



UNITED NATIONS  
*Office on Drugs and Crime*

# BRAZIL

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Country profile



## ***UNODC Regional Office Brazil 2003***

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### **List of abbreviations**

- ABIQUIM - Association of Chemical Industries
- ANVISA - National Sanitary Surveillance Agency
- CAPS - Psychosocial Day-Care Centres
- CEBRID – Brazilian Information Centre on Psychotropic Drugs
- CICAD - Inter-American Drug Abuse Control Commission
- CN/DST and AIDS - National Coordination for Sexual Diseases and AIDS
- CND – Commission Narcotic Drugs
- CNTE - Confederation of Workers in Education
- COAF - Council for Financial Activities Control
- DATASUS - Ministry of Health Information Department
- FATF - Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering
- FUNAD - National Anti-drug Fund
- GDP - Gross Domestic Product
- GNI - Gross National Income
- HDI - Human Development Index
- HONLEA - Heads of National Drug Law Enforcement Agencies
- IDEC - Inter-American Drug Enforcement Conference
- ILANUD – United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders
- ILO - International Labour Organization
- INCB – International on Narcotics Control Board
- IPCA - Extended Consumer Price Index
- OAS - Organization of American States
- PCC - Capital First Command
- PIAPS – Urban Violence Prevention Plan
- PNAD - National Anti-drug Policy
- PNSP - Public Security Plan
- PSDB - Brazilian Social Democracy Party
- SENAD - National Anti-drug Secretariat
- SINARM - National Arms System
- SISNAD - National Anti-drug System
- SIVAM – System for the Vigilance of the Amazon
- UNGASS - United Nations General Assembly Special Session

## PREFACE

This Country Profile provides an analysis of the illicit drugs and crime situation in Brazil and is based on the extensive literature and research papers produced by international agencies, governmental institutions and civil society organizations.

During the election period of June to October 2002, the issue of public security was highlighted as the number one concern of the people of Brazil. While it is recognized that significant advances have been achieved, the country continues to face serious developmental constraints to integrate over 50 million people who live on less than US\$ 2 per day in the mainstream of the market economy.

In Brazil, there are a great number of marginalized youth, mainly in urban areas, with no jobs and little hope in the midst of affluence. This produces a volatile and violent urban situation, encouraging the recruitment of young people by criminal organizations. There is a lack of State services such as education, health, housing, police, justice, etc. in marginalized areas. This facilitates the control of parts of major cities by criminal organizations that impose their own will through fear. It should be noted that millions of people who live in the slums are hard working and honest people who cannot afford to live elsewhere because of their low salaries. This includes at least 200,000 civil and military police staff. Because of their low salaries, they can only afford to live with their families in areas where drug traffickers and criminal gangs operate.

Today, the drug traffickers and criminal organizations are well armed. In some cases, they are even better equipped than the police forces. They impose their control over various areas by murdering people who enter their territory without permission. They create fear among the population. International criminal organizations depend on strong local crime networks that facilitate the marketing of illegal commodities and people.

Brazil is a country that has also many success stories. One such story that has attracted worldwide attention is the National Programme on HIV/AIDS prevention. This programme started in 1992. It was conceived and implemented in partnership with international organizations, the Government and the civil society.

A similar political vision is now required in the field of urban security through an integrated approach between crime prevention measures, reduction of drug abuse, and socio-economic measures. Action needs to take place at the federal, state and municipal levels with active involvement of civil society organizations. This action should be result-oriented with realistic objectives at the short, medium and long terms and follow best practices and evidence-based methodology in order to achieve the desired impact in a cost-effective way.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) stands ready to assist the Brazilian authorities in the formulation and implementation of quality programmes aimed at addressing the concern of Brazilian voters for public security, facilitating the active participation of other international organizations.

Giovanni Quaglia  
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United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

**Map of South America**

The Regional United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, based in Brasilia, is responsible for the following countries: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay.

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### DRUGS

**Brazil in the regional context:** Brazil produces neither coca leaf nor opium poppy. Cocaine and some of its derivatives – such as coca paste (*merla*) – are produced in neighbouring countries (Bolivia, Colombia and Peru). It is then trafficked into Brazil. On the other hand, countries where illicit crops such as coca and opium are cultivated do not have the major chemical industry network that Brazil has. Precursor chemicals that are largely used for legal activities are diverted and trafficked from Brazil, Argentina, and Chile to the Andean countries.

Cannabis (*maconha*) is produced in Brazil for local consumption. Large quantities of it are trafficked into Brazil from Paraguay. Crack is produced locally from coca paste or cocaine base. Amphetamines are mainly trafficked into Brazil from Europe and Argentina. Trafficking of heroin has started and is slowly growing.

Brazil continues to be used as a transit country — mainly for cocaine directed primarily to Europe and the U.S.A. This has resulted in an increasingly important domestic market for cocaine consumption. Along the cocaine trafficking route, the number of users and the cases of HIV/AIDS reported is much higher than in other parts of the country.

**Consumption of illicit drugs:** Based on data of annual and last month prevalence of abuse in the general population for cannabis, cocaine and amphetamines, Brazil can be considered a country of medium consumption. In the case of opiates and ecstasy, prevalence is low at the present. This will need to be carefully monitored.

