

SOUTH AFRICA

COUNTRY PROFILE

ON DRUGS AND CRIME

Part I: Drugs

October 1999

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1. BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE DRUG SITUATION

South Africa's geographical location and its international trade links with countries in Asia, Latin America, Western Europe and North America have made it an attractive drug transit country. Drug trafficking and abuse have escalated in recent years, particularly in the years prior to and shortly after the installation of a democratically elected government in 1994 which ended the country's socio-economic and political isolation. The relaxation of strict control of land, air and sea borders along with the enhancement of international trade and commerce have triggered the increase in drug trafficking. South Africa has an excellent infrastructure of roads and rail, telecommunication, airports, and seaports facilities. All of these are also used to transit illicit drugs, particularly cocaine, heroin and methaqualone.

Since the early 1990s, South Africa has seen a slow but steady increase in the availability and use of illicit drugs such as cannabis, cocaine, heroin, LSD, amphetamines, and Ecstasy (Atkins 1997, Parry, Bhana & Bayley, 1998). Various factors have contributed to the increase in abuse, including an increase in legal and illegal migration, reductions in internal and border controls following the collapse of the apartheid regime, social and political liberation which also facilitated the arrival of new youths movements such as the 'rave culture'. In addition, more effective policing of traditional smuggling routes prompted the drug cartels in Asia and South America to look for other shipping routes. In the process, a proportion of the drugs trafficked ended up on the local market. Other factors include high unemployment, weakened family and social structures - a result of many years of apartheid policies - and the establishment of clandestine laboratories manufacturing drugs such as methaqualone. Moreover, the relative affluence of South Africa in the region makes it an attractive 'emerging market' in its own right (Kibble, 1998; Parry, 1997; Simon 1998).

Moreover, there has been a "tradition" of drug consumption in the country. The use of **cannabis**, known as *dagga* in South Africa, dates back to the 15th century. Arab as well as Persian and Indian merchants were *inter alia* responsible for its spread along the eastern coast of the African continent (13th century). As of the 15th century Suaheli merchants in eastern Africa and some bantu tribes in central and southern Africa co-operated in brought the plant to southern Africa where it was later also cultivated. Cannabis gained in popularity in the 18th and 19th century (OGD, 1996). In 1928 authorities in South Africa introduced the first drug legislation concerning cannabis (Wright, 1991). The use of cannabis was for a long time largely limited to the African population. Only over the last few decades, cannabis also gained popularity among the coloured and the white population.

After world war II **methaqualone**, a depressant, also known as *mandrax*, emerged as another important psychoactive substance. Following the identification of its abuse potential, methaqualone was removed from the legal market and classified as a prohibited dependence-producing drug in part I of the schedule of the South African narcotics law (Act 41 of 1971). However, since official withdrawal from the local market, methaqualone tablets were diverted from international distribution channels - mostly originating in India -, and were later also illicitly manufactured in neighbouring African countries as well as in South Africa itself. Abuse was originally strong among South Africa's ethnically Indian population before it spread to other ethnic groups, including the country's African population.

Mandrax is today the second most widely abused substance in South Africa after cannabis. It started to become a general problem for South African society as of the late 1980s. Allegations have been made that among the groups fighting the apartheid regime¹ some may have been involved in the trafficking of mandrax in the late 1980s and early 1990s to finance weapon purchases (OGD 1996) Some other individuals/groups - apparently with support from the apartheid regime - started manufacturing various synthetic drugs (including methaqualone and ecstasy) for potential use in anti-apartheid demonstrations and, more generally, to "appease" the population that was fighting for its rights. While the first allegation has remained at a level of general accusations, the second - manufacture of synthetic drugs on behalf of the apartheid regime - has led to a court case. There have been some indications from the Truth and Reconciliation hearings that a "cozy relationship" may have existed between the apartheid government and certain criminal groups, and that the apartheid government may have acquiesced in, if not encouraged, the trafficking in narcotics to some ethnic groups as a means of social and political control (INCSR 1999).

¹ Allegations concerned some groups linked to the Pan African Congress who allegedly imported mandrax via Mozambique into South Africa (OGD 1996).

In addition, **LSD**, mostly imported from Europe, has emerged as a drug of choice among some pockets of mostly young and white South Africans over the last few decades. By contrast, until a decade ago, abuse of **cocaine and heroin** was hardly known as a major problem in South Africa. The same applied to **amphetamines**, and **ecstasy**. This started to change, however, in the 1980s and became more pronounced in the 1990s. While ecstasy and amphetamines are mainly imported from Europe - to satisfy domestic demand in the club scene (mostly frequented by young whites), South Africa has also become part of major internationally operating drug networks (often organized by Nigerians) linking the drug producing countries of Latin America (cocaine) and Asia (heroin) with the "traditional" cocaine and heroin markets of Western Europe and North America (Interpol, 1997). As South Africa has an excellent infrastructure in terms of roads, rail, telecommunication, airports, and seaports, etc., and faces resource shortages in the area of drug control, criminal groups exploit this situation.

Like other countries located on major drug trafficking routes, South Africa started to fall victim to a drug epidemic of **crack-cocaine** (less so of heroin). The relative affluence of South Africa in the region makes it an attractive 'emerging market' in its own right. (Kibble, 1998; Parry, 1997; Simon, 1998). The epidemic may not be - as yet - dramatic by North American standards, but it has the potential to endanger the post apartheid transformation process of society and can disrupt the fragile set-up of South African society which is already characterized by high rates of crime, violence and a spread of fire-arms. There are no signs that the current epidemic is coming to an end soon. In some parts of South Africa, crack-cocaine appears to have taken the second place after cannabis. More than in other countries, drug trafficking activities of organized crime groups are linked to a multitude of other criminal acts, ranging from car thefts and robberies to smuggling in arms, in stolen cars, in rhino horn, ivory, gems, etc.

2. SUMMARY STATISTICS

Cultivation (hectares in 1997)

• Opium:	0
• Coca leaf:	0
• Cannabis:	1,300*

Production (in tonnes in 1997)

• Opium:	0
• Coca leaf:	0
• Cannabis:	2,756*

* high margin of error.

Potential manufacture (in kg)

• Heroin	none
• Cocaine	none; except for crack-cocaine out of cocaine
• Methaqualone:	significant

Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Seizures – comparison 1992-1994 averages and 1998

	Average 1992-1994 (kg)	1998 (kg)	Change
Cocaine (base and salts)	53.2	635.9	1,095%
Heroin	1.6*	5.4	236%
Methaqualone (reported in weight terms)	30.0**	160.0	433%
Methaqualone (incl. units)***	833.6	486.8	-42%
Cannabis resin	14.5	20.6	42%
Cannabis herb	456,710.0	197,116.3	-57%
Cannabis plant	4,220,538.3	784,201.0	-81%
* 1992-93			
** 1995			
*** transformed at 250 mg per unit.			
Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.			

Seizures – international comparison – 1996-1998 averages

	South Africa: seizures in absolute figures (1996-98 averages) kg	as a percentage of	
		Africa	World
Cannabis plant	365,739.2	38.8%	14.1%
Cannabis herb	190,799.9	51.1%	6.6%
Methaqualone(incl. units)	362.4	8.1%	4.3%
Cocaine:	298.0	10.1%	0.1%
Heroin:	2.6	0.7%	0.0%
Cannabis resin	7.9	0.0%	0.0%
Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.			
Memo:	million in 1997	Africa	World
Population	38.8	5.1%	0.7%
Land area	1,219,080 km ²	4.1%	0.8%
Sources: UNDP, <i>Human Development Report 1999</i> , Weltalmanach '99.			

3. GENERAL SETTING

3.1. Major characteristics of the country: socio-economic issues relevant to the drug / crime problem

South Africa combines in many respects the characteristics of a highly industrialized country with those of a developing country in Sub-Saharan Africa. The following description will highlight some of these characteristics which should help to understand the special vulnerability of the country to drug abuse, drug trafficking and crime in general.

Geography

South Africa's territory extends to 1,219,080 km². It is thus about one eighth of the size of the USA (9,809,155 km²), more than twice as large as France (543,965 km²), three times bigger than Germany (357,021 km²), some four times larger than Italy (301,302 km²) and five times larger than the UK (242,000 km²). (Weltalmanach '99).

While the political, economic and geographical isolation from the main drug production and consumption areas prevented South Africa from emerging as a major drug transit country over the last few decades, this changed in the 1990s with the re-integration of South-Africa into the international community. A modern communication and transport infrastructure, growing commercial links as well as porous borders, including with countries which were fighting civil wars (e.g. Mozambique) contributed to the increased attractiveness of South Africa for drug trafficking purposes in the 1990s.

Population

According to UNDP data, South Africa's population amounted to 38.8 million in 1997, respectively to 40.6 million according to revised 1996 census figures (released in October 1998). South Africa is thus the fourth most populated country in Africa after Nigeria (104 million), Egypt (65 million) and Ethiopia (58 million). The size of South Africa's population is comparable to that of Spain (39.6 million). It is half as large as that of Germany (82.1 million) and about a third smaller than that of the UK (58.5 million), France (58.5 million) or Italy (57.4 million). (UNDP, 1999).

The 1996 survey showed that 76.7% of the population were black Africans (Zulu, Xhosa, North- and South Sotho, Tswana, Tsonga, Swasi, Ndebele, Venda, etc.), 10.9% were whites (mostly of Dutch and British descent), 8.9% were coloured, and most of the rest (2.6%) were Asians (largely from the Indian sub-continent). Official languages are: Afrikaans, English, IsiNdebele, Northern Sotho (Sepedi), Sesotho, Swazi, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu (EIU 1999-00).

As drug consumption patterns in South Africa follow ethnic lines, a further break-down may be useful. Black South-Africans are the majority in the country except for Western Cape (region around Cape-Town: 21% of the population) and Northern Cape (33%). There is a concentration of white South-Africans in Gauteng (region around Johannesburg: 23% of population) and in the Western Cape (21% of total population). Coloured South Africans are concentrated in Western Cape (54% of the population) and in Northern Cape (52% of the population). Asians are concentrated in KwaZulu-Natal (9%).

Close to 50% of the population live in urban conglomerations, compared to 32% in Sub-Saharan Africa and 38% in developing countries. This share is forecast to grow to 56% by 2015. (UNDP, 1999). Urbanization is usually positively correlated with drug abuse.

Population growth over the 1975-97 period was 2.1% p.a, significantly more than the growth rate among industrialized countries (0.6% p.a.) and about the same as the developing countries' average (2.0% p.a.). (UNDP, 1999) The strong population growth led to an overall very young population which tends to be vulnerable to drug abuse.

But population growth rates are showing downwards. Population growth over the 1990-96 period fell to 1.7% p.a., and a further downward trend is to be expected, largely a result of the wide spread of HIV/AIDS in the country. One in five babies born in South Africa is already HIV positive (UNDCP-FO 4/99). The average age of a South African born today is set to fall from currently 65 years to 56 years. (UNDCP-FO 11/98). UNDP projects population growth to fall to 0.6% over the 1997-2015 period. This is below the projection for developing countries in general (1.4%) (UNDP 1999).

Religion

Religion plays an important role in the life of ordinary South Africans - a fact which should be taken into account in launching drug abuse prevention campaigns. Churches could be a potential partner in such campaigns. 78% of the people are Christians (1990), mostly Protestants. Most South Africans belong to one of the following Christian churches (in order of importance): various Independent African churches, the Dutch-reformed church, the Catholic church, Methodists, Anglicans, Lutherans, Presbyterians, Congregational Churches, Baptists etc.

1.2% were Muslims (1990), but this share may have increased in recent years. Some radical Muslim groups in Cape-Town have already taken up the fight against drug trafficking and abuse, however, in a very violent form. The activities of these groups have, on several occasions, clearly exceeded legal limits (including murder), and proved thus to be more a reason for public concern than a symbol of civil society's support for a drug-free community.

Gross domestic product

South Africa's GNP amounted to \$130.2 bn in 1997. It was thus equivalent to 44% of the total Sub-Saharan GNP in that year which underlines the economic importance of that country in Africa. GNP per capita was \$3,210 in 1997, by far the highest such figure in Africa, four times more than in Zimbabwe (\$720) and nine times more than in Kenya (\$340).

Though higher than in the countries of Eastern Europe (\$2,249 per capita, including C.I.S), GNP per capita figures are still low if compared to the industrialized countries. GNP per capita figures in Western Europe (Germany: \$28,280; France:\$26,300; UK \$20,870; Italy \$20,170) and North America (USA \$29,080; Canada: \$19,640) are six to nine times larger than in South Africa.²

The total GDP of South-Africa of \$139.1 bn (1997) is smaller than that of a country such as Austria (\$206 bn) (UNDP, 1999). All of this explains that South Africa - though emerging as a drug market - is, for the time being, still more of a drug transit country.

Income distribution

South Africa - more than other countries - is characterized by a strong inequality in income distribution, which goes along racial lines. The 20% richest of the population earn 19 times more than the 20% poorest. For comparison, in the United States the rich - as defined above - earn 9 times more than the poor; in Germany, Italy, France or Spain they earn 6 to 7 times more and in more egalitarian societies, such as Sweden, the Netherlands or Belgium, the multiplier is at less than 5. Even if compared to developing countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the existing income gaps in South Africa are large. The multiplier is 15 in Zimbabwe, 13 in Zambia and Mauritania, 9 in Nigeria, and 6 to 7 in Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria, Tanzania and Uganda.

Per capita income of the 20% poorest of the population in South Africa, calculated at purchasing power parity, was \$516. This is still twice as high as in Zambia (\$216) or in Kenya (\$238) and two thirds higher than in Nigeria (\$308). But data also show that South Africa's poor earn less than a tenth of the poor in the USA (\$5,800 per capita) (UNDP, 1999).

All of this has a number of implications: (i) higher levels of income in South Africa for the underprivileged than in other African countries make South Africa attractive as a location for immigration which - as experience has shown - tends to create a favorable climate for drug trafficking activities; (ii) at the same time, strong income inequalities raise the readiness of underprivileged groups to participate in illegal activities, including drug trafficking; (iii) the rather high levels of income of the "rich" make the country also interesting for drug imports from abroad.

²If GDP per capita figures are calculated on a PPP (purchasing power parity) basis, South Africa's figure amounted to \$7,190 in 1997. GDP per capita in western Europe and North America was then three to four times larger than in South Africa. However, for globally operating drug cartels, theoretical PPP calculations are not really of importance.

Official development assistance

Following the abolishment of the apartheid regime, South Africa became a recipient of development assistance (ODA). In 1997 ODA amounted to some \$500 million, equivalent to 0.4% of GNP. This was half the share received by developing countries in general (0.9% of GNP), and only a small fraction of what was received by Sub-Saharan countries in general (6.7% of GNP). Smaller ODA reflected the strength of the economy as compared to other developing countries.

Economic growth

Political and economic isolation of the country under the previous apartheid regime in combination with a strong population growth resulted in an actual decline of GDP per capita over the 1975-97 period by -0.6% p.a. The deterioration in Sub-Saharan Africa was even worse (-1.3% p.a. over the same period). Nonetheless, results in South Africa were far worse than in the industrialized countries where per capita GDP grew by 2.2% p.a., or in the developing countries where it grew by 2.1% p.a. over the 1975-97 period. (UNDP, 1999).

Following negative growth rates in the early 1990s, the election of a democratic government in 1994 led to an acceleration of GDP growth to 2.7% p.a. over the 1994-98 period. However, growth lost again momentum in recent years. By 1998 GDP growth had fallen to 0.5% on a year earlier. A number of factors have been responsible for this deceleration. They include high levels of crime and violence, perceived as being out of control among broad sections of the population (even though they seem to have fallen in the most recent years). The of lack of internal security did not contribute to an environment that would have been conducive for undertaking long-term investment. Investors continue to cite crime as the biggest deterrent to conducting business in South Africa (EIU 1999-00).

Direct foreign investment flowing into South Africa fell from US-\$ 1.7 bn in 1997 to US-\$ 0.4 bn in 1998. On the other hand, direct foreign investment of South African companies abroad rose from levels of between \$0.1 bn and \$0.3 bn p.a. over the 1994-96 period to \$1.4 bn in 1998. (IMF, 1999) This means that more is invested by South African companies abroad than by foreign companies in South Africa. Overall gross domestic investment in South Africa was equivalent to 17% of GDP in 1997. This was in line with the average of Sub-Saharan Africa (18%) but lower than the industrialized countries' average (21%) and significantly lower than the developing countries' average (27%). (UNDP 1999).

Economic growth in South-Africa									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Growth of GDP on a year earlier in %	-0.3	-1	-2.2	1.9	2.7	3.4	3.2	1.7	0.5
Source: IMF, International Financial Statistics Yearbook 1998; The Economist Intelligence Unit, South Africa Country Profile 1999-00 and 2nd Quarter 1999 South Africa Country Report.									

Unemployment

Economic growth was not sufficient to lower unemployment. The number of registered unemployed rose from 271,000 in 1994 to 310,000 in 1997 (IMF, 1999) and 356,000 in 1998 (preliminary figure according to EIU), i.e. by almost a third over the 1994-98 period. More significant are the large number of unemployed who are not even registered. The total number of people unemployed (including those not registered) has been estimated at 4.6 million people in 1997. With just 7.6 million people formally employed, the unemployment rate amounts to a staggering rate of close to 38% (1997). Once employment in the informal sector is included (total employment of 15.1 million people), the unemployment rate in South Africa would amount to 23% which is still extremely high by international standards (EIU, 1999). For comparison, the 1997 unemployment rate in Italy was 12.5%; in France 12.4%; in Germany 9.8%; in the UK 7.1%; in the Netherlands 5.6%; in Austria 5.2%; and in the USA 5.0%.

It goes without saying that such high rates of unemployment make South Africa highly vulnerable to drug trafficking and drug abuse. Studies in other countries have shown that risks of drug taking and involvement in drug trafficking activities are far higher among unemployed than among those employed.

Unemployment in South Africa				
	1994	1995	1996	1997
Unemployment (in thousands)	3,672	3,321	4,197	4,551
Workforce in the formal sector (in thousand)	7,971	8,069	7,590	7,548
Workforce in the formal and the informal sectors (in thousand)	14,187	14,501	14,911	15,149
Unemployment rate (No. of unemployed as a percentage of formal workforce & unemployed)	31.5%	29.2%	35.6%	37.6%
Adjusted unemployment rate (No. of unemployed as a percentage of formal and informal workforce & unemployed)	20.6%	18.6%	22.0%	23.1%
Source: Economist Intelligence Unit, South Africa Country Profile 1999-00.				

Crime

South Africa has been affected by a high levels of violence and crime in recent years which gained in seriousness in the last years of the apartheid regime and continued to remain at very high levels thereafter. The overall number of crimes committed rose slightly from 2 million in 1994 to 2.2 million in 1998. The overall perception in South Africa, however, is one of a rapidly deteriorating situation. In 1994 South Africa had 462 prisoners per 100,000 people, more than the United States (208) and more than in European countries (Netherlands 182, Italy 177, Sweden 162, Spain 157, France 138 etc.). (UNDP, 1999).

Foreign Trade

South Africa's foreign expanded strongly since the end of the apartheid regime. The increases may not seem very large in dollar terms, but they are large once based on the local currency. Exports grew - in terms of Rands - by 62% over the 1994-98 period and imports rose by even 88% over the same period. It should not surprise that such increases in legitimate trade are also exploited by drug trafficking organisations as they smuggle illicit substances along with legitimate merchandise. Exports of goods and services in South Africa were already equivalent to 28% of GDP in 1997, which is already a higher share than for countries such as Germany (24%), France (24%), Australia (20%) or the USA (12%).

South Africa runs a trade surplus. But its current account balance turned negative after 1993 and it has been deteriorating since.

Foreign Trade and Current Account of South Africa					
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Exports (bn Rands) f.o.b.*	89.9	101.5	126.1	142.9	145.5
Imports (bn Rands), f.o.b.*	76.2	98.0	115.5	129.7	143.3
Exports (in bn US-\$) f.o.b.*	24.9	28.8	29.7	30.4	28.1
Imports (in bn US-\$) f.o.b.*	21.5	27.1	27.4	28.4	26.9
<i>Merchandise trade balance (in bn US-\$)</i>	3.4	1.7	2.3	2.0	1.2
<i>Current account balance (in bn US-\$)</i>	-0.3	-2.8	-1.7	-1.9	-2.3
*f.o.b. = free on board Source: IMF, International Financial Statistics, August 1999.					

Exchange rate, financial markets and inflation

The return of confidence after 1994 and advice given by the international financial institutions prompted the Government to abolish the "financial rand" in March 1995. The second-tier currency, available only to foreigners, traded at a discount to the "commercial rand". The old system intended to allow conventional balance of payments transactions, while trying to insulate the country from politically induced capital flight. However, the system also contributed to the development of sophisticated financial schemes to circumvent such rules - a knowledge which is also asked for in money laundering operations.

