with some unrealistically high figures put forward by the authorities. Current estimates put the amount of land under cultivation at 1,000-1,200 hectares. This estimate still places South Africa among the top four herbal cannabis sources in the world according to Interpol. A considerable effort is dedicated to both eradication of the crop and to seizures, with large quantities discovered by the police annually (UNODC/ROSA 2002). The South African Narcotics Bureau (SANAB) reports a total of 495,927,905 kg of cannabis seized during 2001 (SANAB 2002). This figure represents a considerable decline in seizures since 1994, when over 700,000,000 kg of cannabis had been reported by the SAPS.

- The **production and manufacturing** of illicit substances, mainly mandrax, has been underway in South Africa since at least the 1980s. Although the bulk of this drug appears to be imported, the SAPS has reported the detection of mandrax manufacturing facilities every year since 1987, with a high of eight such laboratories found and dismantled during 2002 (UNODC/ROSA 2002). It is possible that energetic police action in source countries, India in particular, has been responsible for the increasing relocation of mandrax manufacturing to Southern Africa itself (UNDCP 1999). Police uncovered the first ecstasy manufacturing facility in 1996 and have made regular finds in subsequent years, with a high of six in 2001. Three crack cocaine laboratories were first uncovered in the country in 1998. In addition, smaller numbers of facilities for methamphetamine, GHB, MDP2P/MDA, cannabis processing, and methcathone (“cat” from the *catha edulis* plant) have been raided since 1998. Regarding cat, eight such facilities were discovered in 2002 (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

- Continued seizures of **precursor chemicals**, especially of anthranilic acid and N-acetylanthranilic acid, the two main precursor substances for the manufacture of mandrax, have been made since 1995. In 1995, approximately 70% percent of the worldwide seizures of mandrax precursor chemicals occurred in South Africa. Major seizures of these chemicals outside the country also have been made at the request of the South African authorities. Other chemicals seized in South Africa in recent years include acetic anhydride, hydrochloride acid, toluene, acetone, ethyl ether and sulphuric acid. These substances have licit industrial purposes but may also be used in the manufacture of mandrax (UNODC/ROSA 2002). Also, in December 2001, the South African authorities conducted a controlled delivery of 5 kg of sassafras oil from France, which led to the discovery and dismantling of a facility in South Africa for manufacturing methamphetamine and ecstasy.

- Over most of the last decade, two distinct trends can be identified with regard to drug **trafficking**. First, there had been a gradual decline in drug-related cases followed by an upsurge since 1998. Drug-related arrests had declined from a peak of over 47,000 in 1994 to 40,000 in 1998. In 2001, 49,323 such arrests were made. Second, much of the thrust of law enforcement efforts have shifted from the interdiction of cannabis to increasing arrests in connection with mandrax and other more dependence-producing drugs. While the bulk of drug-related arrests still involve herbal cannabis and mandrax (the latter involving around 20% of the cases), there has been a marked increase in arrests involving cocaine (about 5%), and since 1997 also ecstasy. For ecstasy, arrests climbed from nil to almost 350 in the year 2000. Although absolute numbers arrested in connection with heroin remain low, their incidence has increased eight-fold since the mid-1990s (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

- **Licit diversion** has become a problem of late in South Africa. The country’s sophisticated chemical industry makes it an obvious target for organized drug rings. In 1999, the International Narcotics Control Board (INCB 2001) reported that approximately 25 tonnes of methyl ethyl ketone, used in the preparation of cocaine, that had been shipped from South Africa to Colombia. In response to this new phenomenon, the South African Narcotics Bureau established a Chemical Monitoring Programme. This Programme appears to have forged a successful relationship with the country’s

chemical industry as no new seizures of chemicals listed under Section 3 of the Drugs and Trafficking Act and Article 12 of the 1988 UN Convention have been made (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

- **Price trends** have demonstrated some disturbing dimensions since the mid-1990s, contributing to the general availability and increased demand for the less customary drugs of choice. Drug prices have remained relatively stable in local currency (rand) terms and even may have declined. Translated, however, into U.S. dollar terms, the past depreciation of the South African rand reflects a strong downward trend. If expressed in dollar terms, the price of both heroin and cocaine fell by more than 75 % between 1992 and 2001, with a much wider range of consumers thus able to afford drugs previously out of their price range, with obviously negative implications for increasing drug use among lower-income and youth markets (UNODC/ROSA 2002).

- In terms of **consumption and demand**, cannabis and mandrax remain the primary and secondary illicit drugs of abuse (SACENDU 2003). Alcohol abuse is historically heavy and a major factor in both health- and crime-related social pathologies (UNODC/ROSA). After these two drugs, in descending order of morbidity are cocaine and crack, depressants such as benzodiazepines, heroin and other opiates, LSD, and inhalants (glue, thinners) (SACENDU 2003). According to a survey of drug and alcohol use among primary school children in the Cape Town metropolitan area in 2002, one-fifth of primary school children have tried drugs, and the average age of first using drugs is 12 years (Fisher 2002). The same survey shows that in high schools, 45% have tried any drug, and 32% use drugs. Further, the study compared recent risk behavior patterns among Grade 8 and 11 students with that of their counterparts in 1990. While both sets of students exhibit rates of cigarette and alcohol use which are fairly constant, rates of cannabis use have almost doubled in the intervening period. Since 2000, heroin use has increased significantly in major urban areas, particularly in Gauteng and Cape Town. Just under 10 per cent of patients in treatment state heroin as their primary or secondary drug of abuse (SACENDU 2003). In 2002, most heroin was smoked (“chasing the dragon”), but between one-third and one-half of patients with heroin as their primary drug of abuse in Cape Town and Gauteng report some injecting use. The second half of 2001 also witnessed the appearance of heroin users among the impoverished Black/African communities in South Africa’s urban areas. One risk associated with injecting heroin is the spread of HIV/AIDS. Ongoing research in South Africa suggests that (non-injecting) drug use is associated indirectly with HIV transmission via risky sexual behavior (Morojele 2003). It also shows that compared with non-drug users, drug users are more likely to engage in risky sexual behaviors such as sex with multiple sex partners and unprotected sex. Research in South Africa released in 2002 has confirmed a high positive correlation between drug use and other crimes. The study shows that the percentage of arrestees testing positive for any drug (excluding alcohol) in connection with housebreaking, motor vehicle theft and rape was 66%, 59% and 49% respectively. According to the report, approximately 46% of all those arrested had recently used at least one illicit substance (Leggett 2002). South Africa also participates in the SENDU network.

## 3.9 SWAZILAND

### 3.9.1 Introduction and Overview

Much of Swaziland's quite considerable serious crime and drug problems appear to be in large part a function of this landlocked country's position as a transit zone between the attraction of the South African market and the rich criminal opportunities offered in Mozambique. Transborder operations with regard to stolen vehicles, illegal firearms, trafficking in persons and the drug trade appear to be having a spillover effect in Swaziland, including the firearm homicide of police officers and prominent Swazi citizens (Swaziland Paper 2002). Besides organized criminal groupings, the country's young population profile and the high rate of unemployment are conducive to quite extensive common crime, especially theft.

### 3.9.2 Crime trends

- Inadequate official data collection systems make **serious and violent crime** trends in the last three years difficult to ascertain with any reliability. Available figures suggest a slight increase in the serious crime categories between 1997 and 2001. For example, the Swazi police report 1,835 robbery cases in 1997 (UNAFRI et al. 2000) and 2,098 cases in 2001 (Swaziland Report 2002). Housebreaking figures were 6,553 and 6,888 respectively. The homicide rate in general appears high, with 266, 260 and 251 cases reported during the years 1995-1997 (UNAFRI et al. 2000). For a country with a population of over one million people, these translate into high rates from an international perspective. One indication of the earnestness of the Swazi police, in response to what they perceive as a major and growing threat, was the formation of a Serious Crimes Unit in 2001 through the amalgamation of the murder, robbery and car theft units (Swaziland 2001).
- **Property crime** appears quite extensive. Theft, burglary and robbery (most recently involving automatic weapons) are at alarming levels, and the cross border stolen vehicle activity presents the Royal Swaziland Police with one of its major challenges (Swaziland Paper).
- **Violence against women** appears problematic, with 23% of the respondents in the 1998 ICVS stating they had been sexually assaulted during 1997.
- **Organized crime** is thought to be on the increase, concentrated particularly on cross border car theft, armed robberies, illegal firearms trafficking, and drug trafficking. Crime syndicates consist of South African, Mozambican, Nigerian and Swazi nationals (Swaziland Paper 2002). Smuggling of stolen vehicles and of drugs occurs both via established border posts and at illegal crossing points between Swaziland and Mozambique.
- The extent of official **corruption** is uncertain. In 1998, 18% of the respondents in the urban areas in the ICVS for Swaziland reported that they had been victims of corruption in 1997. Expatriate police officers have termed the extent of official corruption as

"mild", though with deleterious effects on interdiction, arrests and convictions (INL 2001). In its 2002 report, the U.S. government claims that "low level corruption no doubt facilitates some [drug] trafficking, but the Swazi government punishes corruption brought to its attention" (INL 2002).

- There appear to be no data relating to the **trafficking and smuggling of human beings**. However, given the otherwise crucial transit and transshipment role played by Swaziland between South Africa and Mozambique, through both legal and illegal border crossings, Swaziland may well play an important role as a transit country for human beings, and this issue deserves closer attention (IOM 2003). As indicated at the Benoni SPF Conference, a trade in human body parts is also present in Swaziland, due in part to the demand from traditional healers.

- **Money laundering** trends have not been reported, but with a sound banking system and opportunities for investment, the use of Swaziland for disposing of drug and organized crime revenue must be considered as a potential problem.

### 3.9.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of cannabis in Swaziland produces a crop both for local consumption and exportation, mainly to South Africa but also Europe and to a much lesser extent the United States. Eradication of the crop by spraying has been undertaken in cooperation with the South African authorities and with technical aid from the U.S. government (INL 2001). It is estimated that the area under cultivation is approximately 80-120 hectares, localized particularly in three areas. A large proportion of the crop that goes to South Africa appears to be simply carried over the border at various unguarded points (Lewis 1999).

- Cases of **production or manufacturing** of illicit substances such as mandrax have not been reported.

- **Precursor chemicals** have not appeared as an issue as yet.

- **Trafficking** in illicit substances continues to increase in this country. According to the U.S. government's annual assessment of the international drug situation, "trafficking has become the major threat as multiple factors make Swaziland attractive as a regional base or transshipment point for international trafficking organizations. Its legislation, limited enforcement resources, a relatively open society, and a developed economic infrastructure all contribute to Swaziland being a hub" (INL 2001). Relatively large quantities of cannabis are seized each year or destroyed while under cultivation. Small quantities of heroin and cocaine also have been intercepted, and there is evidence that significant volumes of mandrax are being smuggled into the country from Mozambique via the Lomahasha border post.

- No data appear to exist on the issue of **licit diversion**.