During the last 10 years, the Brazilian Information Centre on Psychotropic Substances (CEBRID) conducted four studies of primary and secondary school students. In the category, “use 6 times or more during the month” an increase of 100 per cent for anxiolytics, 150 per cent for amphetamines, 325 per cent for marijuana and 700 per cent for cocaine was observed.

In Brazil, the illicit domestic drug market is on the rise. This is disconcerting considering Brazil’s large population (170 million). Drug abuse is increasing in specific at-risk groups — especially among the youth of all social classes.

**Drug use and HIV/AIDS:** Brazil has successfully reduced the incidence of AIDS cases resulting from injecting drug use from 21.4 to 9.4 per cent between 1994 and 2001. Among general population, reported AIDS cases show a decline in incidence from 14.8 cases per 100,000 inhabitants in 1996 to 12.4 in 2000.

Recent studies in the cities of Sao Paulo, Campinas and Santos reveal a disturbing connection between the use of crack and AIDS. Further, psychopharmacological drugs are also commonly used in South America – especially Brazil, Argentina and Uruguay – and are frequently injected.

There has been a decrease in HIV/AIDS cases among the general population of Brazil — attributable to a robust and well-planned intervention that started in the early 1990’s. This intervention was effected by the Brazilian Government, in partnership with UNODC, the World Bank, UNDP, UNESCO and the active participation of civil society organizations.



**Prevention and treatment<sup>1</sup>:** Government funding at the federal, state and municipal levels for both prevention and treatment is limited. However, slowly but surely attitudes are changing. There is an emerging concept that investing public funds in prevention and treatment can help solve health and public security problems. This, in the long run, can help build a viable and sustainable economy. Good practices exist in Brazil to substantiate this case with the new Government authorities.

Non-governmental organizations have for many years filled the vacuum in this field, often in precarious conditions. Nevertheless, the Government has designed a normative framework with an operative aspect in the form of programmes and projects to be developed in 2003 based on proven practices tested over the last 2 to 3 years.

**Trafficking trends:** International trafficking organizations have partners in the Brazilian criminal network — especially in the areas of drugs, arms and money-laundering. Illicit drugs are increasingly used in exchange for smuggled arms. The high homicide rate is due, to a large extent, to the easy availability of smuggled guns.

**Law enforcement:** Brazil has a good normative framework, which is in line with UN and OAS conventions, etc. Illicit drug seizures, especially of cocaine, have increased in 2002. However, the data available are from the federal police only. Seizures made by the civil police, the military police, customs, etc. are not collected systematically and consolidated with the data of the federal police.

The same situation is true of intelligence data collection, where the exchange of information among Brazilian police forces is still far from satisfactory. However, this situation is common to many police forces around the world, both from developing and developed countries.

Control of the diversion of precursor chemicals has improved recently. However, there are still too few companies being inspected to make an impact. Additional investments in the control of chemical precursors are needed since results achieved have an impact not only nationally but regionally.

## CRIME

**General trends:** Overall, crime trends are on the rise. Although crime affects the society as a whole, there are differences in the way it affects the various social classes. Organized crime, with clear regional and international links, has also increased over the last years. The new Brazilian Government will need to work hard to improve current violence indicators and respond to the electoral concern over public safety.

**Socio-economic variations:** Crime does not affect all people in the same way. The risk of being a victim is influenced by age, gender, income and place of residence. Those with a high and middle income are at a higher risk for property-related crimes. Those with a low income are more exposed to youth gangs, violence and homicides. For example, in Rio de Janeiro, tourist areas (such as Copacabana and Ipanema) have 4 homicides per 100,000

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<sup>1</sup> The word treatment used in this document is related to an integrated approach to chemical dependency involving medical, psychosocial orientation, social reintegration, etc.

people — similar to the safest cities in Europe. In the shanty towns (*favelas*), only 2 to 3 km away, homicides reach the rate of 150 per 100,000 people. The incidence of theft, shoplifting and petty crime is greater in high-income areas, as it is in developed countries.

**Violent crime:** Murder rates are increasing, especially among young males. The increase in violence is attributed to the proliferation of firearms illicitly appropriated for drug trafficking and domestic crime. The first victimization survey was carried out in Brazil in 2001. The second one will be completed in 2003. Through these surveys, it will be possible to monitor the trend of several crime factors.

**Organized crime:** Organized crime ranges from trafficking in drugs, firearms, human beings, gold and endangered species to money-laundering. It involves local and international criminal organizations. Counter-measures have been attempted (with some initial success) by dismantling certain organized crime groups.

**Corruption:** There is a growing concern over corruption, especially related to the public sector. Efforts to promote good governance and transparency are being undertaken, but much more needs to be done so that sustainable results may be achieved.

**Crime prevention:** The middle and upper classes are trying to prevent crime by hiring the services of private security agencies. Today these private agencies employ 1.5 million agents — three times the number of agents in Government police forces. There is indication that public confidence in the police is increasing. However, more remains to be done.

**Criminal justice reform:** Reform in the justice system is considered to be a priority by the new Minister of Justice. Currently, prosecution through the criminal justice system presents considerable problems. The long time period between arrest and conviction results in a lack of trust in the justice system.

**International cooperation:** In June 2003, Brazil ratified the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime as well as two of its protocols: trafficking in persons, especially women and children and smuggling of migrants.