With the emergence of a democratically elected government and the unification of the exchange rates, the attractiveness of South Africa for commercial and financial transactions increased. Data of financial flows show that there has been a strong increase in both capital inflows and outflows over the last few years. Notably portfolio investment increased, exceeding direct foreign investment flows. Capital inflows for portfolio investment grew - according to IMF data - from \$1.1 bn in 1993 to \$13 bn in 1998; the net inflows reached a high of \$8.3 billion in 1997 before falling back to 7.6 billion in 1998. All of these are large sums compared to flows to other developing countries. The net capital inflow for portfolio investment in 1997 was - according to UNDP data³ - \$11.8 bn in China, \$5.1 bn in Brazil, \$4 bn in India, \$3 bn in Colombia, \$1.5 bn in Thailand; \$0.6 bn in Pakistan, \$0.3 bn in Nigeria, \$0.1 bn in Egypt and Morocco and less than \$0.1 bn in all other African countries (UNDP, 1999).

It thus has to be feared that parallel with the increased attractiveness of South Africa for legitimate investors, its attractiveness for money laundering operations may have risen as well though there has not been any evidence or indication (so far) of large-scale money laundering operations taking place in the country. However, South Africa signed only in 1999 the 1988 Convention which foresees strict controls to detect and prevent money laundering operations.

South Africa: Financial flows in billion US-\$						
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Portfolio investment						
Capital inflows	1.1	2.1	3.1	3.1	12.9	13.0
Capital outflows	-	-	-	0.8	4.6	5.4
Net-inflows	1.1	2.1	3.1	2.3	8.3	7.6
Direct foreign investment						
Capital inflows	0.0	0.3	1.0	0.8	1.7	0.3
Capital outflows	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	2.3	1.4
Net-inflows	-0.3	0.2	0.7	0.7	-0.6	-1.1
Other investment						
Capital inflows	-2.1	0.3	4.2	2.1	-1.2	-1.2
Capital outflows	0.3	0.2	1.1	1.6	1.0	1.6
Net-inflows	-2.4	0.1	3.1	0.5	-2.2	-2.8
Overall financial flows						
Capital inflows	-1.0	2.7	8.3	6.0	13.4	12.1
Capital outflows	0.6	0.3	1.4	2.5	7.9	8.4
Net inflows (incl. adjustments)	-1.6	2.4	6.9	3.4	5.4	3.7
Source: IMF, International Financial Statistics, August 1999.						

As the country showed to be a vulnerable to political and economic rumors - as reflected in strong fluctuations of the Rand (notably in 1998) - South Africa may not necessarily be an ideal location for long-term investment by money launderers; money launderers tend to follow market movements and shift funds abroad, thus aggravating existing trends. The Rand fell from levels of around R3.6:\$1 in 1994/95 to R6.8:\$1 by July 1998. A six percentage points rise in the prime lending rate (repo) to 24% in June-July 1998 helped to stabilise the Rand; but the measure brought economic growth almost to a halt (see above). The currency has since recovered, averaging around R6.1:\$1 in June 1999, and interest rates could be brought back to 18%. Nonetheless, the value of the Rand has lost some 40% of its value against the dollar over the 1994 to June 1999 period.

³ UNDP data (based on World Bank statistics) show a net portfolio investment flow into South Africa of \$2 bn in 1997 instead of \$8.3 bn revealed in IMF statistics.

Exchange rate (number of Rands per US\$)					
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
US-\$	3.55	3.63	4.30	4.61	5.53
Source: EIU, 1999-00.					

Parallel with the loss in the external value of the currency, the domestic value of the Rand also declined due to inflation. Inflation is not particularly high compared to many other developing countries. Nonetheless, the domestic value of the Rand fell by almost a third (32%) over the 1994-98 period. The changes in both the external value (vis a vis the dollar) and the internal value (loss in purchasing power) of the Rand have to be taken into account when analysing the development of drug prices and drug market(s) in South Africa.

Inflation in South Africa					
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Change in consumer price index	9.0%	8.6%	7.4%	8.5%	7.0%
Source: IMF, International Financial Statistics, August 1999.					

Education

South Africa has a comprehensive educational system. Though an overall literacy rate of 84% among adults may not be high for an industrialized country, it is a high ratio for a developing country (Kenya 79%; Zambia 75%; Nigeria 60%, Malawi 58%, Cote d' Ivoire 43%, Mozambique 41%, Senegal 35%, Niger 14%) and authorities in South Africa have over the past few years strengthened efforts to further improve the situation and overcome the legacy of the apartheid regime. South Africa spends 7.9% of GNP on education (1993-96), more than developing countries in general (3.6% on average) and even more than the industrialized countries (5.1% on average). 99.9% of children are enrolled in primary education and 95% in secondary education. These are very high ratios, clearly exceeding the global average (88% in primary and 65% in secondary education) (UNDP, 1999). Drug prevention campaigns in schools should thus reach a majority of youths in the country.

Health

South Africa has - overall - a well established health system though distribution. But quality of health services across the country is still uneven - a legacy of the apartheid regime. There were 59 doctors per 100,000 inhabitants in 1993, almost four times more than in Sub-Saharan Africa (16 per 100,000 people), but less than in developing countries in general (76) or in the industrialized countries (253). Cigarette consumption rose in South Africa by 28% over the last two decades (period 1970-72 to 1990-92). This was basically in line with a 21% increase in Sub-Saharan Africa, but in sharp contrast to the 12% decline in the industrialized countries. (Smoking of tobacco, notably onset of smoking at an early age, was found to increase the risks for cannabis smoking, and subsequently the risk for switching over to other drugs). Even more serious has been the rapid spread of HIV in the country, even though this is not - as yet - reflected in reported AIDS cases. There were 30 AIDS cases per 100,000 people reported by South Africa in 1996. This was in line with the developing countries' average (29 per 100,000 people). But, AIDS is expected to have a significant impact on South Africa's population in the future. UNDP forecasts life-expectancy to drop to 55 years, compared to an increase to 64 years in the developing countries in general, and to 78 years in the industrialized countries.

4. DRUG SITUATION

4.1. Cultivation and production

Cannabis

There is no cultivation of opium poppy or coca bush in South Africa. But there is large-scale cultivation of **cannabis**. Most of the illicit cannabis cultivations is taking place in the eastern Cape Province and in Kwazulu/Natal (DEA, 1996). Cannabis is often cultivated in mountainous or otherwise inaccessible areas, and - on a smaller scale - on the fringes of large, historically white-owned farms. In both the Eastern Cape (i.e. the former independent Republic of Transkei) and in KwaZulu-Natal, a large number of rural families make their living on cannabis production. Some cannabis is also imported into South Africa from Swaziland, Lesotho (ARQ 1998) and Malawi. Major domestic consumer markets are Durban, Johannesburg and Cape Town.

Authorities estimate that excess production enabled exports to grow from 15% of total production in 1991 to 70% of total production by 1995/96. Much of the international cannabis trafficking to Europe has been reported to be in the hands of UK and Dutch ex-patriots living in South Africa, working in conjunction with mostly white South Africans (UK, 1998). Western Europe in general, and the UK and the Netherlands in particular, are the main final destinations though several neighbouring countries also report cannabis to originate in South Africa. Authorities in Namibia, for instance, claim that 80% of the cannabis is from South Africa (ARQ, 1996).

Estimates on the extent of cannabis cultivation in South Africa take place regularly. They are based on aerial surveys (undertaken by the South African National Air Force, or subcontracted out). Nonetheless, estimates have fluctuated strongly from year to year, and there have been some apparent inconsistencies in reporting (see below).

Estimates on area under cultivation of cannabis in the Republic of South-Africa, 1992-1998, in hectares							
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Reported change of area under cultivation on a year earlier (ARQ)	stable	stable	decrease	increase	stable	decrease	decrease
Estimates of areas under cultivation (ARQs)	6,000	5,000	2,140	82,000*	1,200	2,000	1,300
Other sources (SANAB/SAPS/DEA/OGD/BKA/HO)	n.a.	20,000 - 30,000		83,000		n.a.	n.a.
Exported (in % of total domestic production) (ARQ)	15%**	25%		70%		n.a.	n.a.
* later reported to UNDCP to have been a gross over-estimate. ** 1991.							
Sources: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire data; South African Narcotics Bureau, South African Police Service, US Drug Enforcement Agency, Observatoire Geopolitique des Drogues, German Bundeskriminalamt, UK Home-Office.							

In 1992, cannabis cultivation was estimated at 6,000 ha by the South African authorities (ARQ 1992). For the next two years, South African authorities reported a decline in cultivation to UNDCP. By contrast, the US Drug Enforcement Agency, based on intelligence information received from South Africa, estimated an expansion of cannabis cultivation to 20,000 - 30,000 hectares by 1993/94 (DEA, 1996). This would have been more than cannabis cultivation in Latin America (16,000-17,000 hectares in 1993/94 according to US Government estimates (INCSR, 1999)). Cultivation at such levels was subsequently also reported from the South African Police. The Police reported to have identified 56,000 acres under cannabis cultivation (=22,700 ha or 0.1% of arable land) in 1994.

Thereafter, however, estimates went beyond levels that could be considered realistic. For 1995 South African authorities estimated the area under cannabis cultivation to have increased to more than 82,000 ha (0.5% of arable land). Based on this number, the authorities - applying a yield of 2,120 kg/ha - estimated total cannabis production to amount to 175,000 tonnes - a figure which was subsequently also quoted for several years by other international organizations, including Interpol, INCB and various national organizations such as the British Home Office or the German Bundeskriminalamt (BKA).⁴ Such a level of production would have meant that South Africa was - by far - the world's largest producer of marijuana.

Cannabis cultivation and production in Southern Africa as estimated by the South African Authorities in 1995 (high estimate)			
	Area	Cannabis production (whole plant/dry) (2,120kg/ha)	Estimated marijuana production*
Kwa Zulu/Natal	2,567 ha	5,442 tonnes	1,633 tonnes
Northern Transvaal	167 ha	354 tonnes	106 tonnes
Eastern Cape (Transkei)	80,000 ha	169,600 tonnes	50,880 tonnes
Total: South Africa	82,734 ha	175,396 tonnes	52,619 tonnes
Lesotho	2,000 ha	4,240 tonnes	1,272 tonnes
Swaziland	90 ha	191 tonnes	57 tonnes
Botswana	200 ha	424 tonnes	127 tonnes
Total: Southern African region	85,024 ha	180,251 tonnes	54,075 tonnes
* Cannabis herb available for consumption and exports (30% of cannabis production)			
Source: South African Police Service, "Illicit Cross-Border Drug Trafficking as a National and International Threat", Country Report by South Africa presented to the 8th meeting of Heads of National Drug Law Enforcement Agencies (HONLEA), Cairo, 16-20 June 1996.			

However, the estimate has not withstood a process of verification and critical validation. First, the yield figures used in South Africa - apparently - do not reflect cannabis herb (marijuana) production but the overall weight of dry cannabis plant material, and are thus not directly comparable with cannabis herb production figures, as used in many other countries. In official South African publications it is mentioned that only 30% of cannabis production is "for smoking", suggesting that cannabis herb accounts for about 30% of cannabis production (SAPS 1995). The actual marijuana yield would thus fall from 2,120 kg/ha to 636 kg marijuana per hectare - a figure in line with yields reported from Latin America (some 660 kg/ha on average).

Taking these 'adjustments' into account, South Africa would have still produced some 53,000 tonnes of cannabis herb in 1995. Considering the reported export rate of 70%, the actual amount for consumption in South Africa would have amounted to 16,000 tonnes of cannabis herb.

The question arises whether such levels of consumption are possible as consumption in South Africa would have been six to ten times higher than overall marijuana consumption in the USA (1,600-2,400 tonnes p.a.) (BOTECH 1994) even though South Africa's population is far smaller. It would have meant that average consumption per inhabitant (including babies and retired persons) in South Africa would have exceeded a gram of marijuana a day (two joints) while the average consumption in the USA was just 0.02-0.03 grams per inhabitant.

In 1997 the authorities informed UNDCP that the 1995 estimate was too high, and was arrived at due to some calculation errors (SANAB 1997). Estimates were subsequently lowered from more than 80,000 ha to levels of around 2,000 hectares while the extent of cultivation was considered to have remained stable.

⁴ In an intelligence report, the German BKA, for instance, referring to information obtained from the South African Narcotics Bureau (SANAB) in October 1997, reported a cultivation of cannabis on 90,000 ha in South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland, and a resulting production of 180,000 tonnes of cannabis plant material of which 30% was available for local consumption and export.

The estimate provided for 1998 sees cultivation at 1,300 hectares, reflecting some decline on a year earlier. Based on South-Africa's standard yield of 2,120 kg/ha, cannabis output was thus estimated at 2,760 tons in 1998 (which should be equivalent to some 830 tons of marijuana).

Applying the same way of reasoning as above, average consumption in South Africa would have been slightly less than 0.02 grams of marijuana per day per inhabitant in 1998, slightly below the (conservative) estimates for the US market. However, South African seizures of 784 tons of cannabis plant and 197 tons of marijuana in 1998 (ARQ) - and similar levels reported in previous years - suggest that a production estimate of 2,760 tons (1998) of cannabis dry material (equivalent to some 830 tons of marijuana) is probably too low. It would mean that authorities succeeded in seizing 28% of all cannabis plant and 33% of the then remaining cannabis herb in 1998, i.e. in total more than 50% of all cannabis produced in the country. While such results cannot be categorically excluded, actual production is probably larger. This means that cannabis cultivation may be more widespread than the authorities are aware of.

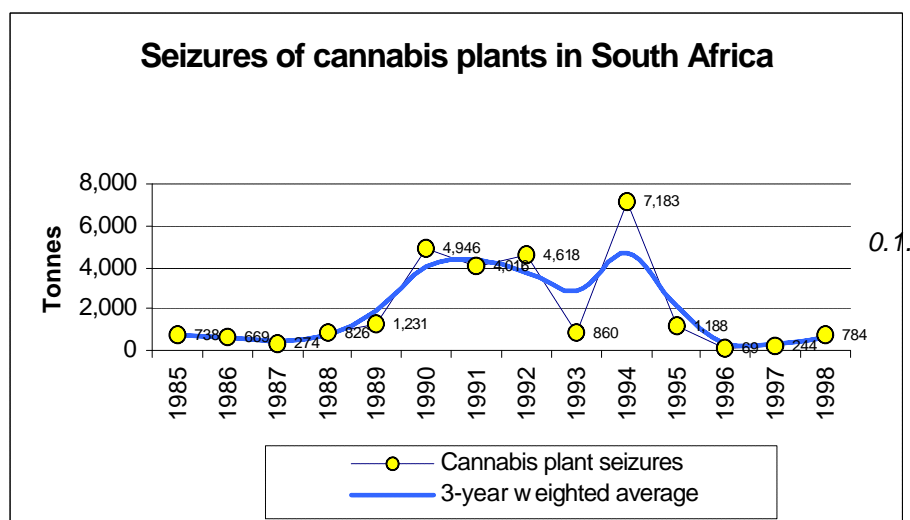
Cannabis cultivation and cannabis herb production estimates^a for 1997/98 in selected countries			
Country	Source	Hectares	Tonnes
Morocco	ARQ INCSR	50,000 ^c 85,000 ^c	mainly production of cannabis resin, not herb
Colombia	INCSR	5,000 ^b	4000
Malawi	ARQ	170,000 ^{be}	n.a.
South Africa	ARQ	1,300 ^b	reported: 2,760 (830)
Mexico	INCSR	4,600 ^b	2300
Thailand	ARQ	2,220	n.a.
Spain	ARQ	n.a.	1730
Kazakhstan	UNDCP Survey	329627	1570
Russia	Govt. est.	1,000,000-1,500,000 ^e	n.a.
Azerbaijan	ARQ	1,190 ^b	n.a.
Paraguay	ARQ	720 ^b	1,415
Nigeria	ARQ	1,330 ^c	1330
Uganda	ARQ	1,060 ^d	1310
Kyrgyzstan	UNDCP Survey	5212	680
India	ARQ	250 ^b	660
Turkey	ARQ	560 ^b	560
Ukraine	ARQ	250 ^b	n.a.
Guatemala	ARQ	70 ^b	300
Zimbabwe	ARQ	6,000 ^{be}	300
Jamaica	INCSR	317 ^c	214
Brazil	ARQ	290 ^d	n.a.
Swaziland	ARQ	100 ^b	100
Sri Lanka	ARQ	400 ^b	n.a.
Trinidad Tobago	ARQ	140 ^b	5
Egypt	ARQ	100 ^b	n.a.

a/ estimates related to cannabis cultivation and production have very high margins of error; most estimates are not based on systematically conducted surveys; b/1998; c/1997; d/ 1996, e/ including wild growth.

Sources: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data; UNCP Central Asia, "Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan – Annual Survey 1998: Cannabis, Ephedra, Opium Poppy", 1999. United States Department of State, International Narcotics Control Strategy Report, March 1999.

But even at currently reported levels, South Africa is - as was also emphasized in a Meeting of the Heads of National Drug Law Enforcement Agencies (HONLEA), held 20-24 April 1998, "one of the world's largest producers".¹ Though production estimates for other countries have to be interpreted with a large degree of caution as well, the table below, nonetheless, illustrates this point rather well.

An indirect way to establish possible trends in cannabis cultivation is to analyze eradication/cannabis plant seizure data. Cannabis plant seizures showed a strong increase the late 1980s and a further strong increase in 1994, This was followed by strong declines over the 1994-96 period and some moderate increases thereafter. By 1998, cannabis plant seizures had again reached the levels of the mid 1980s. Such trends - in broad terms at least (allowing for a one year lag) - seem to be in line with the cultivation/production estimates discussed above. Nonetheless, it cannot be excluded that the massive decline over the 1994-96 period reflected changing government priorities rather than an actual decline in cultivation.



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 1

4.2 Manufacture

Though South Africa does not seem to be - as yet - a major manufacturing site for illicit drugs, there has been firm evidence that clandestine manufacturing of illicit drugs has been taking place in the country for more than a decade. About three laboratories a year were dismantled over the 1987-97 period. In 1998 the number of detected clandestine laboratories rose to eight, reflecting an underlying trend of increased domestic drug manufacture in recent years (ARQ, 1998).

Manufacture of illicit drugs was originally limited to **methaqualone**. The first clandestine methaqualone laboratory was seized in 1987, but domestic production of methaqualone is believed to have increased since and continues gaining in importance. Most methaqualone manufacture takes place in rural areas. (ARQ, 1998) Laboratories have been identified *inter alia* in East Rand and in the Eastern and Western Cape region (SAMRC, 1998). In 1998 three methaqualone laboratories were detected, of which one was an industrial facility and two were smaller laboratories located on private premises (ARQ, 1998).

In recent years, however, the range of detected laboratories broadened and included laboratories manufacturing **ecstasy (MDMA)**, **methamphetamine** (1998) as well as kitchen laboratories for the manufacture of **crack-cocaine**. Moreover, a laboratory manufacturing **GHB (gamma hydroxy butyrate)** was detected in 1998 (ARQ, 1998). GHB is not as yet a controlled substance, neither in South Africa nor at the international level. But it has been recommended for 'critical review' by the WHO's expert committee on drug dependence.

Laboratories detected in South Africa (selected years)					
	1987	1990	1996	1997	1998
Methaqualone	1	4	2	1	3
Ecstasy group			1	1	
Crack-cocaine					3
Methamphetamine					1
GHB					1
Total	1	4	3	2	8

Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

4.3. Diversion of precursors

Clandestine manufacture of drugs in South Africa is also reflected in seizures of precursor chemicals. Important seizures of **anthranilic acid** and of **N-acetylanthranilic acid**, the two main precursors for methaqualone manufacture, were reported in 1995. 70% of all seizures of **methaqualone precursors** worldwide took place in South Africa in that year.

In subsequent years, clandestine producers of methaqualone switched to a number of other chemicals which are not under international control. Notably **isatoic anhydride** (INCB 1999) and **o-toluidine** (ARQ, 1998) have been used in recent years to replace the traditional methaqualone precursors. Methaqualone precursors are usually sourced from the local market (ARQ, 1998).

Seizure of precursors for clandestine manufacture of methaqualone in South Africa						
	Year	Measurement	South Africa	in % of global	sufficient for manufacture of methaqualone in kg	expressed in street doses of methaqualone
Anthranilic acid	1995	kg	25	54%	25	100,000
N-Acetylanthranilic acid	1995	kg	30	100%	24	96,000
Share of South Africa in seizures of all methaqualone precursors	1995	kg	-	70%	49	196,000

Source: INCB, *Precursors and chemicals frequently used in the illicit manufacture of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances*, New York 1998.

In addition to the typical methaqualone precursors mentioned above, a number of other chemicals were detected as well in South Africa, including acetic anhydride, hydrochloric acid, toluene, acetone, ethyl ether and sulphuric acid. All of these chemicals can be used in the manufacture of methaqualone, but they may be also used in the manufacture of other drugs. The volumes of seizures in these substances in South Africa, however, have not been particularly large if compared to volumes seized at the global level.

Overview of seizures chemicals under international control in South Africa									
	Table I substances		Table II substances						
	N-acetyl-anthranilic acid	Safrole	Acetic anhydride	Acetone	Anthranilic acid	Ethyl ether	Hydrochloric acid	Sulphuric acid	To-luene
	kg	litres	litres	litres	kg	litres	litres	litres	litres
1995	30	-	-	50	25	-	5	-	225
1996	-	202	-	5	-	13	8	-	3
1997	-	3	5	25	-	25	5	3	70

Source: INCB, *Precursors and chemicals frequently used in the illicit manufacture of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances*, New York 1999.