- **Price trends** have not been established, but cannabis is readily available at low cost.

- **Consumption of and demand for** harmful substances remain focused on alcohol and cannabis, with these two constituting the major substances of abuse in the kingdom. Swaziland is not yet a functioning member of SENDU; hence, data on the full range of the substances abused are not available from the network's usual data sources.

## 3.10 ZAMBIA

### 3.10.1 Introduction and Overview

It appears that rising serious crime, together with limited law enforcement capacity, constitutes an extremely intractable problem in the nation's capital, Lusaka. Recent official data for other urban centres and for the nation as a whole appear nonexistent, and some extrapolation from the most recent (1998) statistics from courts is unavoidable. The main drugs of abuse are alcohol and cannabis. The latter is grown as a cash crop in parts of the country, but climatic conditions prevent it from assuming the major dimensions, including a sizeable export capacity, of countries such as South Africa, Swaziland and Malawi. A range of other illicit substances are known to transit the country en route to South Africa, Namibia and Botswana, but again the extent of the problem appears relatively limited in comparison to Mozambique, for example.

### 3.10.2 Crime trends

- **Serious and violent crimes**, notably aggravated robbery, murder, attempted murder, and homicide from dangerous driving accounted for nearly 97% of the criminal cases brought before the Lusaka High Court between January 1998 and August 1999 (UNAFRI et al. 2001a). During the same period in the Lusaka Subordinate Court, approximately 46% of all cases – there were a total of 546 cases – concerned property theft, and 20% involved physical violence or the threat of violence. Impressionistically, reports suggest that serious crime extends beyond the capital, with tourists being warned of dangers on the road (UNAFRI et al. 2001a). No police statistics have been made available.

- **Property crime** also has taken on serious proportions based the limited data available. The ICVS for Lusaka reports that 24% of its 1,050 respondents claimed to have experience vehicle-related crime in the five years previous to the survey, and nearly 20% were victims of burglary or attempted burglary.

- **Violence against women** is considered a problem in Zambia, particularly in urban areas. In period 1998-1999, rape constituted 2% of cases brought before the courts in Lusaka (UNAFRI et al. 2001), and similarly 2% of female ICVS respondents reported that they were victims of sexual assault, including rape, in 1999 (UNICRI 2002a). Police statistics, however, report rape as constituting only 0.03% of all recorded criminal cases in 2001 (Zambia Report 2002). Given the trends regionally, these data require close scrutiny.

- **Organized crime** trends are difficult to ascertain in the absence of reliable information, although there is some evidence of organized crime involvement in counterfeiting, forgery, armed robbery, prostitution, and smuggling of firearms, vehicles, illegal migrants, and ivory and rhinoceros horn (Gastrow 2001).
- **Corruption** is perceived by the public to be widespread, with Zambia ranking third highest on the regional Afrobarometer on perceptions of public corruption, after Zimbabwe and South Africa (Zvekic 2002). Zambia was the second SADC country, after Tanzania, to establish a single dedicated anti-corruption agency (in 1982), but its effectiveness and popular support have varied since its inception. Recently, an anti-corruption task team was created to look into the high profile corruption cases.
- **Trafficking and smuggling of human beings** has not been reported officially, but it appears that Zambia shares some of the characteristics noted for its neighbor, Malawi, on this issue, i.e., it is both a transit as well as a country of origin for the trafficking and smuggling of persons, in particular for the intra-regional trafficking of women and children (IOM 2003).
- **Money laundering** has not been reported on an extensive scale. A new measure designed to combat this phenomenon was passed by the Zambian parliament in 2001.

### 3.10.3 Drug trends

- Cultivation of illicit drugs is reportedly confined to cannabis, and the scale of it is limited in comparison to that of the leading Southern African producers. In the ten-year period 1993-2002, Zambia's Drug Enforcement Commission (DEC) reported seizures of cannabis ranging from 3.2 to 16.6 tonnes, with the largest seizure being reported in 2002 (Zambia 2003). Most of Zambia's cannabis crop is exported.
- **Production and manufacturing** of mandrax was reported in Zambia in the mid-1990s but has not been reported in recent years.
- **Precursor chemicals** do not appear to be coming into or transiting the country.
- **Trafficking** in illicit substances, apart from cannabis, is limited and appears to be aimed at transshipment from Tanzania and other neighbors to countries south of Zambia. Small quantities of heroin and cocaine are consumed locally, but these drugs seem mainly destined for the South African market. A consignment of 1,863 kg of hashish seized in Tanzania in 2002 had transited Zambia, inbound from Mozambique. The involvement of foreign nationals in the drug trade is indicated by the following: of the 3,288 persons arrested for drug-related offenses in the first ten months of 2002, 169 were foreign nationals (INL 2002). Of these, 38 came from the Democratic Republic of Congo, 24 from Angola, and 18 from Tanzania.
- **Licit diversion** does not appear to be a major issue.

- **Price trends** for drugs other than cannabis appear to maintain themselves at high levels and thus beyond the purchasing power of the vast majority of the population of this impoverished country.

- **Consumption and demand** are heaviest for alcohol and cannabis (Zambia 2003). Alcohol abuse has long been the country's major substance abuse problem (SENDU 2000). However, between 2000-2002, the DEC reports a ten-fold increase in the number of individuals presenting for treatment with heroin as their primary substance of abuse, albeit from a low numerical base (Zambia 2003). Zambian health authorities report a recent increase in patients requiring treatment and rehabilitation for heroin abuse (Marais 2003). Such sources report that users fall mainly into the young adult group, are drawn from across the economic spectrum, and include a greater number of women than in the past. Some heroin users are injecting. Zambia is not yet a part of the SENDU network, and a fuller picture of substance abuse patterns awaits this development.

## **3.11 ZIMBABWE**

### **3.11.1 Introduction and Overview**

Paralleling a drastic drop in overall living standards and an uncertain political situation, serious crime levels in Zimbabwe appear to be on the increase. The number of reported homicides, for example, nearly doubled from 555 in 1996 to 1,045 in 2000. Criminal case clearance and conviction rates remain low (Zimbabwe Report 2002). It appears the situation is ripe for an increase in substance abuse and drug trafficking as more and more marginalized citizens turn to drugs as a livelihood strategy. At the same time, however, the overall pattern of substance abuse remains relatively stable, with alcohol and cannabis accounting for the bulk of persons presenting for treatment at the country's facilities. Much smaller quantities of cocaine, heroin, mandrax and ecstasy began to circulate in isolated and affluent urban pockets in the 1990s. The main thrust of Zimbabwe's drug control efforts is in supply reduction side with a focus on interdiction and crop eradication, though the number of drug-related crimes dropped from 8,066 in 1996 to 6,833 in 2000 (Zimbabwe Report 2002). Regarding demand reduction, there are some limited awareness campaigns targeting youths in schools and churches.

### **3.11.2 Crime trends**

- **Serious and violent crimes** appear to be on the increase from statistics furnished by the Zimbabwe police. Besides the nearly doubling rise in homicide, there also have been increases in serious assault, common assault, robbery and vehicle hijacking for the period 1996-2000 (Zimbabwe Paper 2002).

- **Property crime** also appears high and on the increase, with recorded cases of housebreaking rising from 53,524 in 1996 to 56,475 in 2000 (Zimbabwe Paper 2002).

- **Violence against women** has risen dramatically, if the most serious form of it, rape, is any indication. The figures show a rise in reported cases from 3,034 in 1996 to 4,408 in 2000 (Zimbabwe Paper 2002).

- **Organized crime** is reported to be undertaken by both national and transitional gangs, usually loose alliances of two to ten individuals. All categories of organized crime have shown an increase between 1996 and 2000, but they have maintained their relative rank order, with drug trafficking (6,833 cases in 2000) in the lead, followed by fraud and/or money laundering (5,060), vehicle thefts and hijackings (1,414) and armed robbery (513) (Zimbabwe Paper 2002).

- **Corruption** in the present political climate in Zimbabwe may be a concept of fluid application. Nevertheless, Zimbabwe ranked at the top (most corrupt) of the SADC Afrobarometer ratings on public perception of the corruptibility of public officials. Currently, the country has no corruption prevention activities, and public awareness and education have been left to the NGO sector (see Zimbabwe Chapter of Transparency International) (Zvekic 2002).

- **Trafficking and smuggling of human beings** has been exacerbated by the recent economic downturn. Illegal entry into South Africa in particular by Zimbabwean nationals is a longstanding phenomenon. The extent to which it might currently be taking place has been highlighted by the case in 1998 in which 18 Zimbabweans, hidden in a lorry container, were abandoned by the driver and suffocated to death. The lorry was stopped in Botswana, but was thought to be en route to South Africa (Zimbabwe Paper 2002). Besides the smuggling of illegal nationals out of the country, there are fears that young women are also being targeted for cross border trafficking.

- The extent of **money laundering** is uncertain. Police statistics tend to conflate cheque and other familiar forms of commercial fraud together with money laundering under the same crime category. The former has reportedly risen sharply in recent years.

### 3.11.3 Drug trends

- **Cultivation** of illicit substances remains confined to small-scale growers of cannabis in the west (e.g., Binga), east (e.g., Ruangwe, Nyanga, Chipinge and Chiredzi) and northeast (e.g., Mtolo) of the country, where cultivation is rife. According to police estimates, however, even this production satisfies only a small proportion of local consumption, the bulk of the drug being imported from neighboring countries (Zimbabwe Report 2002).

- **Production and manufacturing** of drugs such as mandrax do not appear to have occurred on any scale during the past decade, and there have been no reports of trafficking in **precursor chemicals** in the country.

- **Trafficking** consists largely of cannabis being smuggled into the country or harder drugs being transshipped via Zimbabwe en route to South Africa. In recent years, the average annual seizure of herbal cannabis has been 1.5 tonnes, though Zimbabwe reports

that seizure figures represent a very small percentage of the actual trafficking of this drug. In the past, traffickers reportedly had been individuals operating on the margins of subsistence. However, of late, there has been an emergence of more organized trafficking operations that obtain cannabis via border regions such as Binga on the Zambian border and Mitoko in the northeast, as well as along the eastern frontier with Mozambique in areas such as Ruangwe, Nyanga, Chipinge and Chiredzi. While some of the cannabis is distributed in large urban centres such as Harare and Bulawayo, a substantial amount is exported by road to Botswana and South Africa, often for onward shipment. Foreign nationals are considered by the government to be active in organizing the importation of small quantities of drugs such as cocaine, heroin, mandrax and other synthetic drugs for a very restricted urban demand and in using the country as a conduit for its neighboring states (Zimbabwe Report 2002).

- **Licit diversion** has not been ascertained, although there are reports that certain inhalants and certain over-the-counter stimulants may be abused by youth (SENDU 2000).

- **Price trends** have not been ascertained, but police state that the high cost of drugs, apart from cannabis, places a heavy limit on the growth of local drug markets.