## 1. BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW OF THE DRUG AND CRIME SITUATION

Brazil covers almost half the area of South America. It has a population of approximately 170 million, with a high concentration of people in urban areas. The average urbanization rate in the country is 81.7 per cent, reaching 93 per cent in some areas (such as the state of Sao Paulo). It belongs to the group of newly industrialized countries and has a modern infrastructure that includes industry, banking and services.

Of the 81.7 per cent living in cities, there are 52 million boys and girls under the age of 19. It is estimated that in metropolitan Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo alone, there are several million children living in extreme poverty. It is this destitution that drives children to the streets in an attempt to survive.

The children have various occupations. These include shining shoes, selling cigarettes, flowers, newspapers or chewing gum and hauling garbage. Some also engage in drug trafficking, petty theft, street robbery and prostitution.

Street children are the target of drug gangs. Brazil's Protective Child Statute holds that children under 18 years of age may not be arrested unless caught in the act of committing a crime. Therefore, to the drug gangs the impunity of the children makes them ideal couriers. Unfortunately, these children are often killed because they know too much, steal too much, or get caught in crossfire.

The hierarchy of the *favela* drug trade is vertical. Children are recruited into the lowest level, serving primarily as lookouts. They progress to running errands for the hillside dealers. If they are successful, they begin delivering drugs to customers. Survivors from these operations may become armed "controllers" (security guards who protect the operations and proceeds of drug transactions). Most youngsters die while they are still at the lower end of the hierarchy. When a hillside dealer is dissatisfied with a child's work, or decides that the youth is dangerous as a witness, he or she is simply killed.

For those who work in the streets during the day, returning to their *favela* homes at night, life is harsh and unkind. For the rest who live in the streets both day and night, life is cruel and short. And for the great majority of Brazil's street children, it would appear that few changes are likely. Prostitution, drug use, infection and illiteracy are common. Yet there are few programmes available to address their many needs. As poverty endures, the numbers of street children slowly increase, as does their involvement in drug use, prostitution, crime and high-risk behaviour.

Brazil is party to the 1961, 1971 and 1988 international drug control conventions. Its national drug control laws are generally assessed as being adequate. The list of scheduled drugs are regularly updated according to developments in drug trafficking and illicit consumption.

Brazil is party to the 1971, 1991 and Security Council Resolution 1373 (2001) against terrorism. In the field of penal law, Brazil most recently became party to the Rome Statute

on International Penal Court, from 1998. Moreover, several inter-American conventions and protocols from MERCOSUR have been ratified.

Brazil is a major gateway to world markets of illicit drugs produced in the Andean region — especially cocaine. Brazil's extensive borders with the drug-producing countries, as well as its vast river, air and road infrastructure system, offer numerous smuggling routes for drugs and precursors. Nevertheless, the Government has taken measures to increase significantly drug law enforcement in its border areas, working closely with neighbouring governments.

Brazil is not a cultivator of coca bush or opium poppy. However, a significant amount of cannabis is cultivated in Brazil and Paraguay for the domestic market. The organized crime groups involved with drug trafficking also find the modern financial system attractive vis-à-vis money-laundering. The federal police has a routine eradication programme of cannabis in the north-eastern and northern regions, but no alternative development projects.

Brazil produces 7 of the 11 precursors under international control needed for cocaine production. Brazil also takes part actively in all international operations for precursors control – Operations Topaz and Purple – answering all pre-notifications in due time. The Brazilian law for chemical products control was changed (December 2001). This increased the number of products from 11 to 140, with different control levels, in order to allow for the control of all known chemical products that can be used for cocaine and synthetic drugs production.

Drug-related violence is a particularly serious national challenge. Out of almost 30,000 homicides registered yearly, a high proportion is related to drug abuse and trafficking. They involve mainly young people between 15 and 25 years of age, with considerable variation between states. This high rate of homicide is to some degree the result of the inability of those engaged in the illicit drug market to settle disputes over territory, distribution and leadership in a non-violent manner.

The World Health Organization, in its “World Report on Violence and Health”, estimates that for every person killed, 20 to 40 receive injuries that require hospital treatment. The impact of homicide and injury on the public is, therefore, staggering.

Under Law N. 6368, article 16, the purchase of drugs for personal consumption is forbidden. The sentence is 6 months to 2 years in prison. Therefore, wealthy customers prefer to pay high prices and consume drugs in the safety of their own homes, avoiding taking risks that can jeopardize their reputations. This is generating a market niche. Profitability is beyond compare with any other licit or illicit economic activity. Therefore, competition among gangs is fierce and violent.

It is estimated that house delivery of illicit drugs in Brazil generates job opportunities for approximately 20,000 couriers (*aviôezinhos*). These couriers are mostly adolescents between 10 and 16 years of age with a monthly salary of between US\$ 300 and US\$ 500. Since these minors are generally from poor families, their salaries are often higher than that of their parents. Their peers consider them with great esteem. Traffickers offer them an opportunity to feel important and respected in the community. Employment in the formal sector for poorly-educated and mainly Afro-Brazilian adolescents is very limited.

Adolescents are protected by law, and the chance of being arrested is small. Alternatives for these children as far as income and a place in society are poor. Therefore, many impoverished boys and girls turn to illegal activities. Beyond the estimated 20,000 who have jobs as couriers, there are several thousand waiting to enter this highly profitable business. Therefore, traffickers have no difficulty in recruiting adolescents to deliver drugs.