There is only one exception: **safrole**, a key precursor for the **manufacture of ecstasy** (MDMA). It was seized in both 1996 and 1997 in South Africa. South African seizures of safrole in 1996 accounted for 80% of global safrole seizures in that year.

However, this proportion may be potentially misleading as ecstasy can be manufactured out of a number of other chemicals as well, including isosafrole, piperonal, and 3-4-MDP-2-P. Once all of these chemicals are included, seizures of 'ecstasy precursors' in South Africa account for less than 1% of global seizures of 'ecstasy precursors'.

Seizures of key precursors for clandestine manufacture of ecstasy in South Africa in 1996				
	Seizures in South Africa (in litres)	in % of global	sufficient for manufacture of ecstasy in kg	expressed in street doses of ecstasy
Safrole	202	80%	53	530,000
Share of South Africa in seizures of all ecstasy precursors	-	0.7%	53	530,000

Source: INCB, *Precursors and chemicals frequently used in the illicit manufacture of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances*, New York 1999.

In addition, foreign drug trafficking groups have started to target **South Africa's chemical industry** for supply of precursors. The magnitudes involved in such attempts, as recent examples have shown, have been by magnitudes higher than domestic seizures of precursor chemicals in South Africa itself. The INCB highlighted in its annual report on precursors that very large quantities (around 25 tonnes) of **methyl ethyl ketone (MEK)** originating in South Africa, were about to be shipped via Europe to Colombia. A number of deliveries had already taken place. This followed the tightening of chemical controls in the United States and in Europe. MEK is one of the key substances in the **manufacture of cocaine hydrochloride**; it is used to extract and purify the cocaine. (INCB, 1999). After the revelation of the true reason for the strong MEK demand in Colombia, South African industry, has, however, started to operate more closely with the authorities to prevent such deliveries in the future.

There have been also some important attempts to **import precursor chemicals into South Africa** for illicit uses. In March 1998, for instance, China stopped a suspicious shipment of 20 tons (!) of **ephedrine**, the main precursor for the **manufacture of methamphetamine**, to a South African company. These are large quantities. Global seizures of ephedrine in 1997 amounted to just 8 tonnes. A quantity of 20 tons of ephedrine would have been sufficient to produce 13 tons of methamphetamine, equivalent to more than 430 million doses of methamphetamine.

4.4. Trafficking

Trafficking in drugs has increased in South Africa over the last decade. Parallel, **drug trafficking related violence** has been on the rise which prompted some social scientists to speak of a "Colombianisation" of South African society. Drugs have helped organized crime to flourish. Drug trafficking related violence has been particularly strong in Cape Town (Cape-flats) where drug trafficking groups fought over market shares. A Muslim vigilante group, called People Against Gangsterism and Drugs (PAGAD), has declared its war on gangs and drug dealers (UNDCP/WHO 1998). As PAGAD operates at the fringes of the law (and sometime beyond), overall drug related violence has increased even further. Ironically, the level of violence is less in Durban where the drug market is already stronger monopolized. The level of drug related violence in Johannesburg seems to be in between (UNDCP Mission, 1999).

The South African **drug market is highly segmented**, culturally determined, and so are related trafficking activities, even so the end of apartheid also meant an opening up of the individual drug markets. The previously clear-cut borders are starting to become blurred, a side-effect of racial integration.

Traditionally, **cannabis (dagga)** has been particularly strong among the black community; but consumption and trafficking has already moved to all other ethnic groups as well. Large-scale export of cannabis seems to be mainly in the hands of some groups of white South Africans with links to Europe;

Mandrax (methaqualone) has been widespread among the Indian and coloured community. But since the late 1980s/early 1990s, it has also started to spread among the black community. It is mainly imported from abroad (estimates see imports at around 60%), though domestic production has been on the rise in recent years.

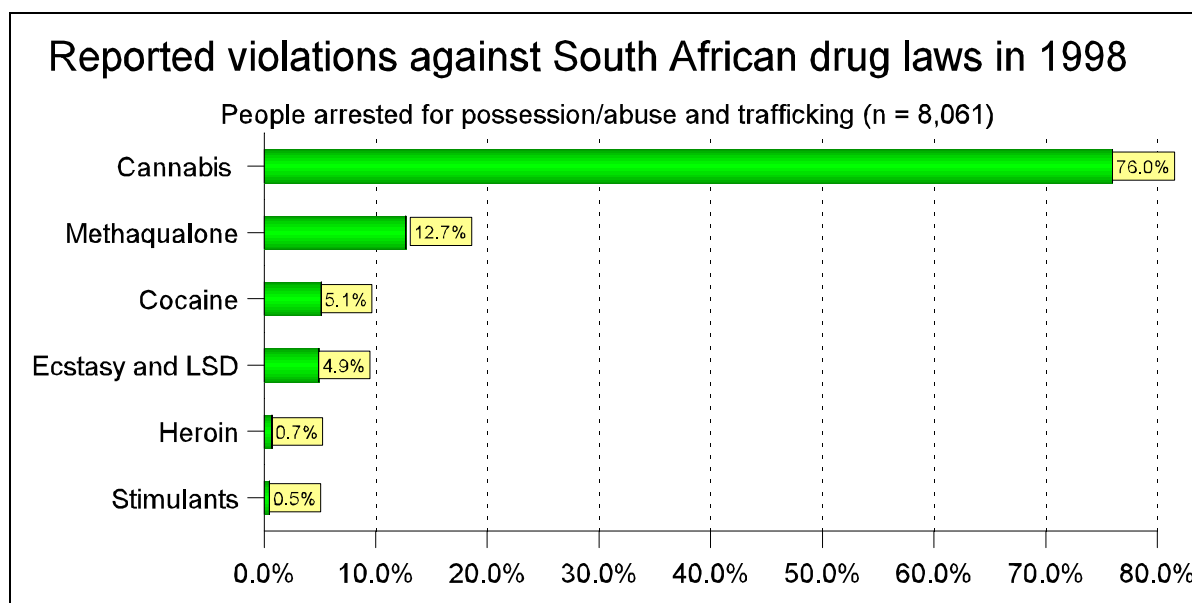
Wellconal (dipipanone hydrochloride), a synthetic opiate, is still more of a "white" drug. It has for a long term served as a *de-facto* substitute for heroin as the latter substance - in the past - was not readily available in South Africa. Trafficking in this substance seems to have lost in importance in recent years. Like in many other countries, **benzodiazepines**, including **diazepam (Valium)**, have gained in popularity in recent years.

Predominantly "white" drugs are **ecstasy (MDMA)** and **LSD**. They are mainly found in South Africa's club scene. Trafficking in ecstasy and LSD is dominated by white groups who import these drugs, mainly from the Netherlands and the UK.

The situation is slightly more complicated with regard to **cocaine**. Cocaine used to be a drug for small sections of the white upper-class. However, since 1995 crack-cocaine has been emerging on the South African market. While South Africa initially served mainly as a transshipment point of cocaine from the Andean countries to Europe, it has - in recent years - started to emerge as an important market itself. Trafficking in crack-cocaine has been spreading fast throughout South Africa's society, notably among

deprived black communities. Its use as well as the fight for market shares have also contributed to high levels of violence. Trafficking is reported to be mostly in the hands of Nigerian drug trafficking groups. Most of the cocaine is still shipped from Brazil to South Africa, either directly or via some other African countries (e.g. Angola).

Trafficking in heroin is still limited though - very recently - is has started to increase, notably to supply the rapidly growing market of (white) school-children. Heroin is mainly imported from South-West and South-East Asia, often via Mozambique. (UNDCP Mission, 1999).



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 2

Arrests and seizures in South Africa are overwhelmingly linked to **cannabis**; 76% of all people arrested for drug trafficking and abuse and 99% of all seizures in volume terms (if transformed into dosages) were linked to cannabis in 1998. Data also show that trafficking is mainly linked to cannabis herb (marijuana). Trafficking in cannabis resin (hashish) is still limited.

The next two most widely trafficked drugs are **methaqualone (mandrax)** and **cocaine**; 13% of all people arrested for drug possession/trafficking in 1998 were arrested for methaqualone and 5% for cocaine related offences against the drug laws. However, while the proportions for mandrax have been showing downwards, arrest for cocaine possession/trafficking have shown upwards. In volume terms, seizures of cocaine already exceed those of methaqualone. This reflects South Africa's role as a transit country for South American cocaine on its way to markets in Europe.

People arrested for drug related offences in South Africa in 1998						
	for possession/ abuse		for trafficking		for all drug related offences	
	number of persons	in %	number of persons	in %	number of persons	in %
Cannabis	2,267	79.4%	3,858	74.1%	6,125	76.0%
Methaqualone	360	12.6%	667	12.8%	1,027	12.7%
Cocaine	96	3.4%	319	6.1%	415	5.1%
Ecstasy (MDMA) and LSD	107	3.7%	290	5.6%	397	4.9%
Heroin	15	0.5%	43	0.8%	58	0.7%
Stimulants	9	0.3%	30	0.6%	39	0.5%
Grand Total	2,854	100.0%	5,207	100.0%	8,061	100.0%

Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Some 5% of all reported arrests in South Africa were related to **ecstasy and LSD** in 1998, about the same as for cocaine. Notably arrests for ecstasy have gained in importance over the last few years. There have been slightly more people arrested for abuse of ecstasy (MDMA) and LSD than for cocaine, though the opposite is true for trafficking related arrests. By contrast, ecstasy and LSD do not play - as yet - any role in terms of volumes seized. This reflects the fact that South Africa is not a transit country for these substances. Ecstasy and LSD are mostly imported from Europe though some domestic production has been taking place as well.

Still rather small - though growing - is the importance of **heroin** and of **stimulants** (amphetamines) in the South African drug market. Together the two substances account for about 1% of all drug related offences. If expressed in potential doses - more heroin than ecstasy and LSD was already seized in 1998.

Changes in proportions of people arrested for drug related offences in South Africa (1993-1998)						
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Cannabis herb and resin	70.4%	73.7%	71.0%	76.0%	79.7%	76.0%
Methaqualone	27.0%	22.9%	22.4%	18.7%	10.7%	12.7%
Cocaine	1.9%	2.5%	4.7%	2.7%	5.1%	5.1%
Ecstasy	0.0%	0.1%	0.6%	1.2%	2.3%	4.9%
LSD	0.6%	0.6%	0.9%	1.2%	1.1%	
Heroin	0.1%	0.3%	0.4%	0.3%	0.5%	0.7%
Speed (meth-amphetamine)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Sources: South African Narcotics Bureau; UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data..

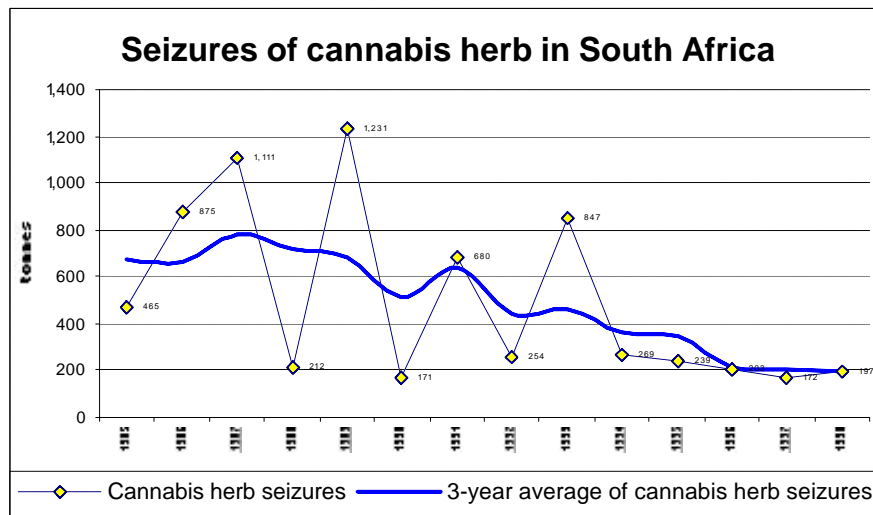
Seizures of drugs in South Africa in 1998					
	reported seizures in kg	reported seizures in units	transformed into kg*	transformed into units* (potential dosages)	potential dosages (units)* in % of total
Cannabis plant	784,201.0	-	784201	470,520,600	53.9%
Cannabis herb	197116.3	-	197,116.3	394,232,580	45.1%
Cocaine	635.9	3,825	636.3	6,362,905	0.7%
Methaqualone	160.0	1,307,109	486.8	1,947,109	0.2%
Heroin	5.4	-	5.4	179,433	0.02%
Cannabis resin	20.6	-	20.6	152,356	0.02%
Ecstasy (MDMA)	-	111,733	11.2	111,783	0.01%
LSD	-	6,426	0.0	6,426	0.001%
Stimulants	-	527	0.0	527	0.0001%
Grand Total	982139.2	1,429,670	982477.5	873,513,719	100%

* transformed at global standard UNDCP transformation ratios; actual dosages for individual countries - and thus South Africa - may differ.
Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Trafficking in cannabis

Seizures of cannabis herb in South Africa in volume terms, as reported to UNDCP, have been subject to major annual fluctuations over the last decade. Once data are smoothed, the overall trend seems to show rather downwards. Between 1994 and 1998 seizures remained basically stable.

Despite lower levels in 1998 as compared to a decade earlier, South Africa's cannabis herb seizures accounted for almost 55% of all cannabis herb seizures in Africa. At the global level, South Africa's cannabis herb seizures have been either the third (e.g. in 1997) or the fourth largest (e.g. in 1998) in recent years (usually behind Mexico and the USA).



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 3

It is unlikely that the above described decline in seizures reflects a decline in the South African cannabis market. A number of other factors seem to be responsible for the decline. Some of the large seizures in the past were actually due to cannabis seized in containers in **ships transiting** South Africa, including cannabis resin from Pakistan and cannabis herb from Colombia on the way to Europe (OGD, 1997/98). The decline may also reflect a shift in **enforcement priorities**. The emergence of other, highly dangerous drugs in the South African market prompted the authorities to target the latter substances with more rigor. Seizures of cannabis may have been in some instances side-results in the search for other substances. Thus the authorities - having stepped up controls at airports to prevent cocaine trafficking - reported an increase in cannabis courier activities of people departing on national airlines to Europe. The cannabis herb is either body carried or packed in suitcases. (ARQ 1998).

In addition, containers containing cannabis herb continue being shipped to Europe. The latter activities are usually organized by some groups of white South Africans with good business links to Europe, sometimes even by people owning legitimate companies (UNDCP Mission, 1999). In a few cases, the emergence of a new form of drug barter business could be identified: South African cannabis in exchange for European ecstasy and LSD (OGD, 1997/98).

Domestic trafficking in cannabis, by contrast, is mainly in the hands of black South Africans (UNDCP mission, 1999). The large black townships usually serve as storage and redistribution centres (such as Soweto and Alexandra in Johannesburg, Inanda and KwaMashu in Durban, or Gugulethu in Cape Town). (OGD, 1997/98).

South Africa is not only an exporter of cannabis, but also an important **importer**. Cannabis is shipped to South Africa from countries such as Malawi, Zambia, (SAMRC, 1998) Lesotho and Swaziland (OGD, 1997/98). In particular Lesotho, Swaziland and Malawi are specialized in the production of cannabis varieties with a high THC content, known as Durban Poison, Swazi Gold or Malawi Gold. Nonetheless, there is hardly any doubt that South Africa is an important net-exporter of cannabis. Much of the import from the above mentioned countries into South Africa is for re-export to markets in Europe. The principal operators of these networks are white South Africans as well as British and Dutch citizens (OGD, 1997/98).

Cannabis herb seizures in Africa in 1998		
	Seizures in kg	as a percentage of all seizures reported from Africa
South Africa	197,116.3	54.8%
Morocco	37,160.9	10.3%
Egypt	31,078.4	8.6%
Lesotho	21,583.8	6.0%
Nigeria	16,170.5	4.5%
Zambia*	11,176.3	3.1%
Zimbabwe	6,117.1	1.7%
Swaziland	5,943.3	1.7%
Uganda	5,530.0	1.5%
Malawi	5,202.0	1.4%
United Republic of Tanzania	4,617.9	1.3%
Senegal	3,183.6	0.9%
Other African countries**	14,689.3	4.1%
Africa **	359,569.3	100.0%

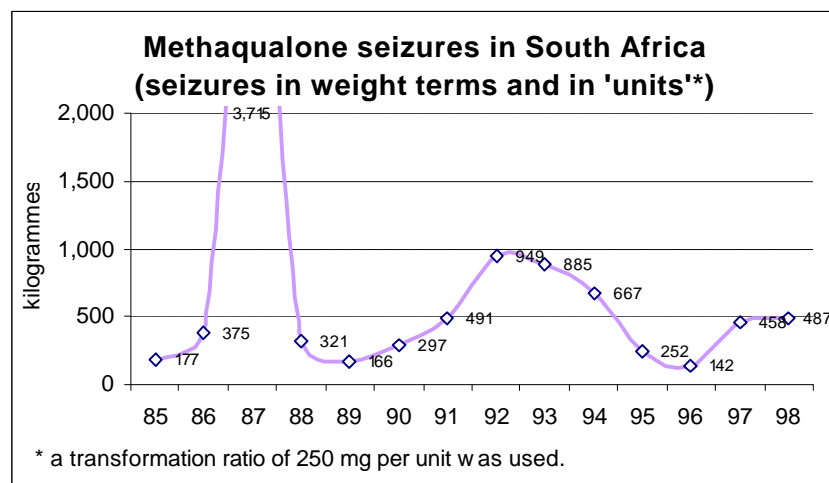
* data for 1997.
 ** categories "other African countries" and "Africa" include data for 1997 for the countries for which no 1998 data are available.

Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Trafficking in methaqualone

Methaqualone (Mandrax) is still **mainly trafficked into South Africa from abroad** though **domestic production has increased** over the last decade. Much of the methaqualone consumed in South Africa is believed to come from India - directly, or via Dubai, or via routes in Zaire and other African countries (Oosthuysen, 1998). Moreover, there have been reports of alleged production of methaqualone in Mozambique and Zambia (Grove, 1994; van Aarde, 1997; South African Police Services, 1998) for export to South Africa. Some estimates suggested that as much as 80% of worldwide clandestine production of methaqualone may be destined for the South African market (Venter, 1998).

While there is hardly any doubt that methaqualone trafficking is important in South Africa, data do not indicate any rapid increase in trafficking activities for this substance. There is an ongoing spread among the country's black community; at the same time, however, there is a general shift towards crack-cocaine.



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

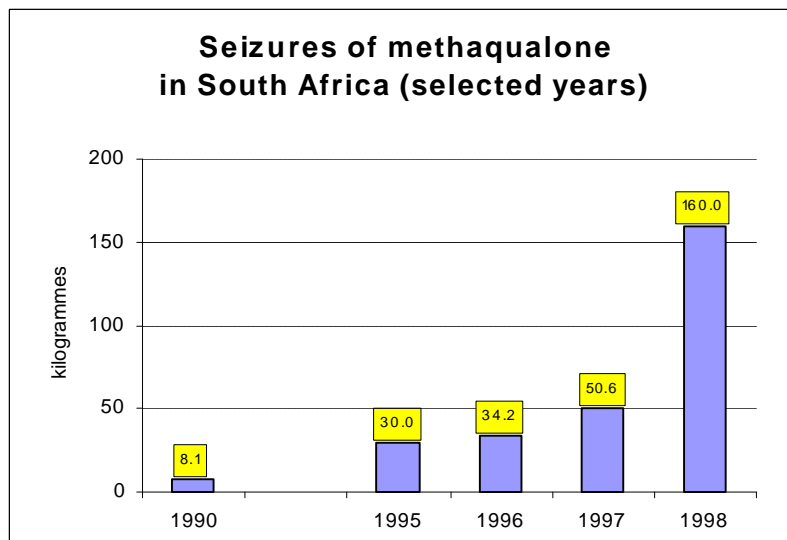
Figure 3

There has been a downward trend of methaqualone related arrests over the 1993-98 period, and seizures (volumes confiscated) have been also smaller in 1998 as compared to 1993. The analysis of seizure data is, however, complicated by reporting practice. Methaqualone seizures are reported in units as well as in weight terms (kg), and the two kinds of indirect measurements of trafficking activities do

not go in parallel. In order to gain an overall picture, the two measurements have to be combined even though the results are then only rough approximations and have to be interpreted with caution. Using UNDCP's standard transformation ratio (250 mg of methaqualone per unit (dose)) data suggest that methaqualone seizures rose in the late 1980s - with a record high reported in 1987 following the dismantling of the first large methaqualone laboratory in the country. Following gradual increases over the 1989-92 period, seizures fell over the 1992-94 period, the last years of the old regime, and even more strongly over the 1994-96 period, the first two years of the new regime. Seizures started rising again over the 1996-98 period, and reached again the levels of the early 1990s (ARQs, various years).

Such patterns may reflect shifting enforcement priorities and the emergence of crack-cocaine on the market; but it may be also interesting to note that these patterns coincide with anecdotal reports of alleged involvement of some groups on the side of the apartheid government and some groups on the side of the freedom fighters to use methaqualone manufacture and trafficking as a means to weaken the respective enemy, i.e. by either providing deprived communities with mandrax in order to 'appease' them and weaken their readiness to stand up against the apartheid regime, or to raise necessary finances for the fight against the apartheid regime (OGD 1996). The underlying reasons for such kind of illegal activities faded away with the end the apartheid regime. Parallel, trafficking in methaqualone appears to have lost in importance, notably in the first years of the transformation process (1994-96). In subsequent years, however, purely profit-oriented criminal groups have apparently seized again existing market opportunities. It goes without saying, that much of the above explanation is still highly speculative at this point in time.