- **Consumption of and demand for** harmful substances still center on alcohol and cannabis. It is cause for concern that abuse of these substances may be on the rise, with rural dwellers turning both to cannabis cultivation and to potentially toxic “home brews” for income generating purposes (UNODCCP/ROSA 2001). Anecdotal reports indicate an increase in the abuse of cannabis, cocaine and ecstasy. Zimbabwe is not yet a part of the SENDU network’s activities. Details of drug abuse patterns are hence not available from this important source.

## **4. Programme Strategy**

### **4.1 Introduction**

From a long term perspective, the need to overcome endemic criminal activity and drug trafficking and consumption in Southern Africa is much more a social developmental concern than purely a law enforcement matter. Economic growth, healthier and more highly educated populations, and the strengthening of the major societal institutions such as the civil service are likely to generate both the will and the capacity to act more decisively on these fronts. However, in the short and medium terms, much can be done by judiciously targeted interventions that countermand serious criminality, corruption and associated drug trafficking. There is also scope for effective prevention, treatment and rehabilitation activities in both the area of crime and drugs.

Many projects undertaken in recent years, usually with international donor assistance, have begun to make a positive difference in a variety of areas, ranging from border control and cross border law enforcement initiatives to the upgrading of police, anti-corruption and judicial capacities. These have been accomplished by significant training, research and technical assistance projects. Initiatives have also taken off, albeit more recently, in the prevention, treatment and rehabilitation fields.

Of course, both the challenges of this troubled region and the resources required to meet them are immense. Properly, international donors will continue to look for measurable impact from their interventions. What is required now in these areas of concern is a clear set of priorities with assistance efforts focused around them. Such efforts should draw on the lessons of the past and the outcomes of evidence-based analysis.

One lesson learned suggests that for all priority assistance areas, but especially for those of prevention, treatment and rehabilitation, civil society organizations have a vital role to play. For example, numerous initiatives throughout the region involve NGOs that actively uncover corruption and support rehabilitation and awareness campaigns, while others promote human rights within police forces (Amnesty International, 2002). Recent years also have witnessed the growth of grassroots community organizations performing invaluable work at the local level. Many such initiatives support HIV/AIDS awareness and treatment, and there are many very effective community-based programmes committed to reducing violence against women and children. Given the inefficiencies and uneven coverage of the region's judicial systems, many communities have even developed their own dispute resolution mechanisms, some of which involve restorative justice principles (Scharf 1999). Many of both the more established NGOs and the smaller, community-based groups are woefully under-funded and may well deserve more extensive international support to promote effective and long term changes to the entrenched social problems of crime and drugs in Southern Africa.

Obviously each country in Southern Africa has its own set of needs and priorities for international technical assistance. However, a regional analysis of these singular needs and priorities, as well as those identified by the regional organizations and informed by the views of the NGO community, should enable a more focused and integrated

programme of international technical assistance. It should allow for increased synergies, an identification of existing gaps and a lessening of waste and duplication. In other words, it should result in a regional strategic programme framework, complete concrete ideas for projects to implement that framework.

## **4.2 Priority Areas**

*(a) Development of, and assistance to, national crime prevention, criminal justice and anti-corruption strategies, including:*

*enhanced information gathering and information sharing on the crime, corruption and drug situations within and among each SADC member state so as to inform realistic and achievable national (and regional) crime, corruption and drug prevention and control strategies.*

Collection and dissemination of crime, corruption and drug statistics are woefully underdeveloped in most countries of the region. It may be that a separate project to develop basic data collection capacities is required to address this problem, both by way of a thorough review of existing sources, if necessary by officials in each country, and by assistance to police agencies, anti-corruption bodies, drug authorities, judicial and correctional systems. Furthermore, regular victimization surveys are much needed, though they cannot replace annual police, court and corrections statistics. Each source and form of information (government statistics and victimization surveys) has its own advantages and limitations, and both should be complementary in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the crime, corruption and drug situations as well as future trends.

Only on the basis of reasonably reliable statistics can realistic crime, corruption and drug prevention and control strategies be formulated, implemented and monitored. Regarding drug consumption statistics, and even drug trafficking statistics, considerable improvement in both the quantity and quality of data will occur as the SENDU network expands to those SADC states not yet fully incorporated into it. Throughout the region, much progress has been made on the development of national drug control strategies (sometimes known as "drug master plans"). However, the same is not true when it comes to national crime and corruption prevention and control strategies. Given the linkages between crime and drugs, and between both of these and corruption, the need to develop anti-crime and anti-corruption strategies, and to have them informed by reliable data, is evident.

Regarding corruption trends and the effects of anti-corruption programmes and initiatives, it is of fundamental importance to have standard data gathering and monitoring tools. Moreover, systematic information on the legislative, preventative and enforcement capacities requires benchmarking beyond the mere incidents of reported and processed corruption cases. After all, statistics are defined and limited by the legislative provisions, the conditions to report corruption (e.g., whistle-blowing protection) and the capacity to deal effectively both with the conditions generating corruption as well as with the known incidents of corruption. The SADC Protocol against Corruption as well as the

forthcoming United Nations Convention against Corruption – adoption is anticipated in December 2003 – will provide a solid framework for the systematic monitoring of trends in corruption and anti-corruption initiatives at the national as well as the regional levels.

**(b) *Enhanced legislative and judicial capacities, including:***

*harmonization of both national legislation and SADC protocols with the UN drug and crime conventions, in particular the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the forthcoming United Nations Convention against Corruption, and*

*increased criminal justice system capacities and improved judicial integrity and court management, including development of juvenile justice systems and diversion options, so as to prevent harsh long term social consequences, relieve prison overcrowding, and promote social reintegration.*

While most of the SADC member states have signed the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (Palermo Convention), it is clear that for most of them ratification is extremely difficult without assistance in redrafting key legislation regarding organized crime, money laundering, asset forfeiture, corruption, trafficking in persons, smuggling of migrants and trafficking in firearms. The forthcoming United Nations Convention against Corruption will require similar efforts in terms of international technical assistance. Ongoing efforts in this regard deserve a high priority. Similarly, current programmes (e.g., ROSA's training of investigative and judicial officers or its mentorship to dedicated anti-corruption units) can be used as a basis to reform judicial systems by injecting international expertise into the use of dedicated or specialized courts and in the promotion of judicial integrity. Rises in juvenile offenses as well as the likelihood of an increase in HIV/AIDS orphans require that special attention be paid to juvenile justice systems and diversion modalities, with particular emphasis on a blend of modern and traditional community-based options.

**(c) *Promotion of community-based prevention initiatives regarding crime and drugs, including:***

*increased awareness campaigns and workplace and school-based programmes.*

As noted at the Benoni SPF Conference, prevention initiatives tend to operate in something of a vacuum unless they are tied to broader social developmental issues and have a sense of community ownership. Awareness campaigns on their own cannot hope to achieve great success without being integrated into community-based initiatives and being accountable to local communities. Thus, for example, they need to be linked to workplace and school-based or similar local programmes. Moreover, they must take into account specific developmental issues in very diverse cultural contexts. Public education initiatives by their nature should involve a large civil society component and draw upon existing NGO resources. Successful prevention initiatives and programmes by definition minimize the need for enforcement and other remedial measures, usually in a more cost effective manner. Further, such initiatives reduce the human misery of, and violent crime

against, the most vulnerable members of society such as women and children. Moreover, prevention initiatives and programmes cannot be divorced from focused management, investigation and prosecution activities. For example, one of the best practice anti-corruption models consists of a three-pronged approach: prevention, public education, and investigation and prosecution. Such experience, albeit to a limited degree, is available in the region, and international assistance to strengthen prevention and public education is much needed.

***(d) Targeted support to operational law enforcement, including:***

*an assessment of basic equipment and training requirements to combat cross border crime and drug trafficking in order to deploy limited assistance resources most effectively,*

*enhanced capacity to interdict the flow of contraband and illicit drugs, to prevent and combat the smuggling of and trafficking in persons, to disrupt market opportunities for organized criminals, and to apprehend criminal syndicate leaders so as to reduce other forms of violent and serious crime, and*

*development and extension of targeted training programmes for law enforcement agencies.*

Many recent projects funded by the international donor community have shown the success that increased interdiction capacities at seaports, airports and border posts can achieve in disrupting the flow of illicit drugs and other contraband, especially stolen vehicles. Current projects of this nature deserve full support, and extension of them should be considered. One important requirement in this regard, as noted by the police agencies of the region, is enhanced information sharing, including computerized networks. Implicit in such initiatives is a vital training component. In his survey of police preferences regarding international assistance, Gastrow points out that training needs have received a high priority, as did the issues of border control and combating cross border and organized crime (Gastrow 2001). Particular emphasis should be given to the development of mechanisms and training in financial investigations, asset forfeiture and asset recovery of criminal proceeds. Each of these is critical to combating money laundering, organized crime and corruption. Delegates at Benoni noted that several SADC countries lack basic infrastructure and equipment in these areas. Equipment requirements in particular must undergo a judicious assessment so that limited resources may be directed to the most appropriate points.

***(e) An assessment and strengthening of treatment and rehabilitation capacities, prison management and broader reintegration programmes, including:***

*development of minimum standards and best practices.*

Data available through SENDU may be adequate to identify the most pressing treatment needs at a country level. The task is made easier in those countries where there is an

almost complete lack of such facilities. The establishment of treatment facilities that also can serve as sentinel sites is essential to generate more reliable substance abuse data than is available currently. Rehabilitation programmes are relatively under-funded and are made more challenging by the interconnected and immense problems of, *inter alia*, poverty, HIV/AIDS, drug use, and overcrowded correctional facilities. The discussion of this issue at the Benoni conference was noteworthy for its wide-ranging nature and the level of engagement by the participants, but it also highlighted the complexity of the problem, posing the question of where to start with this most difficult issue. Taking an inventory of the existing treatment and rehabilitation facilities and programmes throughout the region would be the first step in a recommended course of action; focusing on the countries in which such capacities are weakest.