Due to the low salary paid to the state police, especially at the lower ranks, many police officers have to live with their families in high-risk areas that are controlled by traffickers. For example, based on estimates from the police in the state of Rio de Janeiro, up to 50 per cent of officers live in high-risk areas.

As far as money-laundering, Brazil has a sophisticated normative system to counter these activities. Brazil takes part in all international efforts. It has already included the eight new recommendations prepared by FATF after the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, regarding the financing of terrorism. The national bank system is the main provider of information to control the flow of money. It replies promptly to all requests for information from foreign governments.

A new approach to address the problem of criminality is being tested by involving the federal police and the state police under a task force specially established for Rio de Janeiro and Espírito Santo states. This coordinated approach is starting to produce initial results. However, a medium- to long-term plan is required that would include legal income opportunities.

Brazil has successfully reduced the incidence of AIDS resulting from injecting drug use from 21.4 to 12 per cent during the years 1994 and 2000. This is a result of the vigorous implementation of a nationwide HIV/AIDS prevention programme. The programme has attracted worldwide attention. As a result of the programme, it is estimated that 600,000 HIV cases have been prevented in the last 10 years. This is due to the implementation of a clear national policy and a well-structured programme. Therefore, lives have been saved as well as several million dollars in the health sector.

The National Anti-drug Secretariat (SENAD), created in 1998, is making substantial progress in stimulating and coordinating the drug prevention efforts by promoting a close dialogue between the federal, state and municipal governments and civil society. This is not an easy task in view of the size of the country and the federative nature of the administrative and political system. SENAD continues to be grossly under-funded.

In 2003, SENAD organized a seminar to develop a national drug control strategy between all involved government agencies. A Memorandum of Understanding was also signed between the Government of Brazil and UNODC.

Drug abuse in Brazil has indeed had a negative impact on the country. Originally, Brazil was used as a trafficking route through which drugs were smuggled to other developed nations. Now, the country itself has a growing illicit drug consumption market.

Brazil has signed 20 bilateral extradition agreements as an effective tool to apply the law and to counter transnational organized crime. Mutual legal assistance agreements have been signed bilaterally with more than 30 countries. Law enforcement cooperation and exchange of information is becoming routine for the Government in its efforts to combat

drug trafficking. Joint operations are negotiated every year with neighbouring countries, both bi- and multilaterally. Controlled delivery was included in the Brazilian law system.

The first victimization report was commissioned by the Ministry of Justice to ILANUD, Sao Paulo. This report reflects the situation in 2001 and is an important tool for policy development. The second victimization report will take place in 2003, funded by one of the UNODC cost-sharing projects with the Ministry of Justice.

A project to combat the trafficking of human beings was initiated by UNODC in 2002. Its objective is to enhance existing mechanisms against the trafficking in human beings through situation analysis, increasing investigation and prosecuting capacities, training personnel of the organizations involved and fostering of awareness campaign.

The prison system, with rare exceptions, fails to rehabilitate and reinsert prisoners into society. As a result, there is a high rate of recidivism (above 50 per cent). This represents a great direct and indirect cost to the Government and society as a whole — as well as overcrowding the prison system.

## 2. SUMMARY STATISTICS

Table 1 General summary statistics			
Indicator	Country value	Comparative aggregate average:	
		High human development	Developing countries
<b>Human Development Index rank (2001)</b>	<b>69 out of 162</b>		
<b>Land</b>			
Size of country, (sq km)(2002)	<b>8,514,876,599</b>		
Total Arable land, (sq km)(1999)	<b>532,000</b>		
<b>Population</b>			
Population (million) (2001)	<b>172.6</b>		
Population growth (%) (2001)	<b>1.3</b>	0.30	1.40
Life-expectancy at birth (2000)	<b>68.1</b>	77.30	64.50
Population age 15 and above (%) (2000)	<b>71.0</b>	80.50	66.60
Population age 15 to 24 (%)	<b>20.0</b>	13.60	18.60
Share of urban population (%) (2001)	<b>81.7</b>	(1998)78.10	(1998)39.00
<b>Economic development</b>			
GDP Growth (%) (2001)	<b>1.5</b>	1.0	2.50
GDP per Capita, current US \$ (2001)	<b>2,923.0</b>	(1998) 21,770.0	(1998)3,260.00
GDP PPP \$ 2000*	<b>7,625.0</b>	23,410.0	3,530.00
Trade: Imports as share of GDP (%) (2001)	<b>14.4</b>	(1998) 21.7	(1998) 30.20
Trade: Exports as share of GDP (%) (2001)	<b>13.4</b>	(1998) 22.7	(1998) 31.70
Share of agriculture in GDP (%) (2001)	<b>8.0</b>	(1998)2.5	(1998)13.50
Total external debt, % of GNI** (2001)	<b>30.6</b>		42.80
<b>Poverty and unemployment</b>			
Population living below \$ 1 a day (2001)* (%)	<b>11.6</b>		
Income distribution ratio (20% richest / 20% poorest) (HDR, 2002)	<b>29.7</b>		
Unemployment rate (December 2002)	<b>10.5</b>	7.0 (OECD)(98)	
Youth unemployment rate	<b>n/a</b>	12.8 (OECD)(98)	
<b>Health</b>			
Public expenditure on health (% of GDP) (1998)*	<b>2.9</b>	6.2	2.2
Population with access to essential drugs (%) (1999)	<b>40.0</b>		
Doctors per 100,000 people (HDR, 2002)	<b>127.0</b>	246.0	78.0
AIDS cases per 100,000 people (2000)	<b>12.4</b>		
<b>Education</b>			
Adult literacy rate (2002)*	<b>85.60</b>	98.5	72.9
Combined enrolment ratio (primary, secondary, tertiary) (1999)*	<b>80.00</b>	91.0	61.0
Radios per 1,000 people (2000)	<b>433.00</b>	1,005.0	185.0
Televisions per 1,000 people (2000)	<b>343.00</b>	621.0	162.0
Telephone lines per 1,000 people (2000)	<b>182.00</b>	524.0	58.0
Internet users per 1,000 people (2000)	<b>0.34</b>	4.97	0.26
Sources: World Bank, UNDP, DESA, FAO, Ministry of Health/Brazil, IBGE, WHO.			
*Human Development Report 2002.			
**New terminology for GNP.			