By contrast, the shift towards increased domestic production appears to be a well established fact, resulting from the crack-down on methaqualone production in India in the early 1990s. (OGD, 1997/98). This is *inter alia* also reflected in rising amounts of methaqualone that is not seized "in units" (end-product) but in weight terms. The latter usually reflects seizures at the site of clandestine laboratories.



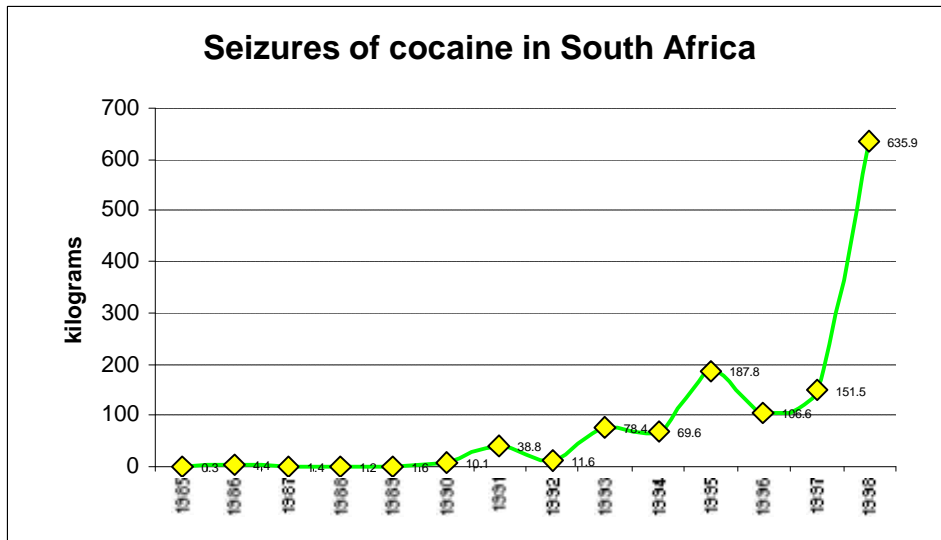
Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 4

Trafficking in cocaine

There can be no doubt that trafficking in cocaine has shown strong increases in recent years. Whatever indicator is used, cocaine-powder and crack-cocaine are showing upwards. The upward trend is also reflected in seizures (volumes of drugs confiscated). There has been a strong increase in cocaine seizures in recent years which is not just a reflection of increased law enforcement efforts. While in the past South Africa only served as a transshipment place for cocaine from Latin America to Europe (and more recently to Australia (SAMRC, 1999), South Africa is increasingly establishing itself as an important

market for cocaine, notably by African standards⁵. More than 80% of all African cocaine seizures in 1998 took place in South Africa (ARQ, 1998), up from a share of just 5% in 1993.



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 5

Back in 1993 more than 90% of all African cocaine seizures had still taken place in Nigeria (ARQs, 1993). But the shifts from Nigeria to South Africa do not reflect a loss of influence of Nigerian drug trafficking groups. 80% of the cocaine trade in Southern Africa is estimated to be controlled by West African trafficking organisations, notably Nigerians (Drug Advisory Board, 1998). Traffickers from Nigeria, and to a lesser extent from Ghana, have dominated Johannesburg's cocaine market since 1993. But, much of the distribution to the final consumer is already in the hands of local South African gangs.

Ethnographic research within South Africa indicates that the cocaine epidemic did not simply happen, but that the market was actively developed by the drug trafficking groups, often through free give-aways to sex workers in exchange for their assistance in promoting and distributing the cocaine (or crack-cocaine) among their clients. Notably Nigerian groups have thus "developed" the market. The expansion of the market is now maintained through a rather sophisticated system in which addicts do not have to pay in cash, but can also pay in kind. This means that they can "pay" with stolen goods which are then again re-sold to people in deprived communities at relatively low prices. (UNDCP, Mission 1999).

Initially, most cocaine was brought by the West African groups from Brazil into South Africa (Johannesburg). But, following successes of airport police in detecting this smuggling route, a number of alternative routes emerged, including flights to Cape Town and flights to other African countries and then by land to South Africa, including from Mozambique, Angola, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Namibia. (OGD, 1997/98).

Some of the cocaine imports from Latin America for white clubs is allegedly controlled by individuals and groups associated with the Italian mafia (notably the Cosa Nostra). Following the crack-down on the mafia in Italy, a number of mafiosi have taken refuge in South Africa and have started their new careers with both legal and illegal activities. Illegal activities include involvement in the cocaine trade and in money laundering operations (OGD, 1997/98).

⁵ Cocaine seizures are still relatively small by global standards; they accounted for 0.2% of global cocaine seizures in 1998.

Cocaine seizures in Africa in 1998		
	Seizures in kg	as a percentage of all seizures reported from Africa
South Africa	635.9	81.3%
Angola	38.0	4.9%
Morocco	30.1	3.9%
Cote d'Ivoire	19.0	2.4%
Togo*	13.9	1.8%
Swaziland*	9.7	1.2%
Nigeria	9.3	1.2%
Zambia*	6.5	0.8%
Senegal	5.3	0.7%
Lesotho*	2.3	0.3%
Mozambique	2.1	0.3%
Namibia	2.1	0.3%
Egypt	1.9	0.2%
Malawi	1.5	0.2%
Kenya	1.2	0.2%
Botswana	0.7	0.1%
Benin	0.6	0.1%
Zimbabwe	0.5	0.1%
Grand Total*	781.7	100.0%
* data for 1997.		
** categories "other African countries" and "Africa" include data for 1997 for the countries for which no 1998 data are available.		
Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.		

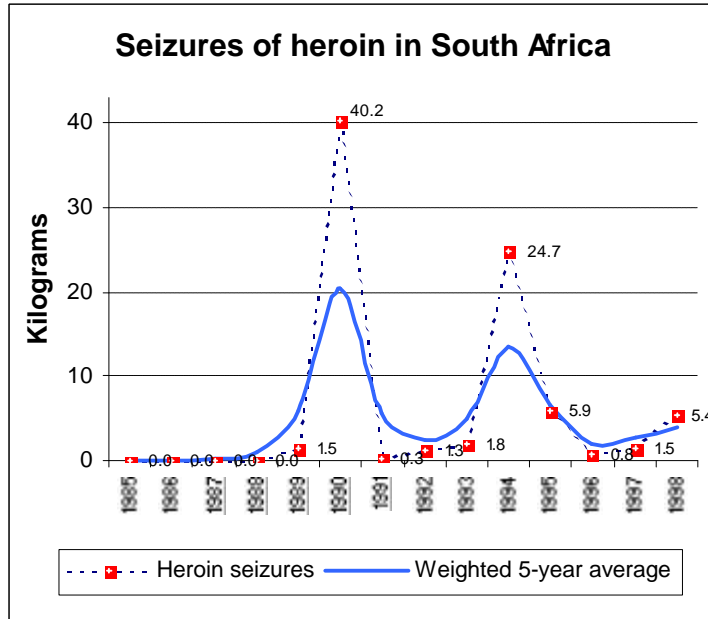
Much of the crime and violence in South Africa seems to be already linked to the need to pay for cocaine consumption as well as to the fights among gangs trying to increase their market shares. In particular Cape-Town has been affected by such gang wars. There are some 400 gangs in Cape Town's coloured townships, comprising some 80,000 members (OGD, 1997/98).

Cape-Town and Gauteng (province around Johannesburg) are the largest cocaine markets in South Africa, but cocaine is spreading to other areas as well. In value terms, 28% of all seizures in Cape-Town and 54% of all seizures in Gauteng (first half of the year) could be attributed to cocaine in 1998. (SAMRC, 1999).

Heroin trafficking

In contrast to South Africa's role as an important transshipment point and market for cocaine, the extent of heroin trafficking is still rather modest. South Africa's heroin seizures in 1998 have been equivalent to 5% of all African heroin seizures (and this percentage may still fall as more seizure reports from other African countries are to be obtained). South Africa is being used as a transshipment point for heroin from mainly South-West and South-East Asia (and to a lesser extent Colombia (SAMRC, 1999)) to markets in the USA and Europe. But the quantities involved are still rather small, which makes it difficult to identify clear trends based on seizure data. Chinese, Indian and Pakistani groups are thought to be involved in heroin smuggling (Drug Advisory Board, 1998).

The emergence of a domestic heroin market is still in its infancy. However, there have been reports of increasing popularity of heroin among school children, notably among South Africa's white-middle class (UNDCP's mission, 1999).

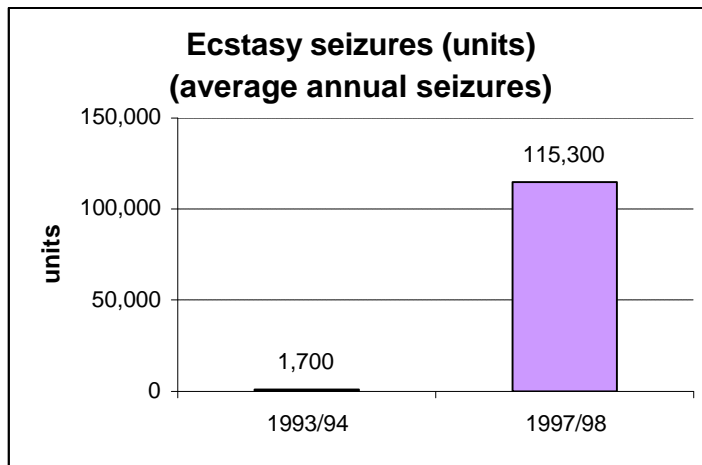


Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 6

Trafficking in ecstasy, LSD and amphetamines

Similar to trends in Europe, ecstasy has gained strongly in popularity in recent years in South Africa - and similar to the situation in western Europe, use of **ecstasy** has been closely associated with rave parties and the club scene. Parallel with the increased popularity of these drugs, seizures also grew strongly. In 1997/98 South Africa had by far the highest number of ecstasy seizures of any African country and ranked 9th at the global level. Compared to Europe, the spread of ecstasy occurred, however, rather late (starting in 1994 only). The rave parties bring together on average nearly 10,000 people at least twice a month in the large cities (Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban). Authorities estimate that 70% of youths attending these parties may take synthetic drugs of which the preferred drug is ecstasy (MDMA). (OGD, 1997/98).

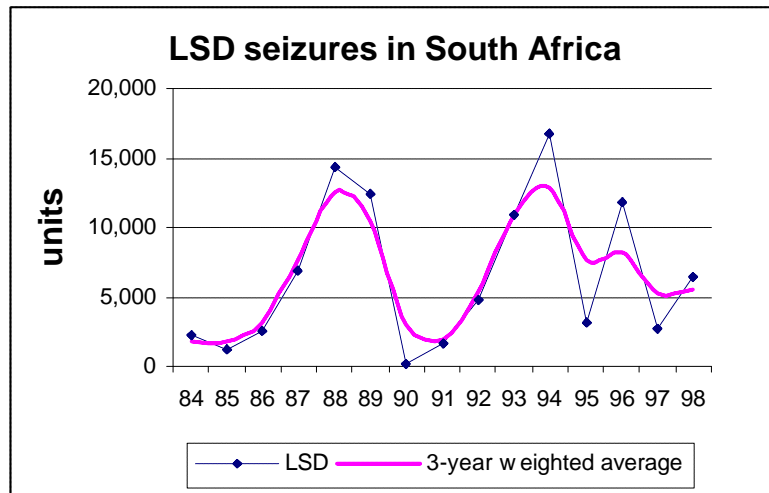


Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 7

Though a few ecstasy laboratories have been seized in South Africa, the bulk of that substance comes from Europe, notably from the Netherlands and the UK. Both consumption and trafficking is in the hand of white groups of South Africans as well as some Europeans (notably from the UK and the Netherlands).

Like ecstasy, consumption and trafficking of **LSD** is largely in the hands of white South Africans. But the popularity of LSD, and thus trafficking in this substance, is less significant than ecstasy. Since 1994, seizures of LSD have been on a downward trend (following an upward trend in the early 1990s). Nonetheless, seizures of LSD were the largest in Africa, and the 15th largest worldwide in 1997.



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 8

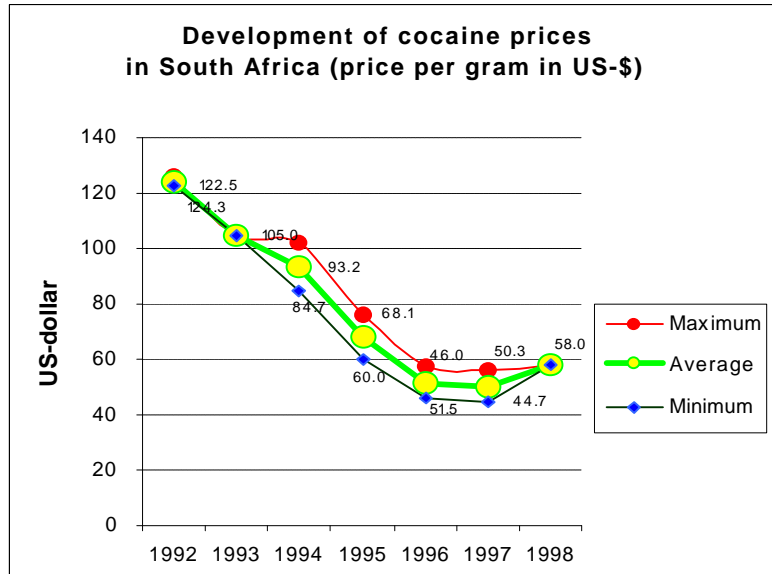
Easy availability of **speed (methamphetamine)** has been reported from South Africa. Speed is frequently trafficked together with ecstasy or together with LSD (SAMRC, 1999b). However, large scale availability is not - as yet - reflected in South African seizure data reported to UNDCP.

4.5. Diversion of drugs

In addition to trafficking of drugs from illicit sources, there is also some diversion from licit sources. Traditionally, diversions concerned mainly synthetic opiates such as **Wellconal, morphine or pethidine**. More recently, diversions were also reported for benzodiazepines, notably **diazepam (Valium)**. (ARQ 1998 and previous years). There have been also cases of diversion of **flunitrazepam (Rohypnol)**, another benzodiazepine. The overall extent of diversions, however, seems to be less significant if compared to many other African countries.

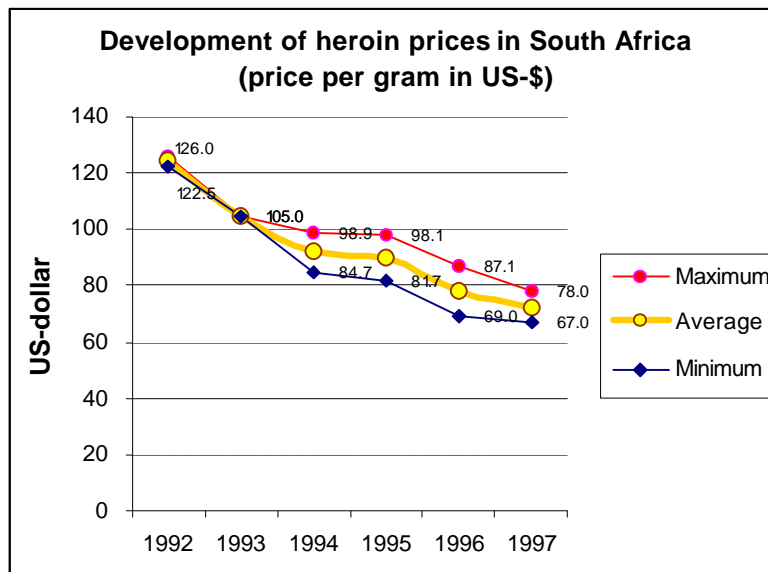
4.6. Drug Prices

In line with reports of increasing availability of drugs in South Africa, drug prices have shown a strong downward trend over the last few years. This is particularly true once drug prices are translated into US-dollars. According to information provided by the authorities to UNDCP's Annual Reports Questionnaire, heroin prices - if expressed in US-dollars at current exchange rates - fell by 42% between 1992 and 1997 (latest available figures). Cocaine prices fell by even 53% between 1992 and 1998. The decline in prices is certainly one factor which reflects the "successful" marketing strategies of drug trafficking groups that enabled a rapidly growing attractiveness of cocaine in recent years. Lower prices have made cocaine affordable to a far broader range of people, including youth, than was the case before. (UNDCP/WHO 1998). In other words, profits have grown due to lower prices and not despite lower prices. Both heroin and cocaine prices in South Africa are now substantially lower than in North America or Western Europe. Cocaine prices are about half of those in western Europe and a third lower than in North America.



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 9



Source: UNDCP, Annual Reports Questionnaire Data.

Figure 10

Some of the decline in recent years has been due to the falling exchange rate of the Rand against the US-dollar. But, there would have been a decline even if exchange rates had remained stable. Translated at 1997 exchange rates, the average national street prices, as reported by SANAB, fell by **17%-19% for cocaine and heroin** over the 1993-97 period. Even stronger was the fall for **methaqualone and ecstasy** prices (**-27%**). By contrast, cannabis herb prices remained stable which indicates at least that there was no massive increase in cannabis production over the 1993-97 period. Prices remained also stable for speed. However, in 1998 prices of speed starting falling. (SAMRC, 1999b).

**Street prices of illicit drugs in South Africa (national estimates),
(translated at a constant exchange rate of 1 US-\$ = 5.91 Rands)**

	1993	1997	Change
Methaqualone (tablet)	9.31	6.77	-27.3%
Ecstasy tablet	18.61*	13.54	-27.2%
Heroin (gm)	52.45	42.30	-19.4%
Cocaine (gm)	50.76	42.30	-16.7%
Cannabis (joint)	0.17	0.17	0.0%
Speed (unit)	8.46**	8.46	0.0%
LSD (unit)	n.a.	8.46***	n.a.
Hashish (gm)	n.a.	0.85***	n.a.

* 1994; ** 1996; *** prices

Source: SANAB, quoted in Charles Parry and Andreas Plüddemann (South African Medical Research Council), "Draft Country Profile: South Africa for UN World Drug Report", October 1998.

4.7. Demand

The most widespread drug use in South Africa - beyond doubt - concerns cannabis, followed by methaqualone. This is confirmed by all available data.

The most "recent" general population survey at the national level, however, dates back to 1990. The 1990 national survey, undertaken by the Human Sciences Research Council, revealed that **cannabis** use (annual prevalence) among black African males (14 years and above) ranged from 5.3% in homelands to 22.3% in squatter settlements. For comparison, annual prevalence of cannabis use in the EU is at around 5 ½ % and in the USA at around 9% (average in the 1990s).

The next most widespread substance was a combination of **cannabis and methaqualone ("white pipe")**. In squatter settlements it reached a high of 5.7% among the male population above the age of 14.

The use of **opiates** has been also widespread even though heroin was hardly known in South Africa at the beginning of the 1990s. 12.4% of females and 10% of males reported to have used either **morphine, pethidine or Wellconal (dipipanone hydrochloride)** in the 12 months prior to the survey, suggesting a significant level of diversion from licit sources. The number of people injecting opiates, however, was very low, representing a general aversion against needles in South African society, notably among the majority black population.

Cocaine had only started to enter South Africa and overall levels of abuse were thus still low. Nonetheless, 17.2% of men in towns - i.e. in areas where cocaine was already available at that time - admitted to having experimented with cocaine over the last twelve months, (HSRC 1990) clearly indicating that South African society was extremely susceptible to cocaine once available.

A number of more recent surveys among special sections of South Africa's population indicate that the basic ranking has not changed though cocaine and crack-cocaine are increasingly becoming popular and ecstasy is consumed strongly among youth attending rave parties. Based on a comprehensive review of all existing studies, and taking into account the results of the South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use (SACENDU), the South African Medical Research Council has arrived at the following ranking on the extent of use and drug related morbidity (as reflected in treatment data): **cannabis**, followed by **methaqualone**; the third place with regard to the extent is held by **'other depressants'** (mostly benzodizepines); in terms of morbidity and thus treatment demand, the third place is held by **cocaine and crack-cocaine** in 1997/98.