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**REGIONAL STRATEGIC PROGRAMME FRAMEWORK  
CONFERENCE ON  
DRUG CONTROL AND CRIME PREVENTION  
BENONI, SOUTH AFRICA  
5-7 August 2002**

**AGENDA**

**Day 1 – Monday, 5 August**

- 11h00: Registration  
12h00: Lunch – Registration continues  
13h30: Session One  
Opening of the Conference
- Welcome & Conference Procedures
    - Mr. Rob Boone, Representative, UN ODCCP, Regional Office for Southern Africa
  - Regional Statements (10 minutes each)
    - Minister E. N. Tjiriange, Chair, SADC Legal Sector
    - Commissioner R. Gopalsingh, Chair, SARPCCO
    - Dr. Johnny Strijdom, SADC Drug Control
    - Mr. Gilton Chiwaula, Chair, SAFAC

**ANNEX 1**

**14h30 – 18h00:**

**Session Two**

**Chair: Minister E. N. Tjiriange, Chair, SADC  
Legal Sector**

- **SADC Member States: Summary Statements  
(maximum of 10 minutes each)**

**15h30 – 16h00:**

**Tea/ Coffee**

**16h00:**

**Session Two (continues)**

**18h00:**

**End of Day 1**

**DAY 2 – Tuesday, 06 August**

**08h00:**

**Tea/ Coffee**

**08h30 – 10h30:**

**Session Three**

**Chair: Mr. Gilton Chiwaula, Chair, SAFAC**

**Facilitator: Mr. Eric Pelser (ISS)**

**Theme 1: Strategy**

Discussion elements:

- **Drug Master Plans**
- **Criminal Justice Reform and Crime  
Prevention strategies**
- **Informational basis: data collection and  
analysis**
- **Programme evaluation**

**10h30 – 11h00:**

**Tea/ Coffee**

**11h00 – 12h30:**

**Session Four**

**Chair: Mr. Gilton Chiwaula, Chair, SAFAC**

**Facilitator: Mr. Eric Pelser (ISS)**

**Theme 2: Normative Frameworks**

Discussion elements:

- **Drafting legislation and regulations**
- **Ratification of regional protocols**
- **Ratification of international conventions**
- **Implementation of legislation –  
procedures, procedural laws, police  
investigative approaches; criminal  
justice-based treatment diversion; drug  
courts**

**12h00 – 13h30:**

**Lunch**

**ANNEX 1**

**13h30 – 15h30:**

**Session Five**

**Chair: Dr. Johnny Strijdom, SADC Drug Control**

**Facilitator: Mr. Eric Pelser (ISS)**

**Theme 3: Prevention**

Discussion elements:

- **Awareness campaigns (methods of measuring achievement)**
- **In Schools (life skills programmes; policies; guidelines)**
- **In Prisons**
- **Community involvement**
- **Linkages – Drugs and HIV/AIDS**
- **Linkages – Drugs and Crime**
- **Victim prevention**

**15h30 – 16h00:**

**Tea/ Coffee**

**16h00 – 18h00:**

**Session Six**

**Chair: Dr. Johnny Strijdom, SADC Drug Control**

**Facilitator: Mr. Eric Pelser (ISS)**

- **Development Partner (Donor) presentations (maximum 10 minutes each)**
- **Funding Questions / Discussion**

**18h00:**

**End of Day 2**

**Day 3 – Wednesday, 7 August**

**08h00:**

**Tea/ Coffee**

**08h30 – 10h30:**

**Session Seven**

**Chair: Commissioner R. Gopalsingh, Chair, SARPCCO**

**Facilitator: Mr. Eric Pelser (ISS)**

**Theme 4: Operational Law Enforcement**

Discussion elements:

- **Equipment (for capacity-building; for specialized purposes)**
- **Training (profiling; searches; concealment; risk assessment; drug ID; surveillance; informants; forensics; clan labs; UC ops; CDs)**
- **Border Control**
- **Inter-Agency Cooperation**
- **International Cooperation**

**ANNEX 1**

**10h30 – 11h00:**

Tea/ Coffee

**11h00 – 12h30:**

**Session Eight**

**Chair: Commissioner R Gopalsingh, Chair, SARPCCO**

**Facilitator: Mr. Eric Pelser (ISS)**

**Theme 5: Treatment & Rehabilitation**

Discussion elements:

- T/R centres – treatment protocols (inpatient; outpatient; outreach; methods of measuring achievement)
- Correctional facilities
- Social Reintegration/ Restorative Justice

**12h30 – 14h00:**

Lunch

**14h00 – 15h00:**

**Session Nine**

**Chair: Commissioner R. Gopalsingh, Chair, SARPCCO**

**Rapporteur: Mr. Rob Boone, Representative, ODCCP**

- Rapporteur presentation of a draft Report

**15h00 – 15h30:**

Tea/ Coffee

**15h30 – 17h00:**

**Closing Session**

**Chair: Commissioner R. Gopalsingh, Chair, SARPCCO**

**Rapporteur: Mr. Rob Boone, Representative, ODCCP**

- Review and adoption of a draft Report
- Closing Remarks, Mr. Rob Boone, Representative, ODCCP

**17h00:**

End of Conference



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**REGIONAL STRATEGIC PROGRAMME FRAMEWORK  
CONFERENCE ON  
DRUG CONTROL AND CRIME PREVENTION  
PRETORIA, SOUTH AFRICA  
5- 7 August 2002**

**DISCUSSION GUIDELINES**

The main objective of the Conference is to identify priority areas for action in drug control and crime prevention/ criminal justice in the SADC region, elicited from and shared among each of the SADC countries, regional organizations (SADC, SARPCCO and SAFAC) and international development partners (donors). This information will provide a basis to identify potential training and technical assistance projects in the region that meet the needs, interests and capabilities of the respective governments, donors, and regional and international organizations.

By identifying specific and concrete projects that are of mutual concern to the participants, the respective parties' interests can be accommodated with a minimum of duplication and divergence and a maximum of efficiency and economy. This, in turn, will help to translate the political and legal commitments of the participants into effective action and results on the ground.

The logical starting point of this initiative is to identify the priority needs of each of the SADC member states. Then, the participants need to be informed by the members of the donor community regarding their funding priorities and limitations in terms of financial or in-kind assistance. Finally, identifying the priorities, and capacities to deliver, of the regional and international organizations regarding specific training and technical assistance projects will demonstrate where the three sets of interest intersect.

## ANNEX 2

This entire process will be facilitated by the expertise and experience of NGOs and similar partners. Generally, creating a list of priority needs is not an easy task because there are many important and overlapping problems in need of urgent solution. However, tackling all such problems at same time is not possible. The emphasis of this Conference is on the actionable priorities for the next one to five years.

### Guidelines for SADC Member States

In the context of the specific questions that follow, each SADC member state is requested to consider a minimum of four and a maximum of ten priority drug and crime problems which are of sufficiently high national priority for which much national effort is already concentrated to meet them.

- 1) Please use one page to describe the major trends in drugs and crime in your country.
- 2) Please list a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 10 priority crime and drug problems facing your country.
- 3) For each of the priority problems listed in your answer on Question 2 above, please provide the following information regarding the nature and characteristics of the problem:
  - a) Magnitude or extent of the problem (i.e. statistical or any other quantitative data)
  - b) Location where the problem is significant (e.g. in the capital, urban, rural or border areas)
  - c) Characteristics of typical offenders (e.g. young urban males, organized crime groups)
  - d) Characteristics of typical victims (e.g. poor rural women, children)
  - e) Indication as to whether this problem has any significant cross-border or regional /international dimensions, and if so, what they are (e.g. illegal firearms being smuggled into your country from another [specified] country, drug trafficking by nationals from another [specified] country)
- 4) For each of the specific crime and drug problems listed in Question 2 above, please identify what responses are being undertaken by your country at a national level to deal with those problems.

For example: new legislation, upgrading border post, dedicated units (eg. anti-corruption unit or operational drug interdiction task force), awareness campaigns, treatment / rehabilitation centres.

- 5) Taking into account the countermeasures being undertaken in your country, (a) which, if any, of those countermeasures require strengthening?; and (b) what other countermeasures are necessary? (e.g. container profiling, border post control, sentencing guidelines).

## **ANNEX 2**

- 6) For any of the countermeasures identified in your responses to Question 5 (a) and 5 (b), which, if any, require international technical assistance and, if so, in what time frame (1-5 years)?
- 7) For any of the countermeasures identified in your response to Question 6 requiring international technical assistance, what, if any, assistance has your country received, and if so, by whom and when? (e.g. training on vessel container searching by UN ODCCP in 2000)

### **Guidelines for Regional Organizations**

- 1) What are your organization's delivery priorities in the areas of drug control and crime prevention/criminal justice reform for the next 1-5 years?
- 2) What particular kind of international training and technical assistance and/or funding or in-kind assistance does your organization require for the next 1-5 years to implement each delivery priority identified in Question 1?

### **Guidelines for Donors**

- 1) What, if any, funding (or in-kind) priorities does your government or agency have regarding drug control and crime prevention/criminal justice reform for the next 1-5 years in Southern Africa?
- 2) How flexible is your government or agency in providing funding or in-kind assistance (e.g. earmarked or un-earmarked funding)?
- 3) What is the fiscal year for your funding of such assistance projects?



## ANNEX 3

### 1. SADC Member States and Representatives

#### **Botswana**

Mr. N S Moleboge	Commissioner of Police
Mr. J Maikano	Crime Prevention Coordinator – Police Service
Mrs. A Mphethe	Principal State Counsel – Attorney General’s Chamber
Mr. I Joseph	Deputy Chairperson – National Drug Control Coordination Council

#### **Lesotho**

Mrs. M Bulane	Senior Superintendent – Lesotho Mounted Police
Mr. S Muganwa	Deputy Parliamentary Counsel – Attorney General’s Chambers

#### **Malawi**

Mr. M O Chikwamba	Commissioner of Police
Mrs. L H Chalera	Assistant Commissioner of Police
Mr. C Chiwanga	Senior Superintendent and Head of Dangerous Drugs Unit

#### **Mauritius**

Mrs. C Green Jokhoo	Senior State Counsel – Attorney General’s Office
Mr. P Valaydon	Assistant Commissioner of Police – Anti-Drug & Smuggling Unit

#### **Mozambique**

Mr. Jose Tomas Domingos	Director – National de Investigacio Criminal
Dr. P S Nhatitima	Legal Advisor – Ministry of Justice
Dr. I Viniche	Tecnic Do Gabinete Central Prevencao e Combate a Droga
Dr. A L Dimande	Director – Do Gabinete Central Prevencao e Combate a Droga

#### **Namibia**

Dr. K Shangula	Permanent Secretary – Ministry of Health & Social Services
	Chairman of NDCC

#### **Sevchelles**

Mr. B Vel	
Mr. T Morin	Director – Drug & Alcohol Council
	Assistant Commissioner of Police

#### **South Africa**

Mr. V Moonoo	
Mr. G Kruser	Assistant Police Commissioner – Head of Organized Crime
Mr. G Mason	Assistant Police Commissioner – Head of Visible Police
Mr. R Kitshoff	Senior Superintendent – Commander S.A. Narcotics Bureau
Mr. D Franks	DPSA – Manager: Anti-corruption and High Profile Cases
	Senior Researcher – National Prosecuting Authority

#### **Swaziland**

Mr. P Ngarua	Director – Public Prosecution
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## ANNEX 3

### 1. SADC Member States and Representatives (continued)

#### Tanzania

Mr. G Timbuka Commissioner – Interministerial Anti-Drug Commission

#### Zambia

Mr. D Mubanga Deputy Commissioner of Police

#### Zimbabwe

Mr. M Musemwa Chief Superintendent, Police

Mr. M Takuva Chief Law Officer – Attorney General’s Office

### 2. Regional Organizations

#### SARPCCO

Mr. R Gopalsingh Chairman of SARPCCO

Mr. F Msutu Head of Bureau – SARPCCO

Mr. B Hangsraj Police Inspector

#### SADC Legal Sector

Dr. E N Tjiriange Minister of Justice for Namibia

Chairman of SADC Legal Sector

#### SADC Drug Control Office

Dr. J Strijdom Senior Programme Officer (Drugs)