## 2.1. Drugs

Table 2 Cultivation (area in hectares, potentially harvestable after eradication)						
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Opium Poppy	*	*	*	*		
Coca bush	*	*	*	*		
Cannabis	96	112	115	123	127	

Source: *Instituto Nacional de Criminalística* – INC (National Forensic Institute) – 2002.  
\*N.A.

Potential manufacture (in kilos) – no data reported by the Brazilian authorities.

Table 3 Cannabis bush eradication (by region)							
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	Total	% change
North	16,105	0	12	618,844	1,014,658	16,117	63.9
North-east	2,833,436	3,370,019	3,452,136	3,080,496	2,807,320	9,655,591	-8.8
Central-west	72	427	0	309	1,542	499	399
South-east	2,073	659	10,006	0	321	12,738	*
South	33,168	7	4	12	5	33,179	-58.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,884,854</b>	<b>3,371,112</b>	<b>3,462,158</b>	<b>3,699,661</b>	<b>3,823,846</b>	<b>9,718,124</b>	<b>3.3</b>

Source: *Departamento de Polícia Federal - Coodenação-Geral de Prevenção e Repressão a Entorpecentes* – CGPRE Federal Police Department - General Coordination for Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement), the former Narcotics Law Enforcement Division (*Divisão de Repressão a Entorpecentes - DRE*) 2002.  
\*Impossible to calculate.  
Approximately 75,000 bushes are cultivated per one hectare.



**Table 4**  
**Seizures (in kilos)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	% change
Cannabis (kg)	31,828	29,167	69,185	157,171	146,672	-8
Cannabis Resin (kg)	13	15	34	39	44	5
Cocaine (kg)	4,008	5,844	6,834	4,720	8,344	74
Coca Paste (kg)	2,261	256	636	697	673	-4
Crack (kg)	131	454	176	56	113	186
"Merla" <sup>1</sup> (kg)	5	7	4	3	3	1
Inhalant basic Ethyl Chloride (bottles)	11,632	13,829	13,421	12,151	8,026	-46
Morphine (kg)	*	*	0	*	*	**
Heroin (kg)	*	1	*	*	27	**
Psychotropic (bottles)	*	*	*	*	10	**
MDMA <sup>2</sup> - ecstasy (units)	*	*	*	16,796	1,909	-89
MDMA (bottles) powder	*	*	59,612	*	*	**
LSD (units)	3	1	268	2,368	*	**
Psychotropic (units)	4,398	102,176	75,048	4,862	5,786	19

Source: *Departamento de Policia Federal - Coordenacao-Geral de Prevencao e Repressao a Entorpecentes* – CGPRE (Federal Police Department - General Coordination for Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement), the former *Divisao de Repressao a Entorpecentes - DRE* (Narcotics Law Enforcement Division) 2002.

<sup>1</sup>Brazilian-produced coca paste.

<sup>2</sup>MDMA abbreviation is used here to identify ecstasy, since this is the most common amphetamine drug seized in Brazil.

\* Missing values.

\*\*Impossible to calculate.

Table 5 Precursors seized by the federal police (1997-2001)						
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	Total
Acetone (l)		532	143	195	3,096	3,966
Ethyl Ether (l)				80	48	128
Hydrochloric Acid (l)	12		1	1	69	83
Sulphuric Acid (l)	60	85	1		22	168
Potassium Carb. (g)					1,800	1,800
Sodium Bicarbonate - gas (g)				67	200	267
Sulphuric Ether (l)				12	20	32
Sodium Bicarbonate - liquid (g)	20		5		1,800	1,825
Boric Acid (g)				40,000	6,000	46,000
Sodium Carb. (g)			100	13,000		13,100
Ammonia (l)				10		10
Ethyl Chloride (g)				107,222,000		107,222,000
Acetic Acid (l)			17			17
Alcohol (l)		20	2			22
Ether (l)	50	518	1			569
Caustic Soda (g)		1,000	100,000			101,000
Potassium Perm. (g)		1,615				1,615

Source: *Departamento de Polícia Federal - Coodenação-Geral de Prevenção e Repressão a Entorpecentes* - CGPRE (Federal Police Department - General Coordination for Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement), the former Narcotics Law Enforcement Division (*Divisão de Repressão a Entorpecentes* - DRE) 2002.