Drug Abuse in South Africa (1997/98)			
Extent of use Ranking		Morbidity (treatment) Ranking	
1	Cannabis	1	Cannabis
2	Methaqualone	2	Methaqualone
3	Other depressants (mostly benzodiazepnes)	3	Cocaine/crack
4	Inhalants (glue, thinners)	4	Other depressants (mostly benzodiazepines)
5	Cocaine/Crack	5	Heroin and other opiates
6	Amphetamine-type stimulants (Ecstasy and speed)	6	Amphetamine-type stimulants (Ecstasy and speed)
7	LSD	7	LSD
8	Heroin and other opiates	8	Inhalants (glue, thinners)

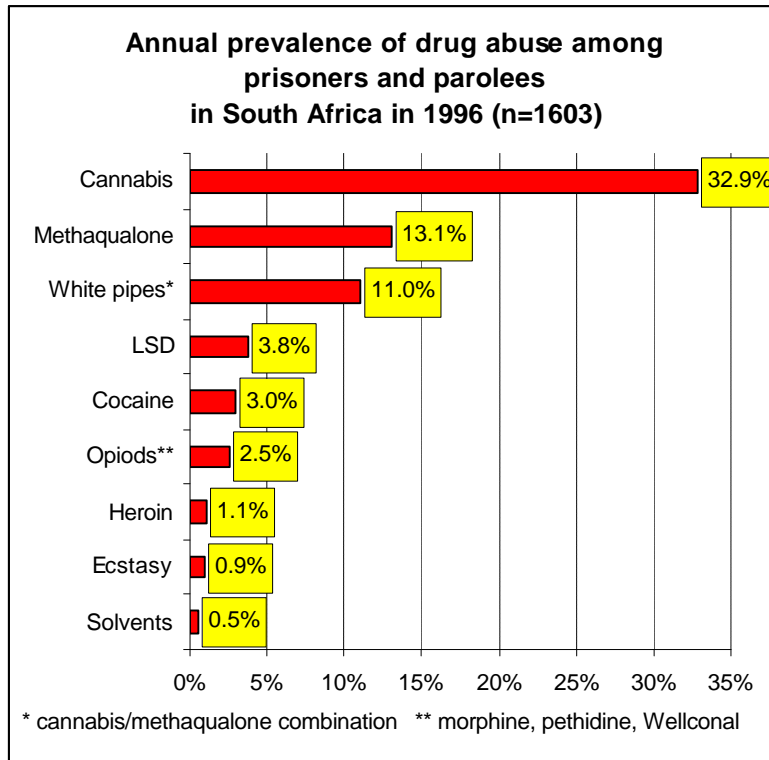
Source: South African Medical Research Council, "Draft Country Profile: South Africa for UN World Drug Report", October 1998.

The strongest **growth in abuse** and treatment demand in the last few years was observed for **cocaine** (including crack-cocaine). The next fastest growth was in amphetamine-type stimulants, notably **ecstasy**. Growth in demand for treatment was strongest for cocaine, followed by the **opiates** (including heroin). These results are again based on the comprehensive review of literature and ongoing monitoring of the drug abuse situation done by the South African Medical Research Council.

Trends in Drug Abuse in South Africa (1994/95-1997/98)					
Trends in extent of use (increase + / decrease -)			Trend in morbidity (treatment) (increase + / decrease -)		
1	Cocaine/Crack	+	1	Cocaine/Crack	+
2	Amphetamine-type stimulants (Ecstasy and speed)	+	2	Heroin and other opiates	+
3	Cannabis	+	3	Amphetamine-type stimulants (Ecstasy and speed)	+
4	Other depressants (mostly benzodiazepines)	+	4	Cannabis	+
5	LSD	+	5	Other depressants (mostly benzodiazepines)	+
6	Heroin and other opiates	+	6	LSD	+
7	Inhalants (glue, thinners)	-	7	Methaqualone	-
8	Methaqualone	-	8	Inhalants (glue, thinners)	-

Source: South African Medical Research Council, "Draft Country Profile: South Africa for UN World Drug Report", October 1998.

A national survey among 1,440 incarcerated male prisoners and 163 sentenced prisoners on probation or correctional supervision, undertaken in 1996, confirmed the dominance of abuse of cannabis and methaqualone in South Africa. A third of the prisoners have been using cannabis and 13% have been using methaqualone, still a significantly larger number than had been reported for cocaine (3%) or heroin (1.1%). It may be also interesting to note that only 0.6% of the prisoners had injected drugs. Annual prevalence of LSD exceeded that of cocaine. But this may have changed since.



Source: Human Sciences Research Council, *Nature, extent and development of alcohol/drug-related crime*, Pretoria 1996.

Figure 11

Another interesting study among pupils in Cape Town in 1997 (n= 2770) confirmed the above mentioned pattern - though with some modifications. In this age group inhalants (glue) play a far larger role. The use of ecstasy exceeds that of crack-cocaine. Data also confirm that drug consumption, in general, is significantly larger among males than among females, i.e. twice or three times as large. The only exception is ecstasy. In the case of the latter substance, male abuse is only a third higher than abuse among females. While life-time prevalence rates may seem already very high, a comparison with US data ("Monitoring the Future Study") suggests that overall levels of drug abuse among high-school students in South Africa is still smaller than in the USA.

Life-time prevalence of substance abuse among 11 th graders in Cape Town in 1997				
	Cape-town			Memo: USA 1997
	Male	Female	Unweighted average	10 th graders (Monitoring the Future study)
Cannabis	32.0%	13.1%	22.6%	42.3%
Glue / inhalants	15.8%	4.9%	10.4%	18.3%
"White pipe" (cannabis/methaqualone)	5.7%	1.9%	3.8%	N.a.
Ecstasy	4.3%	3.1%	3.7%	6.9%*
Crack-cocaine	2.6%	1.0%	1.8%	7.1%
Other	3.9%	2.4%	3.2%	n.a.

* figure for 12th graders.
 Source: Flisher et al, *The South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use (SACENDU)*, Part IV: "Prevalence rates of alcohol, tobacco and other drug use among Cape Town students in Grades 8 and 11"; Symposium paper presented at the 4th Annual Congress of the Psychological Society of South Africa, Cape Town, September 1998.

There are also some important **regional differences** in South Africa's drug market. Based on the proportions (primary substance of abuse) of people in treatment centres, data suggest that

- ! Gauteng (Johannesburg) may be the largest market for cocaine, followed by Cape Town;
- ! Cape Town is the largest methaqualone market, ahead of Johannesburg;
- ! Cape Town may be also the largest heroin market, ahead of Durban; .
- ! Durban is - in relative terms - the largest market for cannabis, ahead of Port Elisabeth.

Data also confirm that **the strongest growth throughout South Africa** in recent years **was in cocaine**; there has been also an increase with regard to heroin. The situation is less clear-cut for other drugs.

Primary substance of abuse: Treatment Centres (in % of total)									
Town	Period	Cannabis	Cannabis / methaqualone	Cocaine/ Crack	Heroin	Ecstasy	Over the counter / prescription drugs	Other drugs	Alcohol
Cape Town	1996b	4	9	2	1	<1	2	2	81
	1998a	5	10	6	2	<1	2	> 1	74
Durban	1996b	10	10	1	< 1	< 1	1	4	73
	1997b	21	6	3	1	1	3	2	62
Port Elisabeth	1996b	35		< 1	< 1	< 1	4	11	50
	1998a	20		0	0	< 1	3	6	71
Gauteng (Johannesburg)	1996b	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	1998a	11	4	8	< 1	<1	4	2	69
Unweighted average*	1998a	12	7	6	1	<1	3	2	68

a/ January-June b/ July-December
 *Cape Town, Johannesburg and Durban.
 Source: South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use (SACENDU).

4.8. Consequences (HIV/AIDS)

The consequences of drug consumption are to be found in **rising treatment demand**. In the first half of 1998 already 4,500 patients had to be treated in Cape Town, Port Elisabeth and Johannesburg/Pretoria for drug abuse - and this is probably only the tip of the iceberg.

Another consequence is **drug related violence** which is also reflected in **drug-related injuries**. A 1997 study of drug-related trauma for instance, undertaken by the South African Medical Research Council, found that 40% of injuries at a large hospital in Cape Town were already drug-related. Chemical analysis revealed that 29% of the patients had THC in their urine, 10% had methaqualone in their blood and 2% cocaine. Most patients (85%) were injured as a result of violence, which - at least indirectly - was drug-related. (SAMRC 1998).

Another serious problem is the high rate of **HIV infection**. In 1997 a national survey of women attending ante-natal clinics (n=12,343) revealed that 16% had already tested positive for HIV, representing a 13% increase on a year earlier, and a number of subsequent studies has shown even higher rates. The press has reported that one out of five babies borne in South Africa is HIV infected. UNAIDS estimated that some 2.4 million South Africans were already infected with HIV in 1998. Drug use is likely to be associated with the spread of HIV infections even though the rate of intravenous drug use is still comparatively small in South Africa. The link between drugs and AIDS is mainly due to unsafe sex and a weakened immune system due to drug use. (SAMRC 1998).

6. POLICY

5.1 Drugs

6.1.1. National Drug Control Framework

The basis for the national drug control framework is the **National Drug Master Plan**, adopted by parliament in February 1999. The elaboration of such a Plan was felt necessary as the Government's response to the drug problem - as stated in the National Drug Master Plan - had been "*disjointed, fragmented and uncoordinated.*" A number of national plans or strategies to address different aspects of substance abuse were drafted during the 1980s and early 1990s. But they did not provide a comprehensive response to the deteriorating drug problem of South Africa, and were not properly implemented. Thus in 1997, the Minister of Welfare and Population Development requested the Drug Advisory Board (established in 1995) to develop a National Drug Master Plan for South Africa to rectify these problems "in accordance with international practice". The new Master Plan stipulates a balanced approach. It aims to, "bring about a decrease in the availability of drugs (control and law enforcement) and the demand for them (through prevention, treatment and rehabilitation)." Related operations and activities are still in planning stages, having been slowed by the national election in May 1999 and the inauguration of a new Government on June 16, 1999.

The South African Police Service's Narcotics Bureau (SANAB) has the lead on the enforcement side. The state largely provides resources for the treatment of persons having substance abuse problems through non-governmental organizations such as the South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse (SANCA). Funding for treatment, however, is inadequate and facilities are poorly distributed throughout the country. The health and education sectors are minimally involved and scant resources are spent on prevention. The latter gap is filled in part by a highly dedicated group of NGOs and concerned citizens, but their capabilities and mandates are limited.

6.1.1.1 Budget

It is impossible to determine accurately the amount of Government spending on drug supply and demand reduction activities, but a drop in spending on demand reduction and treatment activities relative to supply reduction has almost certainly occurred over the past few years. Treatment centers have been closed, and a plan to have more substance abuse cases handled by way of the primary health care system has not been developed. Without an increase in the budget for prevention activities, the national and provincial Departments of Welfare have generally had to reduce their support to NGOs involved in prevention activities, and have themselves initiated few prevention activities, one exception being the national "I'm Addicted to Life" campaign launched in 1995.

6.1.1.2 Convention Adherence

Under the previous Government, South Africa became a signatory to the 1961 UN Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, the 1972 Protocol (which amended the Single Convention) and the 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances. The Government signed the 1988 UN Convention Against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substance in December 1998.

It was hoped to have the Money Laundering Control Bill enacted before signing the 1988 Convention, but legal opinion was that the legislative basis was sufficient to ratify the Convention without that step having been taken. Further, the Organised Crime Bill, which was "super fast-tracked" through Parliament in December 1998, makes provision for new powers for police and prosecutors to seize criminals' assets on the grounds of "a balance of probabilities" rather than "beyond a criminal doubt." That ruling, however, has been successfully challenged in the court system during the past few months, thereby requiring the Government to revise the Bill. Meanwhile, work is going forward on a standard Money Laundering Control Bill.

6.1.1.3 Legislation

The **South African Drugs and Drug Trafficking Act**, passed in 1992, makes it an offense to supply substances to anyone while knowing or suspecting they will be used for the manufacture of illegal drugs. The Act further prohibits any person from converting property that they know or suspect to be gained from the proceeds of drug trafficking, and makes dealing in dangerous and undesirable drugs and

offense punishable by up to 25 years imprisonment. The maximum sentence for the possession of drugs is 15 years. There are no prescribed minimum sentences.

In 1996, Parliament passed the **International Co-operation on Criminal Matters Act** and the **Proceeds of Crime Act**. The former provides formal procedures to be used in the obtaining and providing of information in the course of a criminal investigation that spans international borders as well as the procedures for the repatriation of the proceeds of crime. The latter criminalizes money laundering in general, and provides procedures for the restraining and confiscation of the proceeds of crime. The **Extradition Amendment Act of 1996** provides for the designation of states to which extradition may be effected in the absence of formal agreements.

6.1.1.4 Drug Control Institutions

The **National Drug Master Plan** calls for the creation of a **Central Drug Authority** to monitor its implementation with a high-profile director and representation from all concerned Government agencies, as well as selected members of civic society. The latter are to come from research councils and universities, trade unions and business establishments concerned about drug abuse. A small secretariat is to support this central authority after it has been created. Local drug action committees and provincial drug forums are also to be formed. This is a work in progress.

The **Narcotics Bureau (SANAB)** in the **South African Police Service (SAPS)** was established in 1974 to combat drug trafficking and abuse. In 1995, its investigative activities were divided into crimes involving large drug-trafficking syndicates, to be dealt with by the Organized Crime Project Investigations Unit, and smaller cases of possession and dealing, which are handled by regular SANAB units.

The **Department of Welfare** and the **Department of Education** both support public awareness programs on the dangers of drug abuse, as do several NGOs. For example, "**Soul City**" is a highly successful multi-media health education initiative advocating healthy lifestyles for youth. The **South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse (SANCA)** has a network of drug treatment centres around the country and also trains drug abuse counselors and others in related roles (e.g., teachers and social workers). The **South African Alliance for the Prevention of Substance Abuse (SAAPSA)** is also active in the field, as are other NGOs (e.g., Lions International's Programme for Adolescents, Youth for Christ, Horizon Programme).

6.1.1.5. Main Characteristics of National Drug Control Policy

South Africa has a balanced approach to reducing the supply and demand for drugs. One aspect of the Government's demand reduction policies includes "*harm reduction*", which aims to reduce the harm associated with drug use rather than to reduce or eliminate drug use per se.

The overall objectives set out in South Africa's National Drug Master Plan are, "to build a drug free society together and to make a contribution to solving the global problem of substance abuse." Priorities are: (a) to reduce drug-related crime; (b) protect youth; (c) support community health and welfare; (d) strengthen research and information dissemination; (e) encourage international involvement; and (f) improve communication on substance abuse with all groups in South Africa's highly diverse population.

6.1.1.6 Control of Licit Drugs

Licit drugs in South Africa are managed by the **Medicines and Related Substances Control Act of 1965**. The Act supports the processes set out in the major UN Conventions on drug control.

6.1.2 Supply Reduction

The **South African Police Service's Narcotics Bureau (SANAB)** has sole responsibility for supply reduction. Founded in 1974 and organizationally under the SAPS' Organized Crime Division, SANAB is staffed by approximately 700 officers, some 150 of whom are directly integrated into the national police structure while the remaining 550 have been incorporated into provincial units. A small group, based near Johannesburg, concentrates on syndicates. Other small teams deal with international trafficking at Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town international airports and at the major seaports. Coverage at border posts is provided by uniformed SAPS officers. SANAB officers are in the nearby cities and cover the frontier on an "as needed basis."

6.1.3 Demand Reduction

6.1.3.1 Prevention

Reducing the demand for drugs is an integral part of the South African Government's drugs policy. In May 1995, the national and provincial **Departments of Welfare** embarked upon a national school-based education initiative, "I'm Addicted to Life," aimed at teen-agers between the ages of 11 and 20 years. The television series involved 13 x 9-minute episodes and 13 x 2-minute endorsements. Radio spots, posters, and information leaflets were also produced and distributed to schools. The Government also sponsored an anti-drug pledge campaign in the schools. Other initiatives include the "Go Project" which aims to prevent the incarceration of juveniles in prisons and to place them in safe locations while they are awaiting trial.

The **National Department of Education** is currently involved in implementing its Curriculum 2005 initiative. This includes a life skills education component which seeks to address adolescent risk behaviors, such as drug use, as part of a holistic initiative aimed at the healthy development of young people.

The **Culture of Learning, Teaching and Service (COLTS) Campaign**, initiated by President Mandela in February 1997, addresses crime and substance abuse in schools. Further, the **National Drug Master Plan** encourages schools and institutions in Further Education and Training and Higher Education to take responsibility for substance-abuse problems found among their students.

Several highly committed **NGOs** actively support drug awareness and prevention programs. These include "**Soul City**," the **South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse (SANCA)**, the Lions Quest Skills for Adolescents Program (Lions International) and the Cape Town Drug Counseling Center.

6.1.3.2 Treatment

There is a relatively wide network of public and private substance-abuse treatment facilities in South Africa. These include **some 300 organizations** where support and after-care are provided; 67 community treatment facilities; 147 provincial and private hospitals and psychiatric hospitals; 12 detoxification facilities; and 25 specialist in-patient units/half-way houses.

However, the above facilities are **largely in urban areas**. The overcrowded former "**townships**," informal settlements and rural areas are grossly **under-serviced**. There are no in-patient treatment facilities at all in the Northern Cape Province. Detoxification services, at hospitals in particular, are generally inadequate or non-existent. Further, insufficient funds and lack of personnel threaten existing services and their further development, while after-care services providing for the reintegration of patients into the community are either inadequate or not available.

6.1.4 Money Laundering Control Measures

The **Proceeds of Crime Act of 1996** criminalises money laundering in general, and provides procedures for the restraining and confiscation of the proceeds of crime. Further, the **Organized Crime Bill of 1998** makes provision for the forfeiture of criminals' assets on the grounds of a "balance of probabilities" rather than "beyond a reasonable doubt."

The drafting of a proper money laundering bill, however, has proven controversial and time consuming. It appears as if such a Bill will be submitted to Parliament before the end of 1999. The **Money Laundering Control Bill** of 1997—which has yet to be submitted to Parliament—makes certain bodies and institutions "accountable institutions." Bodies and institutions which receive money on behalf of clients in the normal course of business will be required to identify them and to keep proper records of business transactions with them. Certain transactions which the potential of being used for money laundering purposes will have to be reported to a central authority.

6.1.5 International and Regional Cooperation

The South African National Drug Master Plan cites the need for "international involvement" as one of its five main areas of focus. The South African Police Service has accordingly posted an **International Drug and Organized Crime Liaison Officer (DOCLO) in London** and approved the appointments of

DOCLOs to Pakistan, India, Brazil, Argentina, Thailand, Kenya, Nigeria, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The expansion of the **DOCLO network** is intended to enhance co-operation on intelligence sharing and joint investigations with participating countries.

In terms of regional cooperation, South Africa is also a signatory to the **Protocol on Combating Illicit Drug Trafficking in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)** region. This was ratified by Parliament in July 1998. The Protocol provides a policy framework that allows the SADC region to cooperate to insure that it does not become a producer, consumer, exporter and distributor of illicit drugs or a conduit for illicit drugs destined for international markets. South Africa is also an active member of the **Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (SARPCCO)**.

6.2 Cooperation with International Bodies

The South African Government is an **active participant in international organizations concerned with drug control and crime prevention**. For example, the Government sent a delegation of senior officials—headed by the Minister of Safety and Security—to the UNGA's June 1998 Special Session on the World Drug Problem, and participates actively in the Commission on Narcotics Drugs (CND).

Close operational ties exist between the South African Police Service (particularly the Narcotics Bureau) and the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol). One very successful area of cooperation has been the use of the Interpol X400 system to circulate the identities of potential couriers employed by drug traffickers to alert the law enforcement agencies of other countries.

South Africa hosts drug liaison officers (DLOs) from the United States' Drug Enforcement Administration, Customs, Federal Bureau of Investigation and from the United Kingdom and France.

7. OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE

7.1. *ODCCP Program of Assistance*

ODCCP Southern Africa has set the following eight operational objectives for itself in 1999:

- A. Strengthen capacities of the Governments of South Africa, Mozambique, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland to control the supply of drugs through the provision of training and equipment;
- B. Assist the Governments of Malawi, Mozambique, Botswana, Swaziland and Lesotho to put in place the institutions and legislation required to control the abuse and trafficking of drugs more effectively;
- C. Strengthen capacities of the Government of South Africa to counter organized and commercial crime and corruption;
- D. Strengthen the capacities of the Government of South Africa to counter violence against women and to improve its system of juvenile justice;
- E. Assist the Governments of South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe to develop and strengthen resource centers on drug abuse;
- F. Assist the Government of South Africa to develop ten drug treatment centers;
- G. Establish cooperation agreements and related assistance on issues of drug control and crime prevention with the major regional organizations on those issues in Southern Africa, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (SARPCCO);
- H. Increase empirical bases for improved drug control and crime prevention in the region, specifically with assessments of marijuana cultivation, mapping of organized crime groups, and a study of the links between drug abuse and economic development .