#### SAFAC

Mr. G B Chiwaula Director – Malawi Anti-Corruption Bureau

Chairman of SAFAC

### 3. Donors (Embassies)

#### United Kingdom

Mr. A Ferreira Projects Assistant – Political Section

#### Portugal

Ms. A F Rocha

#### Netherlands

Ms. C Weijers Head – Political Section



## ANNEX 3

### 5. Non-Governmental Organizations

#### ISS

Mr. P Gastrow	Director – Institute for Security Studies (Cape Town)
Ms. A Louw	Programme Head – Crime and Justice Programmes (ISS)
Mr. E Pelsler	Senior Researcher – Crime and Justice Programmes (ISS)

#### SAHRIT

Mr. N Kututwa	Deputy Director – Finance and Administration
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#### University of Cape Town

Ms. E Van Der Spuy	Professor – Institute of Criminology
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#### Bridges

Ms. S Fisher	Director
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#### SANCA Horizon

Ms. C Vos	Manager
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### 6. UNODCCP ROSA

Mr. R Boone	Representative
Dr. U Zvekic	Senior Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Expert
Mr. G Lewis	Programme Manager (Drugs)
Ms. L Lungameni	Regional Legal Advisor
Mr. M Warner-Smith	Regional Epidemiology Advisor
Mr. M Pitswane	Programme Assistant (Drugs)
Ms. T Gopane	Research and Programme Assistant
Ms. A Skelton	Project Coordinator – Child Justice Project
Mr. R Rippel	Intern

#### **ANNEX 4**

### **Regional Strategic Programme Framework Conference on Drug Control and Crime Prevention in Southern Africa Benoni, South Africa 5-7 August 2002**

## **CONFERENCE REPORT**

### **Background**

Hosted by the UN Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention (ODCCP) Regional Office for Southern Africa (ROSA), this three-day conference on drug control and crime prevention had the primary objective of identifying priority areas for technical assistance for the SADC (Southern African Development Community) member states, as well as Southern African regional organizations, and to see how those priorities matched the funding priorities of the international development partners (donors). The outcome was intended to be a matching of needs and resources in order to develop and sustain a coordinated programme of assistance delivery over the coming five years. Invitations were addressed to senior drug control and crime prevention officials in all fourteen SADC member state governments, as well as representatives from various regional organizations and international development partners. In attendance were government representatives from Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Regional organization representatives included those from SARPCCO (Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organization), SADC Legal Sector, SADC Drug Control Office, SAFAC (Southern African Forum Against Corruption) and Interpol. Development partners participating in the conference included the European Commission, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom (including the Department for International Development (DFID)), and the United States (including the International Law Enforcement Academy (ILEA) in Gaborone, Botswana)). NGO representation included the Institute for Security Studies (ISS), the University of Cape Town, Bridges, SANCA (South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse), and the SAHRIT (Human Rights Trust of Southern Africa). Experts from ROSA, the regional organizations and NGOs served as resource persons, and Mr. Eric Pelser of ISS was the conference facilitator. In all, there were over 60 delegates to the conference.

Following the conference, and in collaboration with all partners, the UN will refine a preliminary list of needs as discussed among the participants in connection with its effort to develop realistic and viable project proposals (at both the national and regional levels) which meet as fully as possible the expressed needs of the participating governments as well as the regional organizations and development partners, i.e., a regional strategic programme framework.

## ANNEX 4

### Monday, 5 August 2002

#### **Session One: Opening and Regional Organizations' Statements**

##### **Mr. Rob Boone, Chairman**

Mr. Rob Boone, UN ODCCP Representative for Southern Africa, opened the conference by welcoming the participants and highlighting the conference's background and objectives, as well as its organization and procedures.

Minister E.N. Tjiriange (Namibian Justice Minister), chair of the SADC Legal Sector, noted that crime is on the rise throughout the region and recent complaints of a growing crime problem have been attributed, *inter alia*, to unscrupulous law enforcement officials and porous borders. He stressed the need for member countries to examine existing laws and practices to ensure that criminals do not make use of existing laws to take advantage of the openness of society.

Commissioner R. Gopalsingh (Mauritian Police Commissioner), chair of SARPCCO, noted that the prime objective of SARPCCO was the promotion of joint strategies for the management of cross border crimes within the region. Specific reference was made to SARPCCO anti-drug initiatives, including efforts to secure four southern African ports from a growing drug trade, and forthcoming proposals to combat firearms trafficking. Note was taken of the recent agreement by SARPCCO to establish a regional anti-terrorism center. He also requested that ODCCP consider making this conference a regular event to assess stakeholder need and donor interest in the region. Also noted was the need for increased attention to be given to the links between drug use and HIV/AIDS principally, in the Southern Africa, through the incidence of risky sexual behavior under the influence of alcohol and other drugs.

Dr. Johnny Strijdom, SADC Senior Programme Officer (Drugs), stressed the need for capacity building and noted that the battle against drugs and crime had become increasingly important in view of deepening economic integration and the fostering of intra-regional trade among SADC member states.

Mr. Gilton Chiwaula (Director, Malawian Anti-Corruption Bureau), chair of SAFAC, described SAFAC's role as an active mechanism in the implementation of an anti-corruption protocol that had been adopted by SADC on 14 August 2001. Also noted was the regional body's work to build anti-corruption capacities in SADC member states.

#### **Session Two: SADC Member States' Opening Statements**

##### **Minister E.N. Tjiriange, Chairman**

Each of the twelve SADC member states in attendance delivered an opening statement. Major drug and crime problems affecting their countries were identified, and brief summaries of current actions being implemented to address these areas of concern were presented. Issues ranged from specific requests for technical assistance in implementing drug control and crime prevention plans, to discussions of programming awareness

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campaigns, to the calls for harmonization of criminal and drug control laws among member states. It was noted that the purpose of the subsequent sessions would be to expand upon and refine these identified areas for possible technical cooperation.

#### **Tuesday, 6 August 2002**

##### **Session Three: Theme One -- Strategy Mr. Gilton Chiwaula, Chairman**

The session began with an examination of the overall effectiveness of drug master plans and progressed into a discussion of the broader social contexts in which drug trafficking and abuse occur. Two points were stressed by member states at the outset: (1) drug master plans were needed, and (2) effective plans required political ownership. Several participants noted that drug master plans did not need to be “over-elaborate” and that the details should be left to the implementing agencies. Several participants affirmed that strategy should be a broad statement of intent to be pursued vigorously under the authority of the central administration of government. It was noted that the extent of development of crime prevention strategies was not as advanced as for drug control strategies. This was seen as a deficiency, and a need for a regional crime prevention strategy and a structure within SADC Secretariat dedicated to crime prevention and criminal justice was identified. There was some discussion about the need for drug master plans to be better integrated with larger initiatives to resolve “root causes” of drug demand, such as poverty. Some delegates argued that drug markets needed to be understood as economic markets and that any attempt to reduce drug use or trafficking must first promote alternative sources of income for offenders. However, other delegates noted that in many cases economic growth had in fact exacerbated drug problems. The meeting agreed that international experience required action on both supply control and demand reduction. There was a call for member states and regional organizations to spend time identifying the specific, major crime threats in their jurisdictions and then to seek ways in which these problems could be addressed, rather than simply assuming generally that drug abuse and trafficking were among the greatest crime threats to the region. For instance, corruption also was identified as a pressing problem in the region, and anti-corruption strategies were seen as part of both regional crime prevention strategies as well as NEPAD’s good governance pillar. International assistance to counter specifically identified problems then could be sought to help target the prioritized actions.

##### **Session Four: Theme Two -- Normative Frameworks Mr. Gilton Chiwaula, Chairman**

Session four was structured around a discussion of procedures and practices for drafting legislation and regulations, ratifying regional protocols and international conventions, and implementing legislation, including by using specialized courts (e.g., drug courts, commercial crime courts). While the goal of this session was to identify specific assistance needs with regard to formulating and implementing new legislation, much of the dialogue focused on a more general call for regional harmonization of existing laws.

#### **ANNEX 4**

There also was a call for more SARPCCO involvement in drafting legislation for countries in the region. It was observed that the SARPCCO police chiefs are the individuals who link the philosophical formulation of a new law with reality on the streets, and, as a result, it was argued that the organization should be invited to play a larger role in the drafting of new legislation throughout the region. It was noted that one of the primary drains on manpower in the region was the time and effort required to sift through the separate laws to identify areas of conflict and common provisions. The issue of harmonization dominated attempts to delve deeper into the practical aspects of legislation. For SADC member states, the lack of harmonized legislation was shown to be problematic most vividly in the extradition process. Communication breakdowns, lost paperwork, and differing punishment practices caused the extradition process to be inefficient within the region. Of great concern was whether states possess the technical means for ensuring that they can ratify and implement UN and regional anti-drug/crime conventions and protocols. Particular attention was drawn to a need for technical assistance regarding the ratification and implementation of the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (Palermo Convention) and the Protocols thereto. Additionally, a similar need was identified regarding the SADC Protocol against Corruption and the ongoing elaboration of the SADC protocols on extradition and mutual legal assistance in criminal matters.

#### **Session Five: Theme Three -- Prevention**

##### **Dr. Johnny Strijdom, Chairman**

This session focused on the topics of measuring the effectiveness of awareness campaigns in local communities, general outreach to schools, training programmes for prisons, and the linkages between both drugs and HIV/AIDS and drugs and crime. It was noted that international best practices in prevention had been elaborated in the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction adopted by the UN General Assembly Special Session in 1998. Some key elements included: (a) the need for an ability to measure progress, (b) the need to be inclusive in working with stakeholders, especially the youth, in designing programmes, and (c) the need to avoid “shock-horror” approaches in designing programmes. It was also noted that successful initiatives elsewhere had witnessed government involvement in setting the overall policy framework and providing funding, but not by getting involved in the on-the-ground delivery of the drug awareness programmes, except through interventions in schools. Delegates noted that while they were trying to create awareness programs for young people, they also were working to develop job training and employment programmes. It was noted that commercial cannabis production in the rural areas was motivated by poverty, lack of life-supporting skills (such as crafts, food processing industries, alternative technology and sustainable development). Some said that studies should be carried out in the drug-growing areas to find the most efficient means of addressing these needs. Mention was made of the fact that some approaches to prevention simply involve talking to youth in the classroom. It was noted that in one country a school study showed that nearly 30% of the students reported that their parents had some type of drug or substance abuse problem. If this were not exceptional, it would suggest that awareness campaigns must involve partnerships with multiple role players in the family and society generally. Students needed to be placed in contact with social service personnel, and such personnel must in

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turn be supported by local governments and development partners. It was stressed that awareness campaigns were at the heart of an “accountability cycle”: programmes must be accountable to donors, local government, and the community at large, and the community must in turn be accountable to itself.