Table 6 Seized cocaine hydrochloride (kg)						
Year	North	North-east	Central-west	South-east	South	Total
1997	742	59	1,665	1,084	458	4,008
1998	1,699	213	1,437	1,698	796	5,843
1999	989	85	1,780	2,050	896	5,800
2000	1,068	176	1,152	1,696	689	4,781
2001	629	204	4,499	2,478	534	8,344
<b>Total</b>	<b>5,127</b>	<b>737</b>	<b>10,533</b>	<b>9,006</b>	<b>3,373</b>	<b>28,776</b>

Source: *Departamento de Polícia Federal - Coodenação-Geral de Prevenção e Repressão a Entorpecentes* - CGPRE (Federal Police Department - General Coordination for Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement), the former Narcotics Law Enforcement Division (*Divisão de Repressão a Entorpecentes* - DRE) 2002.

Table 7 Drug abuse prevalence			
Household survey on drug abuse (2001)			
Type of drug	Total %	% Male	% Female
Cannabis	6.9	10.6	3.4
Cocaine	2.3	3.7	0.9
Crack	0.4	0.7	0.2
“Merla”	0.2	0.3	0.1
Opiates (Analgesic)	1.4	1.1	1.6
Stimulants (Amphetamine-type)	1.5	0.8	2.2
Anticholinergic	1.1	1.1	1.0
Alucinogenous	0.6	0.9	0.4
Heroin	0.1	0.1	0.0
Steroids	0.3	0.6	0.1
Barbituric	0.5	0.3	0.6
Codeine	2.0	1.5	2.4
Orexigen	4.3	3.2	5.3
Benzodiazepines	3.3	2.2	4.3
Sample: 8,589, age 18 to 65. Source: <i>Levantamento Domiciliar Sobre o Uso de Drogas Psicotrópicas no Brasil</i> . São Paulo: SENAD, CEBRID, UNIFESP, 2002.			

## 2.2. Crime

The following table shows the absolute numbers and rates of violent deaths per 100,000 inhabitants, covering the years from 1999 to 2001 in all Brazilian states capitals. There are 30,000 homicides every year in Brazil. Therefore, according to the following data, an average of 73 per cent of violent death occurs in the capitals.

**Table 8**  
**Violent deaths (1999 to 2001) in capitals and the federal district**

Capitals	State	Absolute numbers			Rate per 100,000 inhabitants		
		1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001
Porto Velho	Rondonia	346	329	385	80.1	94.4	102
Rio Branco	Acre	130	158	126	50.1	62.4	48.2
Manaus	Amazonas	635	733	574	50.6	52.1	39.5
Boa Vista	Roraima	182	166	131	108.9	82.8	62.8
Belém	Para	274	405	421	23.1	31.6	32.3
Macapa	Amapa	168	231	120	65.6	81.5	40.6
Palmas	Tocantins	...	...	57	...	...	39.8
<b>Total region</b>	<b>North</b>	<b>1,735</b>	<b>2,022</b>	<b>1,814</b>			
Sao Luiz	Maranhao	...	334	388	...	38.4	43.6
Terezina	Para	...	...	368	...	...	50.5
Fortaleza	Ceara	699	662	676	33.3	30.9	31
Natal	Rio Grande do Norte	271	208	165	39.3	29.2	22.8
Joao Pessoa	Paraiba	198	294	288	33.9	49.2	47.4
Recife	Pernambuco	808	1,075	1,205	58.6	75.5	83.8
Maceio	Alagoas	425	266	281	54.1	33.3	34.4
Aracaju	Sergipe	348	216	217	78.7	46.8	46.3
Salvador	Bahia	988	948	994	42.9	38.8	40
<b>Total region</b>	<b>North-east</b>	<b>3,737</b>	<b>4,003</b>	<b>4,582</b>			
Belo Horizonte	Minas Gerais	870	994	1,004	40.7	44.4	44.4
Vitória	Espírito Santo	411	237	366	151.9	81.1	123.6
Rio de Janeiro	Rio de Janeiro	4,089	4,053	3,988	73	69.2	67.6
Sao Paulo	São Paulo	7,126	6,634	6,623	71.5	63.6	63.1
<b>Total region</b>	<b>South-east</b>	<b>12,496</b>	<b>11,918</b>	<b>11,981</b>			
Curitiba	Parana	814	822	1,033	51.4	51.8	63.8
Florianopolis	Santa Catarina	40	42	96	14.2	12.3	27.2
Porto Alegre	Rio Grande do Sul	608	753	656	46.3	55.3	47.8
<b>Total region</b>	<b>South</b>	<b>1,462</b>	<b>1,617</b>	<b>1,785</b>			
Campo Grande	Mato Grosso do Sul	395	389	343	60.8	58.6	50.5
Goiania	Goias	362	318	572	34.3	29.1	51.5
Federal District	Federal District	1,100	1,106	913	55.8	53.9	43.5
<b>Total region</b>	<b>Centre-west</b>	<b>1,857</b>	<b>1,813</b>	<b>1,828</b>			
<b>Total Brazil</b>		<b>21,287</b>	<b>21,373</b>	<b>21,990</b>			

Violent Deaths: homicides limited to the capital cities of each state.  
Source: State Public Security Secretariats.  
IBGE - Censo 2000.