Means of Achieving Goals:

GOALS	ACTIONS
a. Institution Building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draft and pass enabling legislation in support of the three principal UN Conventions on drug control in Swaziland, Lesotho and Namibia ; • Form inter-ministerial coordinating commissions on drug control in Malawi, Botswana, Swaziland, and Mozambique; • Develop national strategies for controlling drug abuse and trafficking in Botswana and Zimbabwe; • Support the drafting and passage of national gun control legislation in South Africa; • Support the development of the Office of the National Director of Public Prosecutions in South Africa, particularly the NDPP's Asset Forfeiture Unit and Witness Protection Program; and • Strengthen institutions in South Africa to control corruption, to counter violence against women and strengthen juvenile justice.
b. Regional Co-operation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sign a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the Southern African Development Community (SADC) on drug control. • Explore possibilities for drafting and signing a MoU with the SADC Legal Sector on matters related to organized crime, corruption and illegal trafficking in human beings. • With SADC, organize legal drafting workshops leading to regional treaties on extradition and mutual legal assistance in criminal matters. Support an assistance project to improve the processing of drug-related cases in sixteen governments in Southern and Eastern Africa. • Establish a working relationship with the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (SARPCCO) for the purposes of • Conducting training aimed at improving border controls in the region; and • Draft assistance project to improve gun control in the SARPCCO region.
d. Increase Empirical Bases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct rapid assessments of drug abuse in Mozambique and Malawi. • Survey the extent of cannabis cultivation in Swaziland, Lesotho, Malawi and Mozambique. • Follow-up on "Drug Nexus" study to develop project proposals on the links between drug abuse and economic development.
d. Drug Supply Reduction and Law Enforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide assistance to drug law enforcement units in South Africa, Mozambique, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. • Training for judicial officers in processing drug related cases through the courts.
e. Drug Demand Reduction and Treatment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct rapid assessment of drug abuse in selected countries in the region (Malawi, Swaziland, and Mozambique). • Support drug awareness centres in Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa. • Support ten drug treatment centres in South Africa.
f. HIV/Aids & Drugs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussions with UNAIDS and WHO • Prepare project outlines and submit to headquarters • Fund raising
d. Counter Corruption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss with national leaders and regional leaders • Discuss with other concerned UN agencies • Submit project outlines to headquarters
d. Awareness Raising And Advocacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Launch and support the conduct of a major fund raising campaign for improved demand reduction in South Africa • Give press conferences in support of INCB annual report • Appear on television and give radio interviews when possible • Give public speeches where possible • Support mini-Dublin groups

Programme Objectives for UN ODCCP - South Africa				
	Drug control		Crime Prevention	Research
	Supply Reduction	Demand Reduction (Prev/Treat & Rehab)		
National Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Institutions building Draft and pass enabling legislation in support of the UN Conventions Form inter-ministerial Committees on drug control Enhance drug law Enforcement capacities Support development of drug-control master plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct rapid assessment of drug abuse in selected countries in the region (Malawi, Swaziland and Mozambique) Support drug awareness centres in Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa Support ten drug treatment Centres in South Africa. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support centres to counter violence against women Support the development of juvenile justice Support National Directorate of Public Prosecutions Support National Crime Prevention Strategy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assess the extent of cannabis cultivation in Malawi, Swaziland and Lesotho Assessment of drug abuse in selected countries Mapping of organized crime groups
Subregional Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved border controls Enhanced law Enforcement Counter Money Laundering 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With SADC, organize legal drafting workshops leading to regional treaties on extradition and mutual legal assistance in criminal matters by December 1999 Gun controls Support efforts to counter corruption 	

7.2 Other donors' programmes of assistance

Nearly all major industrialized countries provide technical assistance for the strengthening of the judicial and law enforcement capacities of the Government of South Africa. **More assistance has been provided for judicial processes and crime prevention than for drug control.**

However, South Africa has an active **mini-Dublin group** currently chaired by the Swedish Embassy. The **European Commission** has adopted a regional focus to address drug related issues through support for the **SADC Regional Drug Control Programme (SRDCP)**. The Commission has also contributed to the UNDCP's assistance project on capacity building and human resource development for drug interdiction in South Africa (SAF/978).

Germany supports projects in the framework of an agreement on police assistance and France supports projects involving training in the field of money laundering and crime prevention. The United Kingdom supports projects on capacity building at the Johannesburg International Airport and in the general area of judicial reform. The Scandinavian Governments, particularly Sweden, have provided generous support for capacity building in the judiciary and adherence to human rights practices within law enforcement agencies.

The field office is in the process of developing a donor coordination mechanism in the area of crime prevention and drug control.

ODCCP Assistance Projects

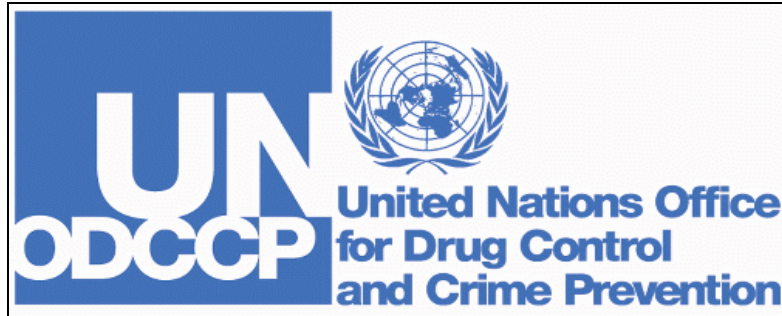
COUNTRY	NUMBER	PROJECT	EXPENDITURES FOR 1999 In US \$	TOTAL BUDGET In US \$
Botswana	BOT/923	Control over Drug Abuse and Trafficking	127,995	394,200
Lesotho	LES/803	Assistance in Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement	130,924	209,000
Malawi	MLW/C12	Capacity Building in Drug Control	271,200	576,300
Mozambique	MOZ/C47	Capacity Building in Drug Control	265,500	556,000
South Africa	SAF/978	Capacity Building and Human Resource Development through Drug Training for Trainers	186,300	378,000
South Africa	SAF/97/507	Support to the National Crime Prevention Strategy	100,000	558,500
South Africa	SAF/98/R71	Measures to Counteract Organized and Commercial Crime	300,000	415,000
South Africa	SAF/98/R72	Establishment of Two Outreach Centres to Counteract Violence Against Women	220,000	660,000
South Africa	SAF/97/034	Capacity Building in the area of Youth Justice	250,000	700,000
South Africa	RSA/99/001	Donor Coordination (Pipeline)		
South Africa	RSA/99/002	Arms Proliferation	269,166	1,300,000
South Africa	RSA/99/003	Support to the Director of Public Prosecutions	155,940	680,000
South Africa	RSA/99/004	Counter Corruption (Pipeline)		
South Africa	SAF/E66	Drug Rehabilitation Centres	120,000	1,670,000
Swaziland	SWA/C13	Capacity Building in Drug Law Enforcement	67,200	193,200
Zambia	ZAM/593	Assistance in Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement	17,000	306,900
Zimbabwe	ZIM/755	Development of Resource Centre on Drug and Alcohol Problem Phase IV	61,020	105,500
Regional	RAF/E06	Strengthening of Drug Control Capacities in Southeastern Africa (Swaziland, South Africa & Mozambique)	208,000	600,000
	RAF/XX2	Community based Drug and Alcohol Resource Centres for Prevention and Employment Rehabilitation	80,230	748,000
	RAF/XX3	Strengthening Prosecutorial and Adjudiciary Drug Control Capacity in South and Eastern Africa through the delivery of Training		2,337,000
	RAF/XX7	Rapid Assessment on Cannabis Cultivation in Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa, and Swaziland (Pipeline)		
		TOTAL	2,830,475	12,387,600

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SOUTH AFRICA

COUNTRY PROFILE

ON DRUGS AND CRIME

Part II: Crime

October 1999

1. CRIME SITUATION

1.1 Main Characteristics

Crime is among the most pressing social problems facing South Africa and is featuring high on the Government's agenda. Crime also features prominently in the public's concern, together with issues of job creation and the economic situation. The confidence of the South African public in its Government to address the problem of crime efficiently has declined dramatically since 1994.

In addition, crime seems to pay in South Africa. Of the crimes reported to the South African Police Service, only a few result in the apprehension and prosecution of a suspect. However, once a case is prosecuted, it is most likely to result in a conviction.

When measured against available data for a wide range of comparative jurisdictions, levels of crime in South Africa are high. This applies particularly to levels of homicide, rape and robbery, which are the highest in the world. In respect of property crimes, such as burglaries and motor vehicle theft, South Africa shows much lower levels of victimization.

The nature of the transition, particularly the opening of the borders, led to an increase in organized crime.

1.2. Trends

1.2.1 Total number of crimes recorded

The total number of crimes recorded per year are based on the following crime types: Homicide, attempted homicide, robbery with aggravating circumstances, other robbery, rape, assault (GBH), common assault, housebreaking (business and residential premises), stock-theft, shoplifting, theft of motor vehicles, theft out of motor vehicles, other thefts, arson, malicious damage, all fraud, drug related crime, driving under influence of alcohol, illegal possession of firearms or explosives, hijacking of cars or trucks, cash in transit robberies, and bank robberies.

Total number of crimes, 1994 to 1998 ¹ :				
1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
1,998,843	2,049,420	2,051,148	2,075,266	2,176,376

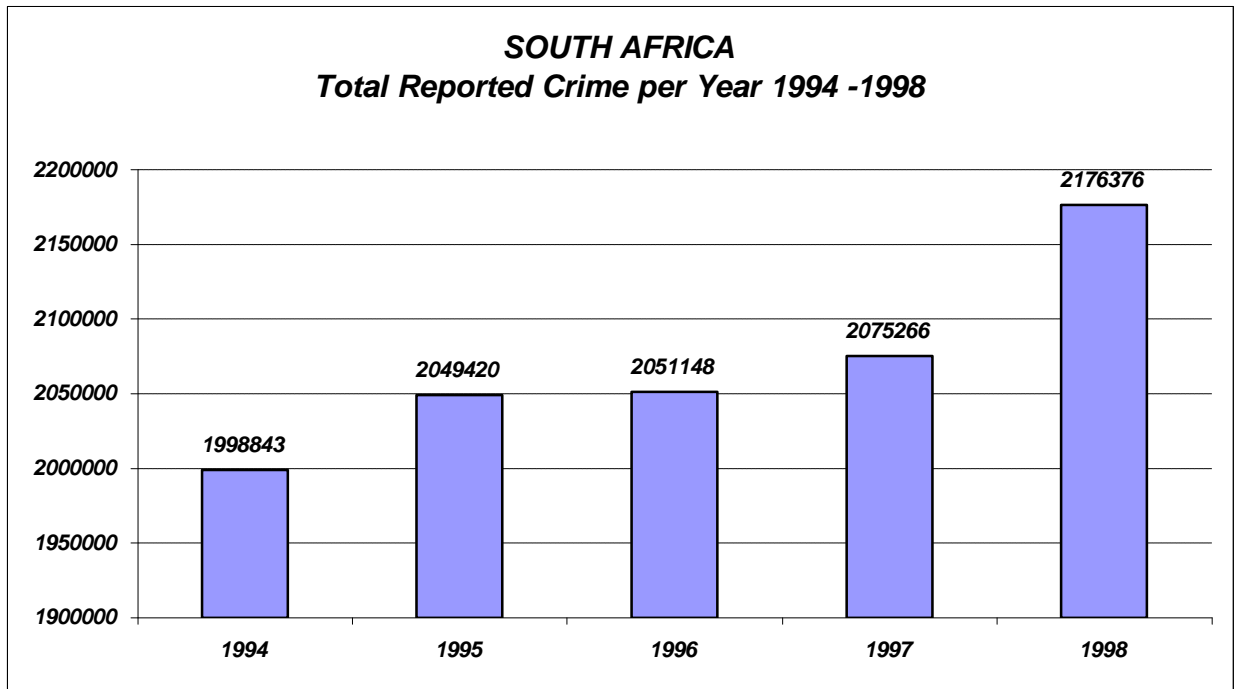
Of the over two million reported crimes in 1998, over one million went "undetected" (cases where (a) the suspect is unknown and where there is insufficient evidence to enable the police to identify a suspect and (b) where the suspect is known and a warrant for his arrest has been issued, but his whereabouts are unknown and he has not been charged) and just under half a million were withdrawn. Of the 524 125 cases that were sent to court, 203 071 ended in the conviction of the accused.¹ The number of cases that resulted in a conviction, as a proportion of the number of reported cases, is very low. In 1998, it ranged from just over 50% for drug related offences, to 15.7% for murder, 8.9% for rape, and 1.9% for car jacking. This means that on average only one out of every six and a half reported murders end in the conviction of the perpetrator. For rape the comparable ratio is one out of 11, for car jacking one out of 53.²

Once a case enters the prosecution service, the criminal justice system improves. On average, of all crimes that are prosecuted some three quarters result in a conviction of the accused.³ This is a result which compares favorably internationally.

¹ Martin Schoenteich, Assessing the crime fighters, ISS Papers, 40, Institute for Security Studies, September 1999

² See *ibid.*

³ See *ibid.*



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 1

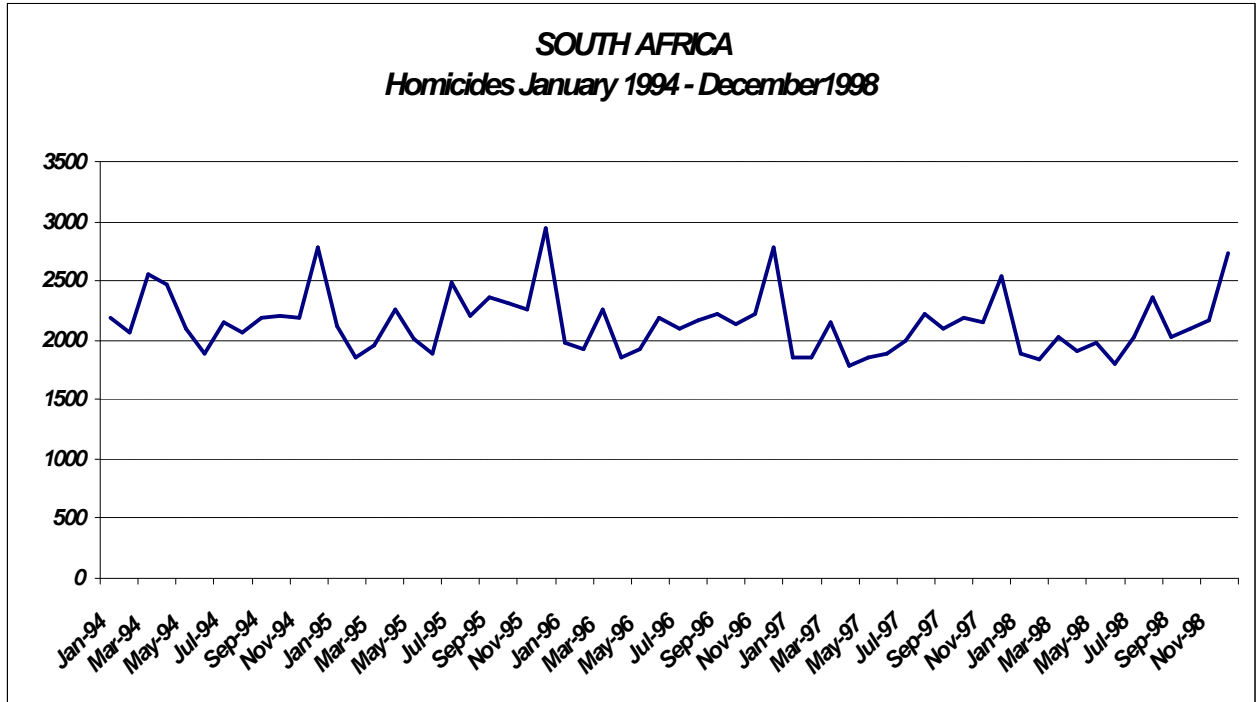
1.2.2 Specific crime trends

The following data considers statistics available from January 1994 to December 1998 as collected by the Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security. Pre-1994 data should not be considered to be reliable as the mechanism of collection and verification of the eleven police agencies operating in the country varied in quality.

The data suggests that while crime remained stable until mid-1998 there are increases in some categories of serious crime thereafter.

The raw data for **homicides** confirms that cases of homicide **have been declining** slowly but steadily since 1994. This is partly because of declining levels of political violence in the country.

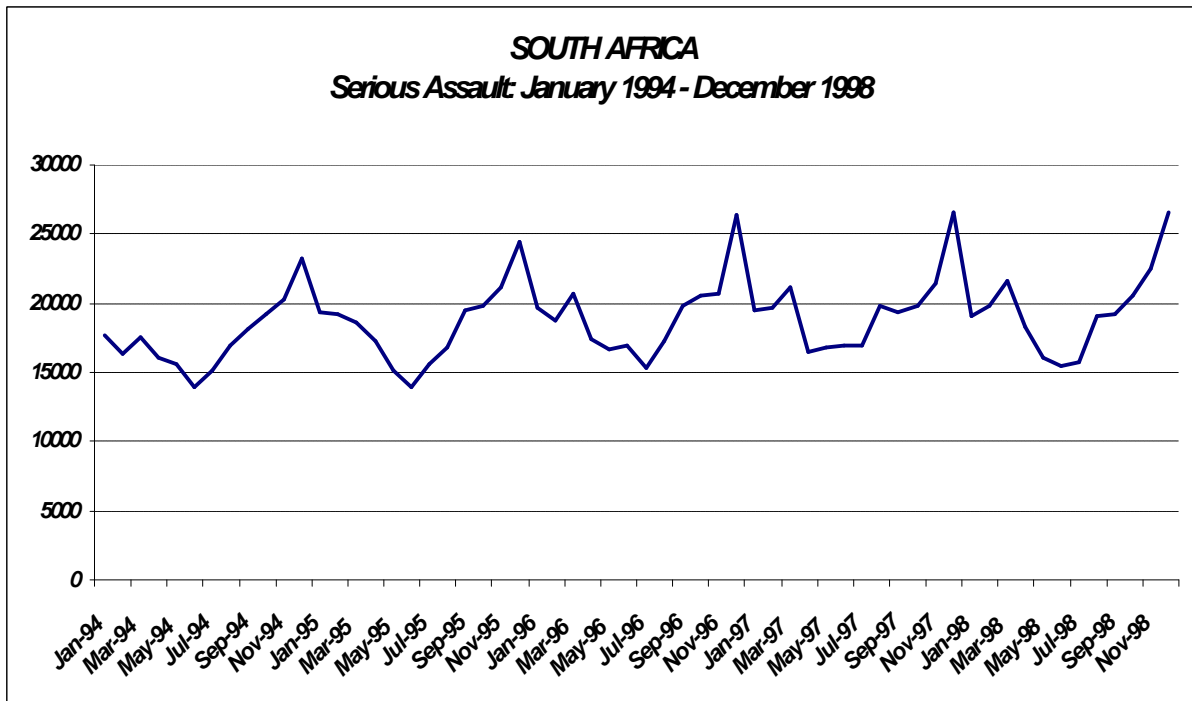
As with other violent crimes, homicide is characterized by a higher number of instances in December. These upswings in inter-personal violent crime at the end of each year are probably related to the holiday period around Christmas and New Year, which may be attributed to an excessive consumption of alcohol and places of entertainment visited during this period of the year.



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 2

ther violent crimes such as attempted homicide; serious assault and rape do not show steady declines. Reported cases of **serious assault** have **increased** steadily over the past four years. Serious assault also

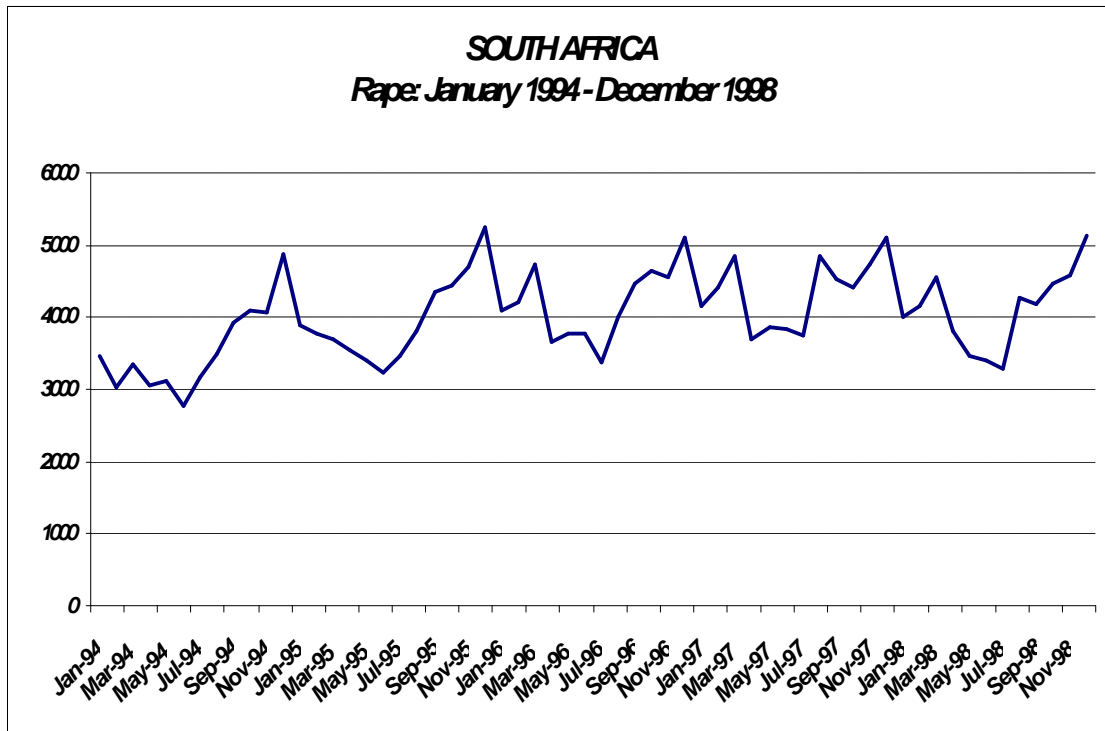


Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 3

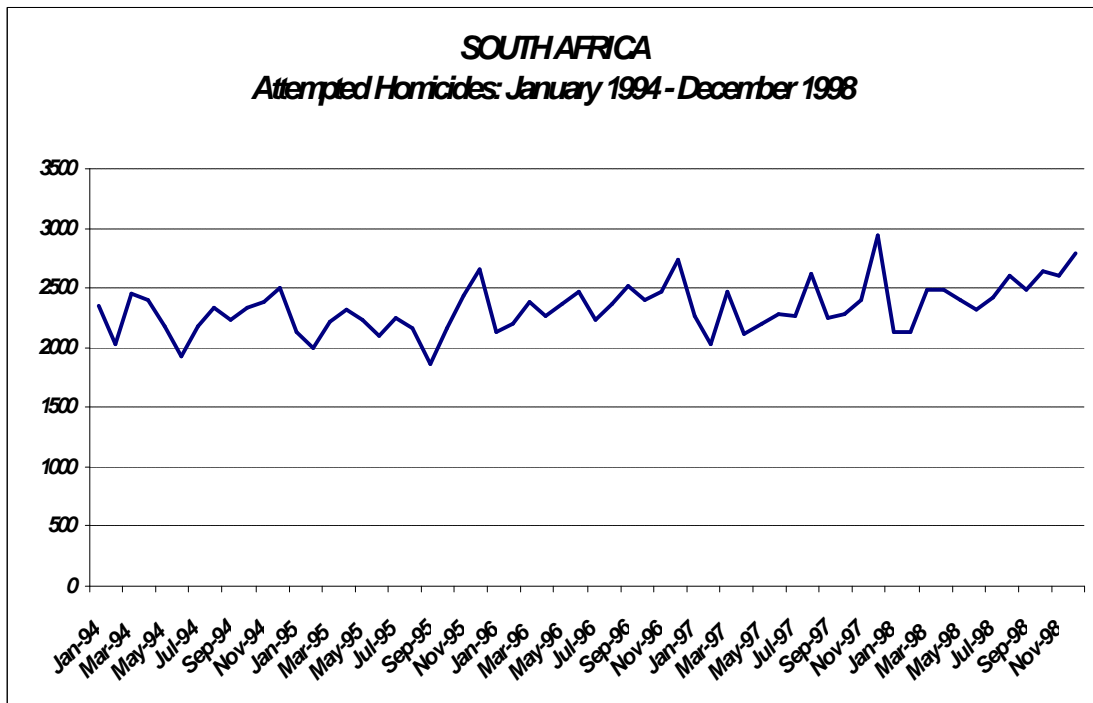
increases dramatically in December each year.