#### **Session Six: Development Partner Presentations and Discussion**

**Dr. Johnny Strijdom, Chairman**

Session six of the conference was organized around presentations from members of the development partner community. Representatives from the European Commission France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, DFID, the United States, and the U.S.-funded International Law Enforcement Academy (ILEA) made presentations outlining current drug control and crime prevention projects in the region, development goals, and conditions of funding. On the whole, the donors indicated that funding was available for development of projects throughout the region. While proposals must comply with the laws and objectives of donor governments, most representatives indicated some flexibility in the type of projects that could be supported. Nearly all development partners stated that the funding process for new projects was lengthy. The period from acceptance of the proposal to actual funding was on average one year and could take as long as 18 months. All donor representatives affirmed that proposals were funded primarily in response to current circumstances in the region, as long as such proposals were in compliance with the guidelines set out by donor capitals. During the open exchanges, several states and regional organizations proposed initiatives for possible funding. Various SADC and donor delegates conferenced individually after the session.

#### **Wednesday, 7 August 2002**

#### **Session Seven: Theme Four -- Operational Law Enforcement**

**Commissioner R. Gopalsingh, Chairman**

During this session there were certain types of assistance that were deemed to be of general interest to all or most countries. On the matter of drug testing kits, ROSA indicated that in view of the impending plan by SADC, with EC funding, to purchase kits (precursor, drugs and biological) for all SADC countries, it would be useful for participants to consider their precise needs and provide them to SADC or ROSA or both. Discussion relating to the provision of helicopters stressed the need for such equipment to be maintained and for there to be trained pilots and support staff. A similar caution was registered regarding requests for sniffer dogs, as a number of factors must be addressed: e.g., the adaptability of the dogs to local climates, the need for dog handler training, the support infrastructure needed to make the dogs effective. In addition, one delegation indicated that an area for possible assistance would be the creation of standard operating procedures (SOPs) for use in the region with respect to controlled deliveries and mutual legal assistance. The question was put to the floor as to whether this was also a concern for other SADC states. It was suggested that the matter should be considered in the context of the upcoming September 2002 SARPCCO Annual General Meeting in

#### **ANNEX 4**

Zimbabwe. It was agreed that if a need were identified on a regional basis, then SARPCCO would formulate it, and possibly make a regional request for donor assistance to convene a workshop to carry the process forward. Also discussed was a need for assistance in the development of strategic and operational information systems for the SADC member states, individually and collectively. There was a brief discussion on the likely impact of HIV/AIDS on law enforcement agencies.

#### **Session Eight: Theme Five -- Treatment and Rehabilitation Commissioner R. Gopalsingh, Chairman**

The discussion began with a brief recapitulation of what member states were doing to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS. Delegates emphasized that concern about the spread of HIV/AIDS among the ranks of public officials and private citizens must not be separated from official police business, as it was an essential component of drug control and crime prevention. States requested assistance in trying to assess the extent of infection, as well as the development of awareness campaigns to educate the public and criminal justice personnel on safe practices. However, a distinction was made between awareness campaigns and the need to change behavior. Delegates noted that the most effective response to the HIV/AIDS problem had come in the form of awareness programmes that did not merely provide information, but also worked to spark change in attitude and resulting personal choices. Delegates noted that the epidemic was of such serious proportions that many government agencies had experienced backlogs and near collapse due to understaffing. It was also noted that, with specific reference to the region, the link between drug (and alcohol) abuse and HIV/AIDS had arisen significantly more out of risky sexual behavior under the influence rather than through injecting drug use -- the principal vector of transmission in other regions -- although in some instances injecting drug use was seen as rising in the region. Many delegates noted that in some countries there was an absence of drug treatment or rehabilitation facilities separate from mental health and correctional facilities. Delegations requested support in developing such separate institutions, as well as assistance in training police, correctional officers, and medical personnel to provide rehabilitative services. It was noted that training programmes for relevant personnel were most effective if delivered as part of a comprehensive package. It was also noted that certain treatment facilities in South Africa could provide assistance on a regional basis but that that might depend on their receiving financial support to deliver such assistance, as that was not part of their regular treatment programme. Several delegates recommended the establishment of central, national offices to monitor and register such treatment professionals to ensure that adequate services were offered on a measurable and consistent basis. Several states asked for donor support in the formulation of an assessment strategy to review their national justice systems. It was recognized that significant improvements could be implemented from traditional legal mechanisms, including reparations, compensation and restorative justice. There was a request that sponsorship be obtained to enable the Institute for Security Studies to carry out a study on the issue of restorative justice and to develop a draft regional protocol to be presented to the SADC Legal Sector to hold governments accountable to make adequate compensation to victims of violent crimes (e.g., aggravated robberies). Discussions of prison reform in particular highlighted the need to address overcrowding issues and to increase the capacity for skills training programmes. It was

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reiterated that the drug and HIV/AIDS problems were rampant within correctional facilities. The session was closed with a call to emphasize the rehabilitation approach in African correctional facilities.

#### **Session Nine: Closing**

**Mr. Rob Boone, Chairman**

The chair of the SADC Legal Sector, followed by several SADC member state delegates, used the closing session to express the belief that a powerful linkage exists between the need for drug control and crime control within the region. Criminal threats were seen to be underpinning trends in drug abuse and trafficking in the region -- i.e., the drug problem was described as one subset of a larger crime problem -- as well as having a strong dynamic of their own. Participants expressed strong concerns about the possibility of closing the crime component of the ODCCP Regional Office for Southern Africa, and several commented that if necessary the crime component should remain intact in preference to the drug component because of the preeminence of the regional crime problems. The SADC Legal Sector chair stated that he would raise this matter at the upcoming ministerial meeting of Legal Sector. A request was made to bring this concern also to the attention of ODCCP Headquarters in Vienna as well as the development partners with a hope that urgent measures would be undertaken to maintain and strengthen the integrity of the ODCCP regional office. The delegates were advised that no decision had yet been made and that their concerns would be reported to Vienna. On behalf of all the participants, the ODCCP Representative thanked DFID and the government of Sweden for their financial sponsorship of the conference. He then closed the conference by thanking all the participants, reiterating the need for ROSA to receive various additional inputs from the delegations in order to prepare the regional strategic programme framework, and reinforcing ODCCP's commitment to collaborate with them to turn their contributions into concrete proposals for training and technical assistance.



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<b>IDENTIFIED SADC COUNTRY ASSISTANCE NEEDS IN DRUGS AND CRIME</b> UNODCCP Strategic Programme Framework Conference, Benoni, South Africa (5-7 August 2002)					
COUNTRY	STRATEGY	NORMATIVE FRAMEWORKS	PREVENTION	OPERATIONAL LAW ENFORCEMENT	TREATMENT AND REHABILITATION
<b>Botswana</b>	§ assistance in the development of a national crime prevention strategy, linked to regional and intl strategy (O) § assistance in the development of a national drug control strategic plan (2002-2007) (W)	§ support in the review and enactment of relevant legislation (W)	§ awareness programmes at the community level (O) § integration of AOD abuse education programmes into other education programmes C including HIV prevention (O) § developing workplace counselling and prevention programmes (O) § interventions in prisons (O) § focussed research on vulnerable groups (O)	§ 5 contraband itemiser (W) § 6 firearms detectors (W) § 15 sniffer dogs / handler (W) § 5 computers and printers at border posts (W) § training (drugs / stolen vehicles / document ID / forged travel documents) (W) § Strengthening of intelligence gathering (O)	§ support in the establishment of appropriate rehabilitation and treatment facilities as part of already existing facilities
<b>Democratic Republic of the Congo</b>	§ building and equipment for the National Interministerial Drug Control Committee (W)	§ international legal expertise to align DRC laws with international convention requirements in drugs and crime (W)	§ drug awareness programme in schools (W)	§ establishment of a forensic laboratory (W) § support in the eradication of cannabis cultivation (W)	§ establishment of a treatment centre
<b>Lesotho</b>	§ support in the implementation of a 5-year policing plan (W)	§ training in drafting legislation (O) § assistance in reducing current backlog of court cases (W) § assistance in implementing corruption and money laundering bill (W) § assistance in implementing protocols (W)	§ support to NGOs for awareness programmes (O) § alternative development project to counteract cannabis cultivation (O) § support in the establishment of a juvenile unit within the police department to deal with the threat of criminality posed to youth (O) § training in life-skills for prisoners (O) § provision of vocational (job) skills (O) § establishment of community and youth recreation facilities (O)	§ database linked to South Africa regarding the movement of stolen vehicles (O) § IT training of personnel and provision of equipment (O) § additional training (detection drug ID) for Narcotics Unit (O) § interdiction equipment B general (O) § training for forensic personnel (O) § training in intelligence gathering (O) § helicopter, vehicles and detection equipment (O) § training in community policing (O) § capacity-building for probation officers (O)	§ upgrading of counselling capacity for rehabilitation centres, probation officers and police service to be able to deal with the prisoners, youth as well as the HIV/AIDS infected/affected personnel at workplaces (W) § vocational training § formal and informal education (literacy and numeracy) (W)

ANNEX 5

## IDENTIFIED SADC COUNTRY ASSISTANCE NEEDS IN DRUGS AND CRIME

UNODCCP Strategic Programme Framework Conference, Benoni, South Africa (5-7 August 2002)

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	NORMATIVE FRAMEWORKS	PREVENTION	OPERATIONAL LAW ENFORCEMENT	TREATMENT AND REHABILITATION
<b>Malawi</b>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>\$ support to drug DR NGOs (W)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>\$ 27 drug testing kits (O)</li> <li>\$ 3 computers (O)</li> <li>\$ container profiling (W)</li> <li>\$ border post strengthening (W)</li> <li>\$ drug law enforcement refresher training (W)</li> <li>\$ equipment for the Dangerous Drugs Unit (W)</li> <li>\$ strengthen intelligence-gathering capabilities (O)</li> <li>\$ 12 drug sniffer dogs and training in dog handlers (O)</li> <li>\$ 4 motor cycles for border patrols (O)</li> <li>\$ 3 motor vehicles over the next 5 years (W)</li> <li>\$ 1 patrol boat for Lake Malawi (O)</li> <li>\$ 14 mobile (ad hoc) road block apparatuses (O)</li> <li>\$ 12 firearm detectors (O)</li> <li>\$ equipment for a forensic laboratory (O)</li> <li>\$ fingerprinting equipment (O)</li> <li>\$ advance training for prosecutors relating to drugs and fraud (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>\$ creation and promotion of 3 counselling centres -- one in each of the three regions to include Zomba and St John of God. (W)</li> <li>\$ establishing a drug rehabilitation centre at the Psychiatric Unit in Lilongwe (W)</li> <li>\$ provision of vocational skills (jobs) training (W)</li> </ul>
<b>Mauritius</b>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>\$ Rapid Situation Assessment needed B has been requested of ODCCP but is not yet in place (O)</li> <li>\$ Assistance in determining whether existing programme should be rolled-out on a national basis (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>\$ project similar to the ODCCP seaports project at the international airport (O)</li> <li>\$ support / collaboration in intelligence gathering (W)</li> <li>\$ upgrading of technical investigation skills in banking and financial fraud (O)</li> <li>\$ giant scanner at both the airport and seaport (O)</li> <li>\$ surveillance equipment for anti-drug unit (O)</li> <li>\$ training programmes for law enforcement officers (O)</li> <li>\$ regional / intl exchange fellowships for law enforcement officers (O)</li> <li>\$ resource / training materials (O)</li> <li>\$ training for dog handlers (O)</li> </ul>	