Table 9 Aggravated assault followed by death						
Capitals	Absolute numbers			Rate per 100,000 inhabitants		
	1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001
Porto Velho	3	13	16	1	3.9	4.7
Rio Branco	...	1	0	...	0.4	0
Manaus	8	10	18	0.6	0.7	1.2
Boa Vista	...	10	0	...	5	0
Belém	23	21	20	1.9	1.6	1.5
Macapá	...	...	2	...	...	0.7
Palmas	...	...	3	...	...	2
<b>Total - North</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>11.6</b>	<b>10.1</b>
São Luiz	...	15	23	...	1.7	2.6
Terezina	...	...	6	...	...	0.8
Fortaleza	28	49	15	1.3	2.3	0.7
Natal	11	5	2	1.6	0.7	0.3
João Pessoa	5	5	0	0.9	0.8	0
Recife	8	2	25	0.6	0.1	1.7
Maceió	2	...	1	0.3	...	0.1
Aracajú	23	...	2	5.2	...	0.4
Salvador	13	20	23	0.6	0.8	0.9
<b>Total - North-east</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>7.5</b>
Belo Horizonte	26	7	1	1.2	0.3	0
Vitória	...	19	1	...	6.5	0.3
Rio de Janeiro	61	71	101	1.1	1.2	1.7
São Paulo	298	202	208	3	1.9	2
<b>Total - South-east</b>	<b>385</b>	<b>299</b>	<b>311</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>9.9</b>	<b>4</b>
Curitiba	5	12	14	0.3	0.8	0.9
Florianópolis	2	2	0	0.7	0.6	0
Porto Alegre	60	78	63	4.6	5.7	4.6
<b>Total - South</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>5.5</b>
Campo Grande	13	8	6	2	1.2	0.9
Cuiabá	...	...	...	...	...	...
Goiânia	14	24	12	1.3	2.2	1.1
Distrito Federal	54	83	78	2.7	4	3.7
<b>Total - Centre-west</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>5.7</b>
<b>Total Brazil</b>	<b>657</b>	<b>657</b>	<b>640</b>			
Fatalities: manslaughter, traffic involuntary manslaughter, other involuntary manslaughter; Aggravated assault; robbery followed by death; suspicious death. Source: Public Security State Secretariat. IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute) 2000.						

<b>Table 10 Robbery</b>						
<b>Capitals</b>	<b>Absolute numbers</b>			<b>Rate per 100,000 inhabitants</b>		
	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>
Porto Velho	2,401	3,778	4,931	775.1	1,128.9	1,440.7
Rio Branco	765	655	685	294.8	258.8	262
Manaus	3,324	4,642	3,368	264.9	330.2	232
Boa Vista	580	237	231	346.9	118.2	110.8
Belém	8,217	10,727	11,187	692.3	837.6	857.7
Macapá	1,304	1,557	509	509.3	549.6	172
Palmas	...	...	257	...	...	170.3
<b>Total - North</b>	<b>16,591</b>	<b>21,596</b>	<b>21,168</b>	<b>2,883.3</b>	<b>3,223.3</b>	<b>3,245.5</b>
São Luiz	...	5,613	5,909	...	645.2	664.6
Terezina	...	2,315	3,835	...	...	526.1
Fortaleza	1,304	1,162	1,108	62.2	54.3	50.7
Natal	4,325	6,282	4,372	627.8	881.9	605.4
João Pessoa	2,424	1,137	2,504	415	190.2	412.2
Recife	8,759	10,231	7,554	635.6	719	525.6
Maceió	150	330	300	19.1	41.4	36.7
Aracaju	2,008	...	3,093	450.7	...	660.5
Salvador	17,636	16,891	19,875	765.8	691.4	799.6
<b>Total - North-east</b>	<b>36,606</b>	<b>43,961</b>	<b>48,550</b>	<b>2,976.2</b>	<b>3,223.4</b>	<b>4,281.4</b>
Belo Horizonte	3,065	3,980	2,603	143.3	177.8	115.2
Vitória	975	1,632	960	360.3	558.3	324.3
Rio de Janeiro	29,666	34,897	45,040	529.8	595.7	763.7
São Paulo	110,098	108,815	112,031	1,104.5	1,042.9	1,067.1
<b>Total - South-east</b>	<b>143,804</b>	<b>149,324</b>	<b>160,634</b>	<b>2,137.9</b>	<b>2,374.7</b>	<b>2,270.3</b>
Curitiba	5,591	9,509	11,257	352.9	599.1	694.8
Florianópolis	645	774	960	228.8	226.1	272.4
Porto Alegre	15,019	18,162	19,526	1,143	1,334.9	1,421.8
<b>Total - South</b>	<b>21,255</b>	<b>28,445</b>	<b>31,743</b>	<b>1,724.7</b>	<b>2,160.1</b>	<b>2,389</b>
Campo Grande	816	767	1,075	125.6	115.6	158.3
Cuiabá	...	...	...	...	...	...
Goiânia	7,287	7,628	9,797	689.8	697.9	881.3
Distrito Federal	15,490	18,385	20,572	786.3	896.3	980.8
<b>Total - Centre-west</b>	<b>23,593</b>	<b>26,780</b>	<b>31,444</b>	<b>1,601.7</b>	<b>1,709.8</b>	<b>2,020.4</b>
<b>Total Brazil</b>	<b>241,849</b>	<b>270,106</b>	<b>293,539</b>			
Fatalities: manslaughter, traffic involuntary manslaughter, other involuntary manslaughter; aggravated assault; robbery followed by death; suspicious death. Source: Public Security State Secretariat. IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute) 2000.						