Reported **cases of rape have increased** between 1994 to 1998. This has been attributed to increases both in the occurrence of actual cases of the crime but also in a greater propensity to report. The latest figures suggest however that this trend may be stabilising.



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 4



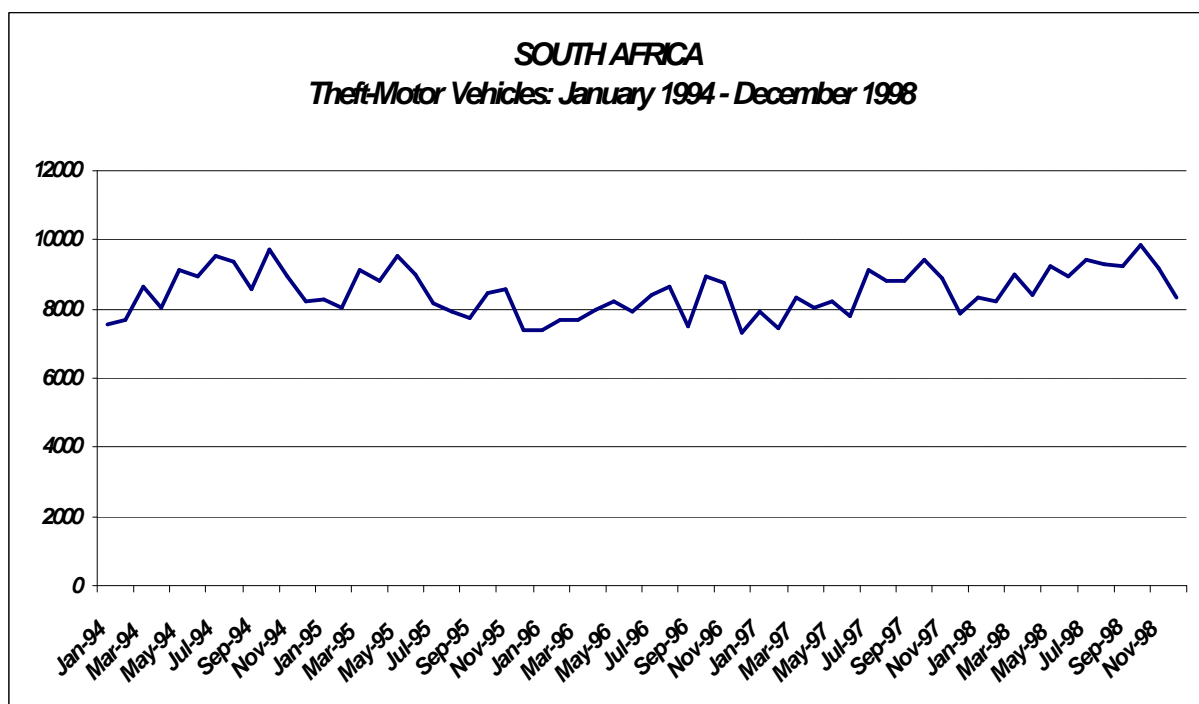
Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 5

Figures for serious property crime show contradictory patterns with evidence of stabilization clear for some crime types and marked increases characterizing others.

Of all the serious property crimes, motor vehicle theft has continued to display a stable trend over the four-year period. While there were some declines in the crime during 1995 and 1996, the extent of motor vehicle theft has returned to similar levels which characterized mid and late 1994.

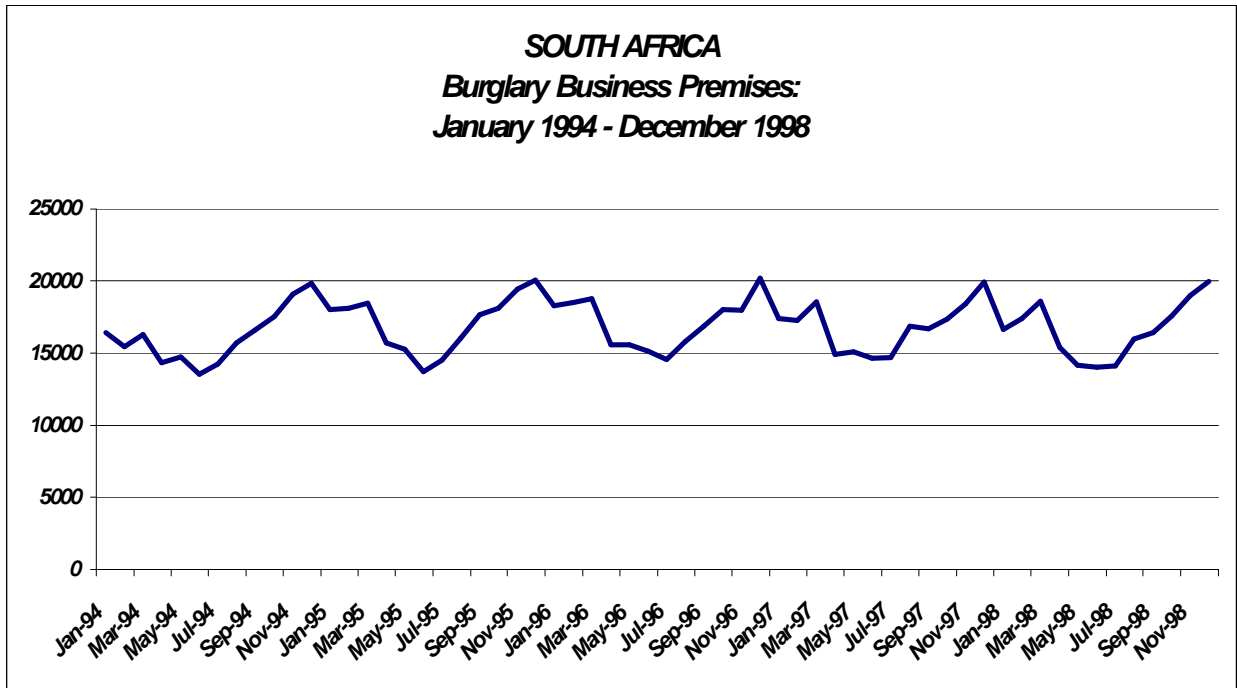
It is possible that levels of **motor vehicle theft** have remained stable (or been displaced into hijacking, see below) given advanced vehicle security and increased surveillance of precincts, such as shopping areas, from where motor vehicles are stolen.



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

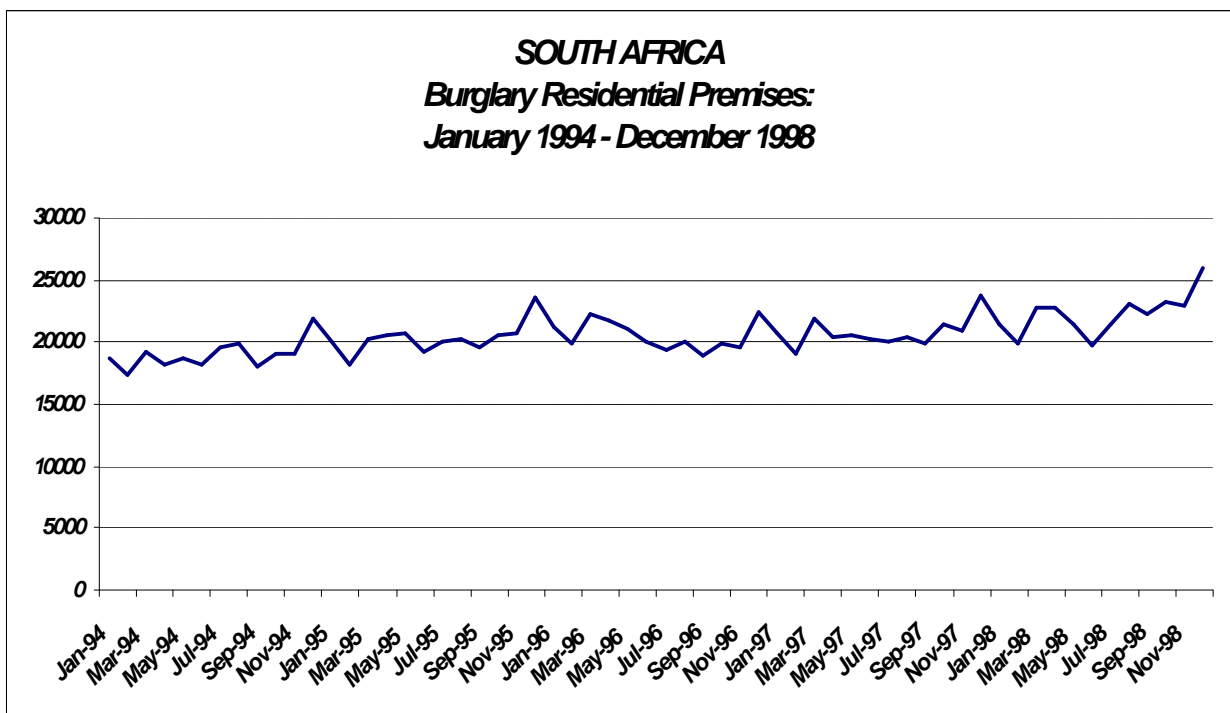
Figure 6

Reported cases of **burglary** have shown a slow but steady **increase** across the four-year period. December of each year consistently shows a higher recording figure than previous months, presumably because residences are more likely to be broken into when people are away over the holiday period. The figures for burglary include both residential and business burglaries.



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

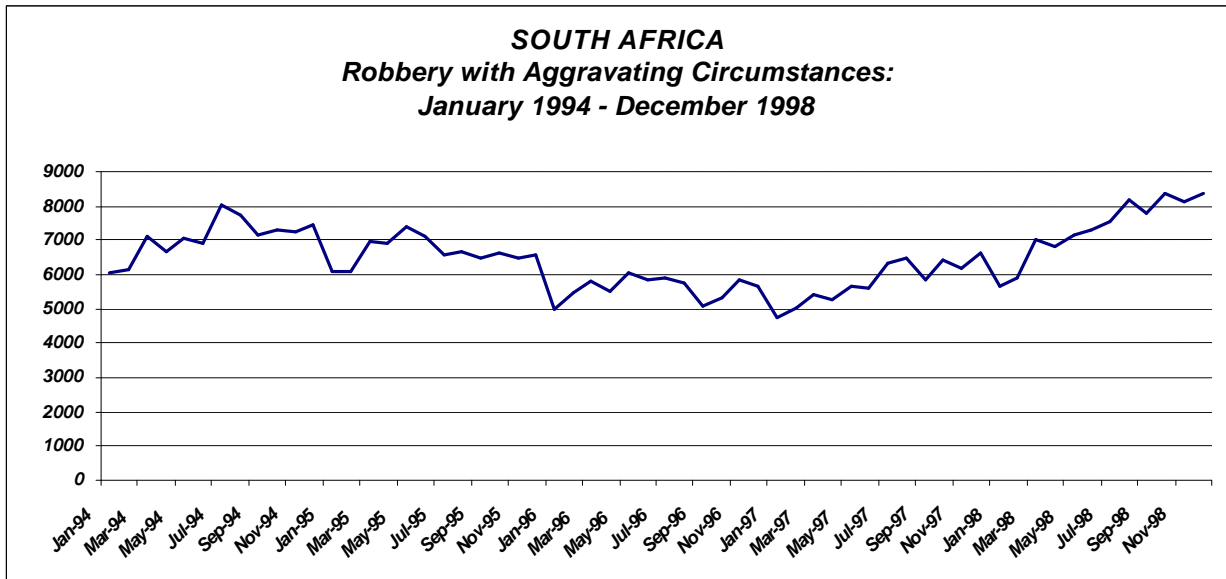
Figure 7



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 8

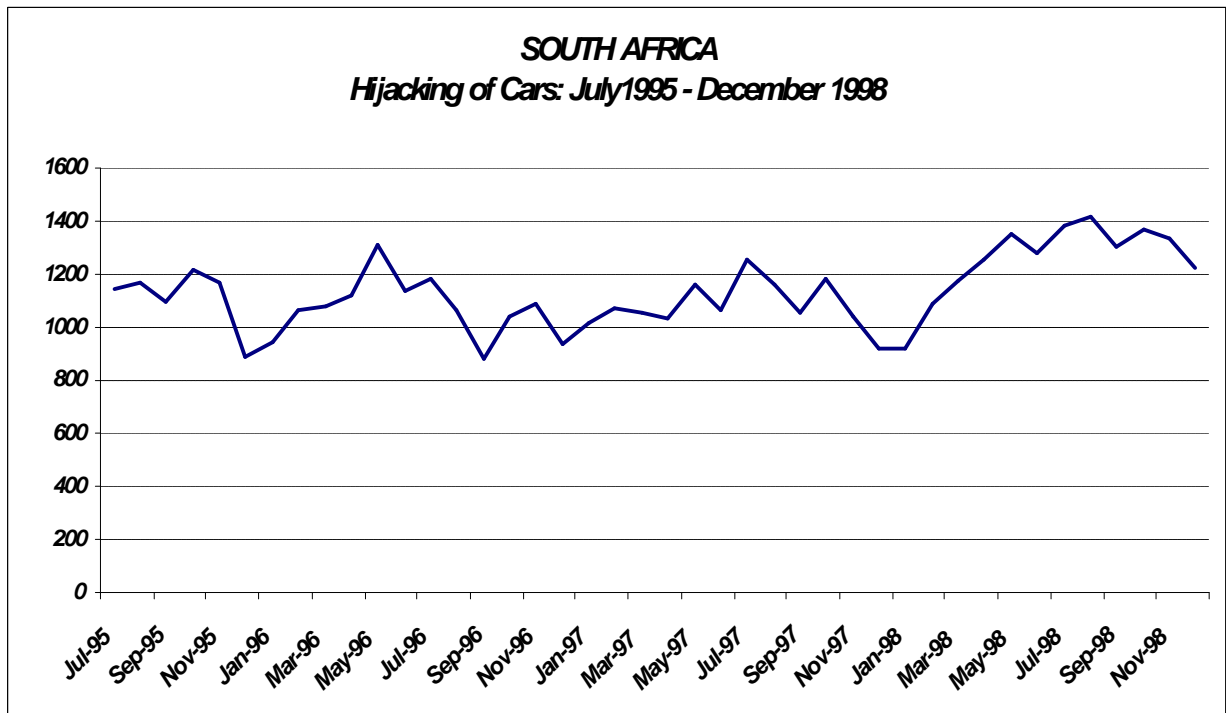
The cause for the greatest concern amongst current crime trends is that of aggravated robbery and the sub-category of vehicle hijacking. Cases of robbery with **aggravating circumstances** have shown a **marked increase** over the four-year period. Given that robbery with aggravating circumstances includes all cases of violent robbery where the assailants are armed this trend should be viewed with concern.



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

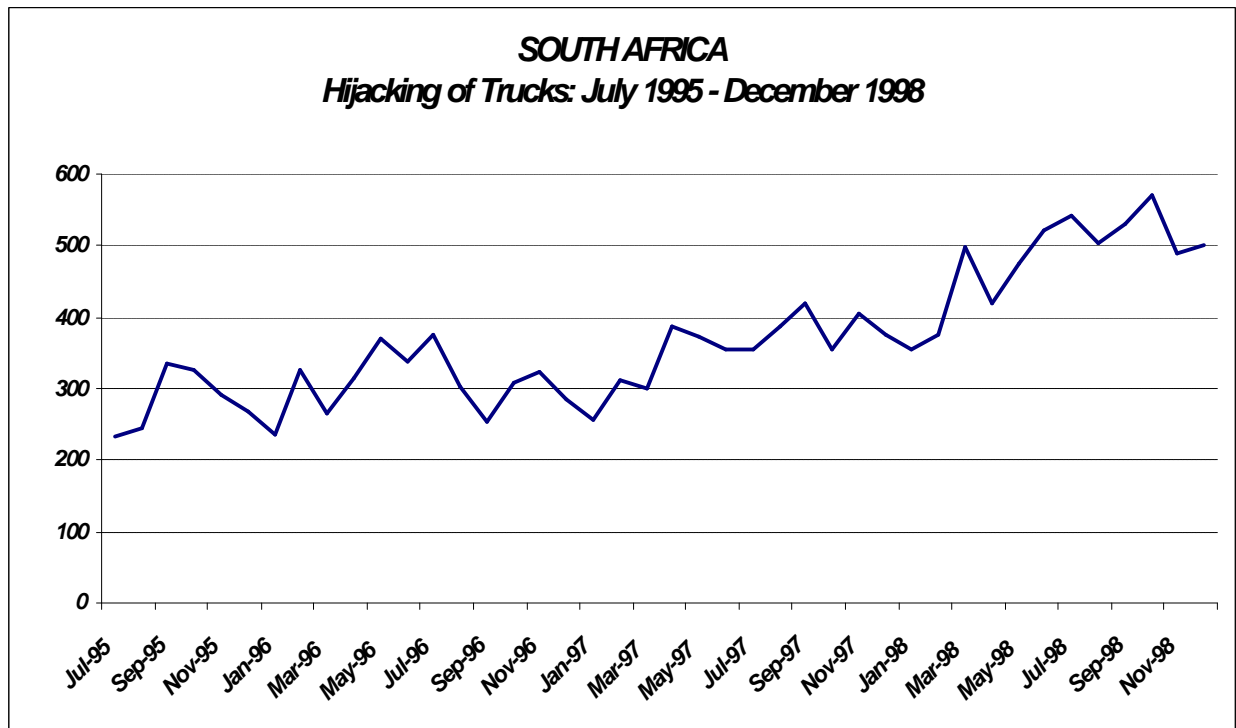
Figure 9

A similar trend applies to **hijacking of cars and trucks** (the majority of which occur in Gauteng), which is a sub-category of robbery with aggravating circumstances and is thus reflected in the data above.



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 10



Source: Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Secretariat for Safety and Security

Figure 11

1.2.3. International comparison

A measure of the overall number of recorded cases of crime shows South Africa to compare favorably with a number of developed countries. Thus, **South Africa has a lower level of overall recorded crime than does Canada, the United Kingdom and Australia.**

Victim survey data which attempts to record the overall number of offences in which citizens are victimized during a single year provide some interesting additional data which confirms this. With 35% of South Africans being victimized by any crime during the course of a year, **South Africa has a much higher level of crime than most European jurisdictions.** However, **South Africa's levels are equivalent to the United States (35%), Canada (33%) and New Zealand (36%).** Also, countries in **Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union register a broadly equivalent level with South Africa.**

However, when ratios, figures and trends for specific crimes are compared with those of 113 other INTERPOL member countries, (as reported in the International Crime Statistics of INTERPOL, 1996) **South Africa holds the first position for murder, rape, robbery and violent theft.** It further ranks fourth with regard to serious assault.

As in the case of murder, levels of rape in South Africa – at just under 120 reported incidents per 100 000 citizens – are higher than any other country for which there is available data.