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## IDENTIFIED SADC COUNTRY ASSISTANCE NEEDS IN DRUGS AND CRIME

UNODCCP Strategic Programme Framework Conference, Benoni, South Africa (5-7 August 2002)

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	NORMATIVE FRAMEWORKS	PREVENTION	OPERATIONAL LAW ENFORCEMENT	TREATMENT AND REHABILITATION
<b>Mozambique</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ Strategy for police and criminal justice reform (O)</li> <li>§ IT equipment (plus email, internet) for GCPCG at provincial level (W)</li> <li>§ Training of technical staff in English language (W)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ technical assistance in the ratification of the Palermo Convention (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ training technical staff in prevention approaches (W)</li> <li>§ support in mass media communication / anti-drug messages (radio and TV) (W)</li> <li>§ mass communication tools / instruments for grassroots distribution (W)</li> <li>§ support for provincial level GCPCG offices (O)</li> <li>§ establishment of counselling centres in each province (O)</li> <li>§ Post-graduate courses in the field of prevention (W)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ vehicles / motorcycles to all Anti Drug Brigades (W)</li> <li>§ Post-graduate courses in the field of counter-narcotics (W)</li> <li>§ training technical staff in drug control (W)</li> <li>§ training of personnel involved in financial investigations (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ support for the creation of information centres</li> <li>§ support for the creation of 3 treatment / counselling centres within the next five years (W)</li> </ul>
<b>Namibia</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ National survey to determine the magnitude of drug abuse (W)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ support in drafting legislation to meet the requirements of the Palermo Convention (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ Awareness raising C to benefit NGOs involved in awareness raising among the youth (W)</li> <li>§ awareness campaign equipment (overhead projectors)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ Training in profiling analysis, surveillance at airport, harbours as well as precursor investigations (W)</li> <li>§ training materials for Customs Officers in dealing with container profiling, info gathering and analysis (W)</li> <li>§ training for border post patrol and surveillance (W)</li> <li>§ establishment of intelligence network and its management (W)</li> <li>§ Equipment: surveillance systems, computers, vehicle tracking equipment, firearm detectors, testing kits (drugs and precursors), portable drug scanners, communication equipment (W)</li> <li>§ training for sniffer dogs and handlers (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ technical assistance and equipment of the newly opened (early 2002) rehabilitation centre and training for staff (O)</li> </ul>
<b>Seychelles</b>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ awareness campaign B need to better target messages (clearer/unambiguous) (O)</li> <li>§ peer-to-peer programmes in drugs re sex education (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ tracking equipment (O)</li> <li>§ surveillance (O)</li> <li>§ general equipment and training support for Anti Drug and Maritime Squad (ADAM) B drug testing, fast boats, sniffer dogs, vehicles) (W)</li> </ul>	

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## IDENTIFIED SADC COUNTRY ASSISTANCE NEEDS IN DRUGS AND CRIME

UNODCCP Strategic Programme Framework Conference, Benoni, South Africa (5-7 August 2002)

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	NORMATIVE FRAMEWORKS	PREVENTION	OPERATIONAL LAW ENFORCEMENT	TREATMENT AND REHABILITATION
<b>South Africa</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ development of a regional anti-corruption programme (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ assistance in the development of a policy to equitably make use of resources available in the fund comprised of assets forfeited to the state (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ support for social crime prevention project (O)</li> <li>§ development of Internet / video learning systems for crime prevention (Level I and the development of Level II) (O)</li> <li>§</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ training in the destruction of W.M.D. and disaster management (W)</li> <li>§ regional training for participants in cross-border operations (W)</li> <li>§ technical equipment to enhance investigations (trace weapons) (W)</li> <li>§ IT equipment (incl specialized s/w) (W)</li> <li>§ Reference material for the training in Serious and Violent Crimes (W)</li> <li>§ general material and training support for the Detective &amp; Crime Intelligence Academy (W)</li> <li>§ training of financial investigators and police officers in the court procedure for POCA (O)</li> <li>§ SOPs (in the region) for controlled deliveries (O)</li> <li>§ SOPs for mutual legal assistance within the region (formats, documentations) (O)</li> <li>§ surveillance equipment (fingerprint / touch ID) and relevant software (O)</li> <li>§ support in tracking stolen vehicles / strengthen the SAPS capacity to implement CAS network (O)</li> <li>§ training modules for precursor chemical control (diversion / clan labs) (O)</li> <li>§ communication campaigns to implement sector policing (O)</li> <li>§ assistance to police in enhancing of performance measurement tools (O)</li> </ul>	
<b>Swaziland</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ request to ISS to study the issue of restitutive justice in order to assist in development of a regional protocol (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ assistance in reducing delays in the court system (O)</li> <li>§ expertise in drafting and training in the implementation of ML legislation (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ technical assistance to assess demand for illicit drugs (O)</li> <li>§ community-based rural skills development in drug growing areas (craft training; food processing; cottage industry) (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ helicopter (O)</li> <li>§ sniffer dogs (O)</li> <li>§ 25 test kits for drugs and 25 for urine tests (O)</li> <li>§ portable cargo profiling X-ray machines (O)</li> </ul>	

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## IDENTIFIED SADC COUNTRY ASSISTANCE NEEDS IN DRUGS AND CRIME

UNODCCP Strategic Programme Framework Conference, Benoni, South Africa (5-7 August 2002)

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	NORMATIVE FRAMEWORKS	PREVENTION	OPERATIONAL LAW ENFORCEMENT	TREATMENT AND REHABILITATION
<b>Tanzania</b>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ technical assistance to assess demand for illicit drugs (O)</li> <li>§ awareness campaigns at national and local levels (W)</li> <li>§ developing workplace counselling and prevention (W)</li> <li>§ interventions in prisons</li> <li>§ research into vulnerable groups (HIV/AIDS) (W)</li> <li>§ integration of AOD abuse education programmes into other education programmes (O)</li> <li>§ support to drug demand reduction NGOs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ detection equipment / capability for containers (O)</li> <li>§ equipment for maritime interdiction (O)</li> <li>§ scanning equipment at borders (O)</li> <li>§ training in drug law enforcement for police, customs, immigration (O)</li> <li>§ training in drug issues for investigators, judges, magistrates (O)</li> <li>§ container profiling (O)</li> <li>§ strengthening of border posts (O)</li> <li>§ strengthening intelligence-gathering capacity (O)</li> <li>§ portable radio equipment (O)</li> <li>§ firearms detectors (O)</li> <li>§ sniffer dogs (O)</li> <li>§ computers (O)</li> <li>§ motor vehicles / patrol boats / helicopter (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ establishment of rehabilitation centres / strengthening existing counselling centres</li> <li>§ training for staff in the centres (O)</li> </ul>
<b>Zambia</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ support in the development of a 5-Year national strategic crime prevention plan (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ assistance in reducing delays and improving court processes (provision of prison vans) (W/O)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ training for law enforcement officers (especially detectives) and prosecutors in drug law enforcement (O)</li> <li>§ fingerprinting equipment (O)</li> <li>§ computer equipment (O)</li> <li>§ structures to house community policing officers (e.g. porta-homes) (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ only 2 psychiatric hospitals exist, no T&amp;R centres C</li> <li>international assistance requested to help establish such centres (O)</li> </ul>
<b>Zimbabwe</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ training in legal drafting (W)</li> <li>§ assistance in reducing delays in court processes (W)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ technical assistance or drug prevention (videos / vehicles) (O)</li> <li>§ communication equipment (e.g. VCRs, TVs, photocopiers)</li> <li>§ expansion of existing awareness programme</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ training in drug ID and interdiction techniques for police, customs, immigration and prosecutors (W)</li> <li>§ drug testing equipment (O)</li> <li>§ computers for quick ID of stolen vehicles (O)</li> <li>§ scanners at border stations (O)</li> <li>§ upgrade border controls (W)</li> <li>§ exchange of information on criminal syndicates (W)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ assistance in establishment of T&amp;R centre (equipment and training) (O)</li> </ul>

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## IDENTIFIED SADC COUNTRY ASSISTANCE NEEDS IN DRUGS AND CRIME

UNODCCP Strategic Programme Framework Conference, Benoni, South Africa (5-7 August 2002)

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	NORMATIVE FRAMEWORKS	PREVENTION	OPERATIONAL LAW ENFORCEMENT	TREATMENT AND REHABILITATION
<b>SADC</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ assistance in the development and implementation of regional protocols (corruption, extradition and mutual legal assistance) (O)</li> <li>§ regional assistance to be provided by regional experts (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ regional media forum on drug awareness (O)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ inventory of treatment facilities in the region needed</li> </ul>
<b>SAFAC</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ funding for structures to lobby for SAFAC to be officially adopted into the SADC structures for purpose of implementing the Protocol Against Corruption (O)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ assistance in the creation of a database on corruption (O)</li> <li>§ public education on corruption</li> <li>§ efforts to prevent corruption involving all stakeholders (O)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ funding for training and equipment to build the capacity of SAFAC (O)</li> <li>§ support to build the capacity of anti-corruption bureaux in the region (O)</li> <li>§ Improve sharing of information on corruption among anti-corruption institutions for trans-boundary investigations, detection and punishment (O)</li> </ul>	
<b>SARPCCO</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ Regional Crime Prevention Strategy (O)</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>§ support in intelligence gathering capability (O)</li> <li>§ possible workshop to explore need for SOPs within area of controlled deliveries and mutual legal assistance (O)</li> </ul>	

**KEY: (W) = written submission; (O) = oral submission.**

## ANNEX 6

### SADC Regional Development Summary Statistics

<b>SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN REGION</b>											
<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Angola</b>	<b>Botswana</b>	<b>DR Congo</b>	<b>Lesotho</b>	<b>Malawi</b>	<b>Mozambique</b>	<b>Namibia</b>	<b>South Africa</b>	<b>Swaziland</b>	<b>Zambia</b>	<b>Zimbabwe</b>
Human Development Index: Rank of 175 countries (value)(2001) <sup>a</sup>	164 (0.377)	125 (0.614)	167 (0.363)	137 (0.510)	162 (0.387)	170 (0.356)	124 (0.627)	111 (0.684)	133 (0.547)	163 (0.386)	145 (0.496)
<b>Land</b>											
Surface area (sq. km)(2000) <sup>b</sup>	1,247,000	582,000	2,345,000	30,000	118,000	802,000	824,000	1,221,000	17,000	753,000	391,000
<b>Population</b>											
Population (million)(2001) <sup>a</sup>	12.8	1.7	49.8	1.8	11.6	18.2	1.9	44.4 <sup>d</sup>	1.1	10.6	12.8
Population growth, (%) (2001-2015) <sup>a</sup>	2.9	-0.2	2.8	-0.3	1.9	1.5	0.9	0.2 <sup>e</sup>	0.1	1.3	0.2
Life-expectancy at birth (2001) <sup>a</sup>	40.2	44.7	40.6	38.6	38.5	39.2	47.4	50.9	38.2	33.4	35.4
Population aged 0-14 (%) (2001) <sup>a</sup>	47.4	40.0	46.8	40.2	45.9	44.0	43.2	33.6	44.0	46.4	43.5
Population aged 15-64 (%) (2001) <sup>b</sup>	49.7	55.7	49.8	56.1	52.0	53.5	52.5	63.1	55.0	52.7	52.2
Population aged 65+ (%) (2001) <sup>a</sup>	2.7	2.6	2.6	4.6	3.5	3.2	3.7	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.4
Share of urban population, (%) (2001) <sup>a</sup>	34.8	49.4	30.3 <sup>f</sup>	28.7	15.1	33.2	31.4	57.6	26.7	39.8	36.0
<b>Economic Development</b>											
GDP Growth, (%) (2000-2001) <sup>b</sup>	3.2	6.3	-4.5	4.0	-1.5	13.9	2.7	2.2	1.6	4.9	-8.4
GDP per Capita, PPP \$ (2001) <sup>a</sup>	2,040	7,820	680	2,420	570	1,140	7,120	11,290	4,330	780	2,280
GNI per Capita US \$ (2001) <sup>b</sup>	500	3,100	80	530	160	210	1,960	2,820	1,300	320	480
PPP GNI per Capita US \$ (2001) <sup>b</sup>	1,690	7,410	630	2,980	560	1,050	7,410	10,910	4,430	750	2,220
Trade: Imports as share of GDP (%) (2001) <sup>b</sup>	62	35	17	86	38	44	66	25	81	37	21
Trade: Exports as share of GDP (%) (2001) <sup>b</sup>	74	51	18	34	26	22	54	28	69	27	22
Agriculture value share of GDP (%) (2001) <sup>b</sup>	8	2	56	16	34	22	11	3	17	22	18

## ANNEX 6

Indicator	Angola	Botswana	DR Congo	Lesotho	Malawi	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
<b>Poverty and Unemployment</b>											
Population living on less than US\$1/day (%) (1990-2001) <sup>a</sup>	..	23.5	..	43.1	41.7	37.9	34.9	<2	..	63.7	36.0
Income distribution (Gini Index) <sup>b</sup>	..	63.0 (1993)	..	56.0 (1995)	50.3 (1997)	39.6 (96-97)	70.7 (1993)	59.3 (1995)	60.9 (1994)	52.6 (1998)	56.8 (1995)
<b>Health</b>											
Public expenditure on health (% of GDP) (2000) <sup>a</sup>	2.0	3.7	0.3	5.2	3.6	2.8	4.2	3.7	2.7	3.5	3.7
Doctors per 100,000 people (1990-2002) <sup>a</sup>	5	26	7	7	..	6	29	443	15	7	14
Number of adults and children living with HIV/AIDS (2001) <sup>c</sup>	350,000	330,000	1,300,000	360,000	850,000	1,100,000	230,000	5,000,000	170,000	1,200,000	2,300,000
Deaths due to AIDS per annum (2001) <sup>c</sup>	24,000	26,000	120,000	25,000	80,000	60,000	13,000	360,000	12,000	120,000	200,000
HIV prevalence rates: Women attending urban antenatal clinics (%) (med) <sup>f</sup>	3.4 (1999)	44.9 (2001)	4.1 (1999)	42.2 (2000)	20.1 (2001)	14.4 (2000)	29.6 (2000)	24.3 (2000)	32.3 (2000)	30.7 (2001)	31.1 (2000)
HIV prevalence rates: Adults (aged 15-49) (%) (2001) <sup>c</sup>	5.5	38.8	4.9	31.0	15.0	13.0	22.5	20.1	33.4	21.5	33.7
HIV prevalence rates: Young Females (aged 15-24, High) (%) (2001) <sup>f</sup>	7.33	44.98	7.55	51.40	17.87	18.78	29.15	30.76	47.38	25.18	39.61
HIV prevalence rates: Young Males (aged 15-24, High) (%) (2001) <sup>c</sup>	2.85	19.29	3.74	23.49	7.62	7.84	13.32	12.79	18.27	9.68	14.85
HIV prevalence rates: Female Sex Workers, main urban areas (%) (2001) <sup>f</sup>	19.4 (1999)	..	29.0 (1997)	..	70.0 (1994)	..	..	50.3 (2000)	..	68.7 (1998)	86.0 (1995)

## ANNEX 6

Indicator	Angola	Botswana	DR Congo	Lesotho	Malawi	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
<b>Education and Communication</b>											
Adult literacy rate (% age 15 and above) (2001) <sup>a</sup>	42 <sup>s</sup>	78.1	62.7	83.9	61.0	45.2	82.7	85.9	80.3	79.0	89.3
Combined enrollment ratio (primary, secondary, tertiary)(2000-2001) <sup>a</sup>	29	80	27	63	72	37	74	78	77	45	59
Telephone mainlines per 1,000 people (2001) <sup>a</sup>	6	85	..	10	5	5	64	111	31	8	22
Mobile phones per 1,000 people (2001) <sup>a</sup>	6	188	3	26	5	9	55	242	54	11	29
Radios per 1,000 people (2001) <sup>b</sup>	74	150	386	53	499	44	141	338	162	169	362
Television sets per 1,000 people (2001) <sup>b</sup>	19	30	2 <sup>h</sup>	16	4	5	38	152	128	113	30 <sup>h</sup>
Internet hosts per 1,000 people (2000) <sup>b</sup>	..	1.5	..	..	..	..	1.9	4.4	1.0	0.1	0.3

Source: a) UNDP Human Development Report 2003; b) World Bank World Development Indicators 2003; c) UNAIDS Report on the Global HIV/AIDS Epidemic 2002; d) Statistics South Africa Census 2001; e) Figure for 2000-2015 from UNDP Human Development Report 2002; f) Figure for 2000 from UNDP Human Development Report 2002; g) Figure for 2000 from UNDP Human Development Report 2002; h) Figure for 2000 from World Bank World Development Indicators 2002



## ANNEX 7

UN DRUGS AND CRIME CONVENTIONS: STATUS OF RATIFICATION IN THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN REGION											
Treaty / Convention	Country										
	Angola	Botswana	DR Congo	Lesotho	Malawi	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
<b>Drugs</b>											
Single Convention on Psychotropic Drugs (1961)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Convention on Psychotropic Substances (1971)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
UN Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances (1988)	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<b>Crime</b>											
UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (To come into force on 29-October-2003)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
- Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (not yet in force)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
- Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air (not yet in force)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
- Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition (not yet in force)	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No



ANNEX 8

**SENDU STATISTICS ON DRUG TREATMENT, POLICE ARRESTS AND SEIZURES**

Source: SENDU Report for July – December 2002, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Research Group, MRC, South Africa, June 2003.

**Table 1: Treatment demand data (%): Primary drug of abuse**

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Country	Period	Alcohol	Cannabis	Methaqualone (Mtg)	Cocaine	Heroin	Ecstasy	Prescription/ OTC	Other	Patients	Treatment Centres
<b>Botswana</b>	Jan-Jun '02	70.3	23.8	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.9	188	9
	Jul-Dec '02	69.6	29.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	72	5
<b>Lesotho</b>	Jul-Dec '01	54.3	45.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	45	6
	Jan-Jun '02	85.0	15.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	20	5
<b>Malawi</b>	Jul-Dec '01	32.7	67.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	445	3
<b>Mozamb.</b>	Oct-Dec '01	63.7	20.5	0.0	0.9	15.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	234	7
<b>Namibia</b>	Jan-Jun '02	74.0	8.0	12.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50	2
	Jul-Dec '02	78.0	8.7	8.7	2.2	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	46	3
<b>South Africa</b>	Jul-Dec '01	52.2	21.4	10.1	5.1	5.1	1.1	3.1	1.6	5,667	48
	Jan-Jun '02	54.0	19.3	10.3	5.7	5.3	1.0	3.1	1.2	6,108	50
	Jul-Dec '02	54.1	21.0	9.5	5.3	4.6	1.1	2.7	1.7	5,830	50

\* includes psychotropic medicines

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**Table 2: Police arrests for drug dealing (row % add up to 100)**

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Country	Period	Cannabis or hashish	Methaqualone (Mtq.)	Cocaine or crack	Ecstasy	Heroin	LSD	N
<b>Botswana*</b>	Jan-Jun '02	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	226
	Jul-Dec '02	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	183
<b>Lesotho</b>	Jul-Dec '01	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	108
	Jan-Jun '02	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	87
	Jul-Dec '02	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	93
<b>Malawi</b>	Jul-Dec '02	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	431
<b>Mozambique</b>	Oct-Dec '02	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
<b>Namibia*</b>	Jan-Jun '02	84.4	14.1	1.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	397
	Jul-Dec '02	84.9	9.3	3.5	2.2	0.0	0.0	226
<b>South Africa</b>	Jul-Dec '01	-	65.7	16.2	13.8	3.0	1.3	4,756
	Jan-Jun '02	-	60.5	19.1	15.2	4.8	0.4	4,818
	Jul-Dec '02	-	61.3	16.5	16.8	4.6	0.8	5,131

\*includes possession.

South African data refers to national cases seen by the Forensic Science Laboratory rather than arrests *per se*.

Laboratories do not routinely analyze all cases involving seizures of cannabis.

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**Table 3: Police seizures**

Country	Period	Cannabis (kg)	Methaqualone (tablets)*	Cocaine (gm)	Amphetamine (tablets)	Heroin (gm)	LSD (units)
<b>Botswana</b>	Jan-Jun '02	147,067.3	0	0	0	0	0
	Jul-Dec '02	1,471.3	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Lesotho</b>	Jul-Dec '01	19,671.0	0	0	10,045	0	0
	Jan-Jun '02	4,153.7	0	0	0	0	0
	Jul-Dec '02	4,416.7	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Malawi</b>	Jul-Dec '02	4,659.2	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Mozambique</b>	Oct-Dec '02	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
<b>Namibia</b>	Jan-Jun '02	774.6	9179	78 rocks	10	0	0
	Jul-Dec '02	147.2	679	189 rocks	36	0	0
<b>South Africa</b>	Jul-Dec '01	N/A	12,872,000	191,143	121,562	1,856	6,632
	Jan-Jun '02	N/A	2,668,595	375,535	150,324	6,273	322
	Jul-Dec '02	N/A	750,099	67,148	275,362	77,041	1,303

\*or equivalent (calculated from powder seized)