With respect to **property related crimes, South Africa ranks only on number 32** for burglary and 21 for the theft of motor vehicles. In these two crime categories, South Africa is in a better position than countries like Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

In the case of theft of motor vehicles, South Africa appears to perform relatively well in comparison to a number of other countries. Thus, the rate of theft of motor vehicles in South Africa is 244 per 100 000

citizens while, for example, Switzerland has a rate of 1182, the United States 525, Canada 595 and Sweden 750.

This comparison should however be viewed with care for several reasons: (i) The overall number of crimes in more developed countries are likely to be bolstered with higher reporting levels for less serious incidents; (ii) In North American and European jurisdictions, given more developed systems of law, there are likely to be a higher number of offences which are capable of being reported; and (iii) the use of a rate per 100.000 people, specifically in the case of theft of motor vehicles, provides a distorted indicator of the extent of the crime as patterns of wealth and ownership are not taken into account.

Despite these problems, it is worth noting that **South Africa has over double the number of attempted murders and murders than any other country**. Even if the number of attempted murders are removed from the data, the country still retains first place in respect of this crime.

In respect of **property crimes South Africa fares much better** when the available international crime data is compared.

In the case of breaking and entering, South Africa is well down on the international scale. Thus, the country has a breaking and entering level of 791 incidents per 100 000 of the population. The Netherlands has a rate of 3491, the United Kingdom 2239 and the United States 942.

In sum, South Africa has a high overall level of crime when compared to Europe. This is equal to North American jurisdictions but lower than other African and Latin American countries. However, the overall number of offences does not necessarily provide an accurate overview of levels of, for example, violent crime. In the case of homicide, South Africa shows extremely high levels in comparison to all other countries where data is available.

1.2.4 National victimization rates

The following data is based on the first national victim survey carried out in South Africa in 1997/1998.

Household crimes

20,6 % of households had been victims of crime during 1997. The most common crimes experienced were burglary (7.2%) and theft of livestock (4.9%). 1.4% of households had been victimised by hijacking or attempted hijacking and 0.5% by murder.

The picture of crime changes when the data is analysed by examining the percentage of respondents who own or have access to particular types of property. Thus, 15% of all those who own or have access to livestock had suffered one or more incidents of theft. 10.9% of those who owned or had access to bicycles had been victimised by theft.

Wealthy households were more likely to experience property crime than poorer households. Thus, 28.7% of households earning R96 000 per year or more were victimised by some form of property crime. Violent household crimes were most likely to be experienced by the category of respondents earning between R48 000 and R96 999 a year. Only a small percentage of respondent in lower income categories were victimised by such violent household crimes.

Individual crimes

14.6% of individual respondents reported being victimised. The most common individual crime was theft of personal property (4.8%), followed by assault (4.2%), fraud (3%), robbery with force (2.4%) and corruption (2%).

The most likely place for individuals to be victimised by crime is in their own homes. Thus, 50% of all sexual offences and 30% of all assaults took place within people's homes. In such cases victims are more likely than not to know the offender.

Those earning above R96 000 a year were least likely to experience violent individual crimes (01%), victimisation is distributed fairly consistently (at an average of 6.8%) across other incomes categories. However, 21,8% of the highest income category were victims of individual non-violent crime.

Ethnic Particularities

Indian and white households were far more likely to **have experienced non-violent household crimes** (25.5% and 25% of respondents respectively) than were other communities. White respondents (4.3%) were more likely to experience violent household crimes than either Indians (0.4%), coloureds (2.4%) or Africans (2.7%).

Individual **coloured and African** respondents were most likely to **have experienced individual violent crimes** during 1997. Individual white respondents were more likely to have been victimised by non-violent individual crimes (13.7%), followed by coloureds (11.3%), Indians (8.6%) and Africans (8.3%).

Provincial patterns

Households in **Gauteng** (20.3%) and the **Western Cape** (19.8%) were most likely to have experienced **non-violent household crimes**. The Northern Cape (16.9%) and Mpumalanga (14.9%) were the only two provinces above the national average of 14.7% in this regard.

Violent household crimes were surprisingly most common in the **Free State** (5.6%) and **Mpumalanga** (4%). **KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng** (3.8% and 3.5% respectively) also displayed as was expected comparatively high levels of violent household crimes.

Individual violent and non-violent crimes showed a different pattern. The Free State and Mpumalanga displayed the highest level of violent individual crimes (11.8% and 10.8% respectively). The Eastern Cape (8.8%) and North West (8.8%) also showed high levels. KwaZulu-Natal (At 5.8%), Gauteng (4.6%) and the Western cape (4.9%) comparatively showed lower levels than expected.

1.3 Issues of Specific Concern

1.3.1 Organized Crime

While the exact number of syndicates is contestable, according to latest figures from the South African Police Service, there are **over 700 syndicates operating in South Africa over half of which with African or international links**.

The nature of South Africa's transition since 1994, particularly the end of its isolation accompanied by the opening of the borders, led to an increase in organized crime. Further, South Africa is a country with a well developed infrastructure. Air, road and sea links exist with the rest of the world and telecommunication facilities are up to the standard of a developed country.⁴

⁴ Peter Gastrow, Organized Crime in South Africa, ISS Monograph Series, 28, Institute for Security Studies, August 1998

In addition, South Africa is both a supplier of resources for organized crime and a market. South Africa has gold, diamonds, ivory, rhino horn, abalone, and motor vehicles, while it presents a market for illegal firearms and drugs.⁵

Looking at organized crime structures in South Africa, a vast sophistication gap between the street gang level and the elevated syndicates with international or African links is noticeable. They have no typical organizational structure and generally do not operate as self-contained organizations.

On all levels, it is however clear, that corrupt and criminal members of the police are important factors in organized crime in South Africa.

1.3.2 Corruption

Corruption has for long been a characteristic of the South African public service. Since 1994, achieving good governance and fighting corruption have become two of the most important challenges for the country in the post apartheid era. However, there is a widespread perception that corruption has in fact increased during the period of political and economical transition.

The **Transparency International Corruption Perception Index** showed the following of Southern African Development Community countries in 1998:

Transparency International Corruption Perception Index		
Country	Ranking	CPI Score
(Denmark)	1	10
Botswana	23	6,1
Namibia	29	5,3
South Africa	32	5,2
Mauritius	33	5,0
(Greece)	36	4,9
Zimbabwe	43	4,2
Malawi	45	4,1
Zambia	52	3,5
Tanzania	81	1,9
(Cameroon)	85	0,5

The fight against corruption is a top priority for the South African government. Since 1994 numerous anti-corruption programmes and projects have been put in place by the new government. Recent initiatives on corruption focused on promoting accountability, transparency and the rule of law; the practice of good governance; free press to forcefully report to the public on corrupt practices; and the establishment of government watchdog agencies to identify corrupt practices and bring them to the public attention.

⁵ Crime Information Analysis Centre, South African Police Service

ANTI CORRUPTION BODY	FUNCTIONS
Auditor General (Constitutional body)	Investigates adherence of financial transactions, treasury rules and legislation and reports on accounts of all three tiers of government.
Heath Special Investigating Unit (Department of Justice)	Investigates public sector corruption with a view to recover assets.
Independent Complaints Directorate (Department for Safety and Security)	Receives and acts upon complaints of police misconduct.
Investigating Directorate Serious Economic Offences (Department of Justice)	Investigates serious economic offences with a view to institute a prosecution, which could lead to the conviction and sentencing of the culprit.
National Crime Prevention Strategy Secretariat (Department for Safety and Security)	Government coordination mechanism for crime prevention.
National Director for Public Prosecutions (Department of Justice)	Controls and guides prosecutions and institutes criminal proceedings
National Intelligence Agency (Ministry of Intelligence)	Gathers intelligence
Public Protector (Constitutional body)	Investigates any misconduct in state affairs or public administration.
Public Service Commission (Department of Public Service and Administration)	Monitors, evaluates and investigates the public service.
South African Police Service Anti Corruption Unit (Department for Safety and Security)	Investigates corruption within the South African Police Service.
South African Police Service Commercial Branch (Department for Safety and Security)	Investigates public/private sector complaints.

Source: Lala Camerer, Tackling the Multi-Headed Dragon, ISS Papers, 38, Institute for Security Studies, March 1999.

1.3.3. Trafficking in persons

No data was available with regard to this issue. In line with to the South African Aliens Control Act, 1991 the Department of Home Affairs is responsible for investigating the problem. Recently several cases of South East Asian sex workers were reported in the media. However, according to the Department of Home Affairs it appears that the sex workers, while being in South Africa illegally, had entered the country voluntarily. The Office of the National Director of Public Prosecutions will be looking into the issue.

1.3.4 Proliferation of illegal firearms

The theft of firearms doubled since 1994. While murders decreased overall, **murder with a firearm increased to 49% of all murders**. Robbery with a firearm increased to 85% of serious robberies. 75% of firearms victims are young men aged 18-39 and 85% of firearm perpetrators are young men aged 16-39.

The South African Police Service estimates that there are approximately 500.000 illegal firearms in the country. Most firearms used in crimes originate from theft and loss of private and state owned firearms.

1.3.5 Crimes against women and children

Violence against women and children is endemic to South Africa. The reported **levels of rape are the highest in the world**. The South African Police Service disclosed that more than 14.000 children were raped in the first eleven months of 1998. In the same period 3.451 were indecently assaulted, 3.584 suffered serious assault and 1.116 were kidnapped.

2. POLICY

2.1 National Crime Prevention Framework

2.1.1 Legislation

Laws

The major criminal laws are:

- **The Criminal Procedure Act, 1977**
- **The Extradition Act, 1962 and the Extradition Amendment Act, 1996**
- **The International Cooperation in Criminal Matters Act, 1996**
- **The Proceeds of Crime Act, 1996**
- **The Arms and Ammunition Act, 1969**

The **recent** criminal legislation changes are:

The **Criminal Procedure Second Amendment Act, 1997**, denies bail to those accused of certain serious offences unless they can prove “exceptional circumstances” meriting their release.

The **National Prosecuting Authority Act, 1998**, which centralizes prosecutorial authority in a national office. The National Director of Public Prosecutions is appointed by the President and reports directly to him. The Act also provides for the appointment of three investigating directors (dealing with priority crimes) and the establishment of special directorates.

The **South African Police Service Amendment Act, 1998**, which enables municipalities to create city police departments outside the authority of the South African Police Service.

The **Magistrates Court Amendment Act, 1998**, which requires the assignment of lay assessors to serve alongside magistrates in the trials of certain offences.

The **Prevention of Organized Crime Act, 1998** (and its amendments, 1999) which gives broad powers of civil and criminal asset forfeiture to law enforcement and outlaws membership in criminal organizations.

The following **legislation** is in the pipeline:

- The Open Democracy Bill
- The Anti Money Laundering Bill
- The Firearms Control Bill

Policies

The Government's interdepartmental policy for the prevention of crime is the National Crime Prevention Strategy. It is outlined below.

The two key departments, Justice and Safety and Security, have developed their own policy documents, the **White Paper on Safety and Security** which governs the department's policy from 1998 to 2003 and **Justice Vision 2000**.

With the White Paper the accounting officer status for policing shifted from the Police Commissioner to the civilian Secretary for Safety and Security in order to provide greater accountability of the police. Other key issues are the development of an investigating capacity of the police and greater accountability of local government for policing.

Vision 2000 is a framework for the transformation of the administration of justice in South Africa. Six key areas have been selected to form the foundation of the future South African justice system namely: (i) an integrated coherent and representative department; (ii) access to justice for all; (iii) safety, security and freedom from crime; (iv) legitimate, representative and people-friendly courts and other structures that administer justice; (v) effective and efficient education, training and information systems; and (vi) a well-trained, representative and evenly distributed legal profession.

2.1.2 Crime Control Institutions

1. The **National Crime Prevention Strategy Secretariat**
2. The **Department for Safety and Security** with the Secretariat for Safety and Security, charged with the formulation of policing policy and monitoring police performance, and the South African Police Service itself.
3. The **National Director of Public Prosecutions**, particularly its new Directorate for Special Operations (DSO, operational title "the Scorpions") and its Investigating Directorates on Organized Crime and on Serious Economic Offences.

In addition, the anti corruption bodies listed above should be noted.

2.1.3 Criminal Justice System

Police 118,000 (of which approx. 18,000 are civilian)
Prosecutors: 2,400 operating at over 400 offices (plus approx. 2,000 support staff)
Judges:
Magistrates: 1,816
State Attorneys
Correctional Services staff:

2.1.4 Main Characteristics of the National Crime Prevention Strategy

The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was initiated by the Cabinet in March 1996 and is primarily a long-term programme aimed at creating conditions in which the opportunities and motivation for crime will be reduced, as well as improving the capacity of the criminal justice system to deal with crime. It is an ongoing programme of action which is being implemented by a wide range of departments, with the line departments being Justice, Welfare, Correctional Services, Defense, Safety and Security, and Intelligence.

The NCPS has prioritized seven key crime categories, namely: (i) crimes involving firearms; (ii) organized crime, including the organized smuggling of illegal migrants and narcotics, and gangsterism, which serve to generate higher levels of criminality and violence; (iii) white collar crime; (iv) gender violence and crimes against children; (v) violence associated with intergroup conflict, such as political conflicts, taxi violence and land disputes; (vi) vehicle theft and hijacking; and (vii) corruption within the criminal justice system.

2.1.5 Prison Regime and Population

N.a.

2.1.6 Organized Crime Control Measures

As elsewhere organized crime was the main driving force to change the nature, scope and functions of law enforcement agencies and the legislative framework in South Africa.

While South Africa's transition gave rise to organized crime, it did not at the same time give rise to state institutions immediately in a position to counter the phenomenon.

From 1991 onwards, when the threat of organized criminal groups became apparent, police investigative methods changed from targeting customers, street level drug pushers and similar types of criminals to

increasingly aiming at syndicate leaders and crime bosses, so called “targeting upwards”. However, insufficient detective skills and a weak system of crime intelligence remained stumbling blocks for the South African Police Service.⁶

In **1996, the Proceeds of Crime Act** was passed. However, it is a complicated law with a number of loopholes and has therefore hardly been used. Proceeds of crime have only recently been the target of organized crime prosecutions.

The **Prevention of Organized Crime Act, 1998** makes provision for the following: (i) offences related to racketeering activities, money laundering and criminal gang activities; (ii) the restraint, confiscation and realization of the proceeds of unlawful activity; (iii) civil forfeiture of property which is either an instrumentality of an offence specified in the Act or is the proceeds of unlawful activity; and (iv) the establishment of a criminal assets recovery account and associated mechanisms which, inter alia, make provision for the allocation of moneys from the account to law enforcement.

Most significantly it provides for the seizure of property by the state where “a reasonable suspicion” exists that it constitutes the proceeds of crime and the owner is unable to provide a satisfactory explanation of its origin. The Act also makes it a separate crime to directly or indirectly participate in or assist a criminal organization or gang.

The Prevention of Organized Crime Act is largely based on the US Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations Act (RICO). The early cases involving asset forfeiture (civil and criminal) have prompted legal challenges on the ground that the Act does not extend to the proceeds of unlawful activities which occurred prior to the enactment of the legislation. Parliament has, however, recently amended the Act to remove any doubt that asset forfeiture provisions apply to unlawful activities which occurred prior to the enactment.

The Act does not contain a definition of ‘unlawful activity’ and this raises the question whether its coverage extends to conduct which is unlawful but not criminal, e.g. conduct which is in breach of revenue laws and attracts a civil penalty but does not contravene any criminal provision.

With regard to the policy framework/implementing bodies. The National Prosecuting Authority Act makes provision for the establishment of three Investigating Directorates and the appointment of Special Directors to exercise powers and functions specified by the President by proclamation.

The **National Director of Public Prosecutions** established the **Investigating Directorates on Organized Crime (IDOC)** and **Serious Economic Offences**. He further established an **Asset Forfeiture Unit** and the **Directorate for Special Operations (the “Scorpions”)**. All the Directorates encompass investigators and prosecutors and carry out prosecution led investigations. This is possible as the National Director of Public Prosecutions under the National Prosecuting Authority Act exercises powers and functions which are both investigative as well as prosecutorial.

2.1.7 Technical Cooperation Activities

Projects under implementation

CICP Project on “**Measures to Counteract Organized Crime and Commercial Crime**”: The project provides assistance to the National Crime Prevention Strategy, the South African Police Service and the Office of the National Director of Public Prosecutions in developing effective mechanisms to counteract organized crime and commercial crime, as well as the theft of and illicit trafficking in motor vehicles. Budget: US\$ 415,840. Donor: United States of America. Status: Started in 1998 and will be completed in December 2000. CICP’s role: Funding and cooperating agency

⁶ Peter Gastrow, Organised Crime in South Africa, ISS Monograph Series, 38, Institute for Security Studies, August 1998.

CICP Project on “**The Establishment of Two Out-Reach Centres to Counteract Violence Against Women**”: In response to the National Crime Prevention Strategy’s priority on gender violence, the project addresses the problem of violence against women and children by establishing two pilot Out-Reach Centres in Mpumalanga and the Eastern Cape. Each Centre provides a range of services to the victims of violence, such as legal advice, counseling, medical attention and support. The Centres are also providing rehabilitation methods for male perpetrators and potential perpetrators to break the cycle of violence. Budget: US\$ 660,000. Donor: Austria. Status: Started in 1998 and will be completed in December 2001. CICP’s role: Funding and cooperating agency.

CICP Project on “**Enhanced Donor Coordination in the Area of Crime Prevention and Drug Control in South Africa**”: This project builds upon a compendium of past donor assistance in the area of crime prevention and drug control, prepared by the University of Cape Town (UCT). It will develop a mechanism to project future needs in the areas crime prevention and drug control. The ultimate objective of this project is to ensure that decisions taken both by recipient governments and by donors which are related to these substantive areas are based on accurate knowledge and a transparent resource determination and allocation process. Budget: US\$ 40,000. Donor: United States of America. Status: Starts in November 1999 and will be completed in 2001. CICP’s role: Funding and executing agency

UNDP Preparatory Assistance Project on “**Support to the National Crime Prevention Strategy**”: At the request of UNDP in South Africa and the South African Government, the project was designed to strengthen the transformation of the administration of justice in accordance with the National Crime Prevention Strategy. Budget: US\$ 558,500. Donor: UNDP. Status: Started in 1997 and will be completed in December 1999. CICP’s role: Cooperating agency.

UNDP Project on “**Capacity Building in the Area of Youth Justice**”: The project seeks to assist the Government and the non-governmental sector in developing adequate responses to young offenders by, *inter alia*, enhancing the capacity and use of programmes for diversion and appropriate sentencing and probation services. Budget: US\$ 698,000. Donor: Switzerland and UNDP. Status: Started in 1999 and will be completed in December 2002. CICP’s role: Cooperating agency.

Projects in the pipeline

“**Support to the Office of the National Director of Public Prosecutions**”: The project will assist the Government of South Africa, namely the Office of the National Director of Public Prosecutions, in building its capacity to efficiently counteract organized crime, money laundering and corruption. In particular it will provide assistance in (i) the establishment of a research and analysis unit; (ii) the strengthening of the Asset Forfeiture Unit; and (iii) the strengthening of the Witness Protection Programme. Budget: US\$ 1,018,695. Status: Project approved by the Executive Director. Implementation has started with funds made available through the ODCCP Global Programme Against Money-Laundering and the UNDCP Legal Advisory Programme. Fund raising activities for additional budget have started.

“**Prevention of the Proliferation of Firearms**”: The project is designed to assist the Government of South Africa, particularly its Department for Safety and Security and its National Crime Prevention Strategy in their efforts to eradicate the proliferation of illegal firearms and reduce the number of legally owned firearms. The project seeks to achieve the objective by (i) reducing the inflow of firearms into South Africa; (ii) preventing the diversion of legal firearms through criminal activity; (iii) reducing the existing pool of firearms; and (iv) mobilizing public and political support for the process. Budget: US\$ 1,205,710. Status: Project document with Headquarters for approval.

“Measures to Prevent Corruption in the Criminal Justice System”: The project will assist the Government of South African its efforts to fight corruption in the criminal justice system. On the basis of CIGP’s Global Programme Against Corruption, the following activities will be elaborated with the Government upon the creation of the Government’s National Anti-Corruption Coordinating Structure: (i) assess the existing measures against corruption; (ii) advise in drafting and/or revising of relevant legislation; (iii) advise on establishing/strengthening of anti-corruption bodies; (iv) advise on measures to prevent corruption; and (v) provide training. Budget: To be determined. Status: Project document under preparation.

2.1.8 Organized Crime Convention Adherence

N/A

2.2 Extradition Agreements

South Africa became a member of the Commonwealth in June 1994 and accordingly is now part of the **London Scheme on Extradition** and the **Harare Scheme on Mutual Assistance**. This provides potential coverage of over 50 countries.

South Africa has **extradition agreements** with the following countries: Australia, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Republic of China (Taiwan), Swaziland, the United States of America (to be signed this week!) and Zimbabwe. It is currently negotiating extradition treaties with 14 countries, including Argentina, Canada, Germany, Paraguay, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

The only country which South Africa negotiated a **mutual assistance treaty** with are **the United States** of America.

South Africa is also exploring the possibility of becoming a signatory to the European Convention on Extradition.