<b>Table 11</b>						
<b>Theft</b>						
<b>Capitals</b>	<b>Absolute numbers</b>			<b>Rate per 100,000 inhabitants</b>		
	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>
Porto Velho	5,768	6,862	7,746	1,862.1	2,050.4	2,263.2
Rio Branco	2,855	4,127	4,846	1,100	1,630.8	1,853.7
Manaus	7,346	11,335	13,744	585.3	806.3	946.6
Boa Vista	2,916	2,828	3,419	1,744.2	1,410	1,639.7
Belém	13,019	15,264	14,374	1,096.9	1,191.9	1,102
Macapá	5,709	5,499	4,812	2,229.8	1,941	1,626.2
Palmas	...	...	1,827	...	...	1,210.9
<b>Total - North</b>	<b>37,613</b>	<b>45,915</b>	<b>50,768</b>	<b>8,618.3</b>	<b>9,030.4</b>	<b>10,642.3</b>
São Luiz	...	17,810	18,956	...	2,047.1	2,132
Terezina	...	10,221	10,503	...	1,428.8	1,441
Fortaleza	1,015	1,264	1,318	48.4	59	60.4
Natal	11,535	14,049	11,293	1,674.3	1,972.3	1,563.8
João Pessoa	4,707	3,447	5,354	806	576.5	881.4
Recife	10,006	10,581	7,401	726.1	743.6	515
Maceió	508	1,293	908	64.6	162.1	111.1
Aracajú	5,859	...	9,720	1,315	...	2,075.6
Salvador	25,437	30,582	35,268	1,104.6	1,251.8	1,418.8
<b>Total - North-east</b>	<b>59,067</b>	<b>89,247</b>	<b>100,721</b>	<b>5,739</b>	<b>8,241.2</b>	<b>10,199.1</b>
Belo Horizonte	15,412	18,333	14,916	720.5	819	660.3
Vitória	2,719	4,846	3,358	1,004.7	1,657.9	1,135.4
Rio de Janeiro	32,458	38,123	42,140	579.7	650.8	714.5
São Paulo	111,829	107,555	115,380	1,121.8	1,030.8	1,098.9
<b>Total - South-east</b>	<b>162,418</b>	<b>168,857</b>	<b>175,794</b>	<b>3,426.7</b>	<b>4,158.5</b>	<b>3,609.1</b>
Curitiba	16,434	21,228	24,183	1,037.3	1,337.4	1,492.6
Florianópolis	14,307	14,948	13,837	5,074.7	4,366.7	3,926.5
Porto Alegre	38,838	42,852	43,383	2,955.6	3,149.5	3,159
<b>Total - South</b>	<b>69,579</b>	<b>79,028</b>	<b>81,403</b>	<b>9,067.6</b>	<b>8,853.6</b>	<b>8,578.1</b>
Campo Grande	7,429	3,507	4,530	1,143.6	528.5	666.9
Cuiabá	...	...	...	...	...	...
Goiânia	18,297	20,428	26,101	1,732.1	1,869	2,348
Distrito Federal	32,809	39,665	47,226	1,665.5	1,933.8	2,251.6
<b>Total - Centre-west</b>	<b>58,535</b>	<b>63,600</b>	<b>77,857</b>	<b>4,541.3</b>	<b>4,331.2</b>	<b>5,266.5</b>
<b>Total Brazil</b>	<b>387,212</b>	<b>446,647</b>	<b>486,543</b>			
Source: Public Security State Secretariat. IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute) 2000.						

<b>Table 12</b> <b>Motor vehicle theft 1999 to 2001</b>						
Capitals	Absolute numbers			Rate per 100,000 inhabitants		
	1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001
Porto Velho	340	272	295	109.8	81.3	86.2
Rio Branco	24	81	65	9.2	32	24.9
Manaus	574	448	420	45.7	31.9	28.9
Boa Vista	240	83	250	143.6	41.4	119.9
Belém	364	260	424	30.7	20.3	32.5
Macapá	...	...	14	...	...	4.7
Palmas	...	...	90	...	...	59.6
<b>Total - North</b>	<b>1,542</b>	<b>1,144</b>	<b>1,558</b>	<b>339</b>	<b>206.9</b>	<b>356.7</b>
São Luiz	...	334	214	...	38.4	24.1
Terezina	...	317	367	...	44.3	50.4
Fortaleza	319	734	1,561	15.2	34.3	71.5
Natal	746	692	674	108.3	97.1	93.3
João Pessoa	125	94	264	21.4	15.7	43.5
Recife	1,426	2,235	455	103.5	157.1	31.7
Maceió	193	50	163	24.5	6.3	19.9
Aracajú	187	...	140	42	...	29.9
Salvador	1,733	1,547	2,026	75.3	63.3	81.5
<b>Total - North-east</b>	<b>4,729</b>	<b>6,003</b>	<b>5,864</b>	<b>390.2</b>	<b>456.5</b>	<b>445.8</b>
Belo Horizonte	2,013	9,498	1,141	94.1	424.3	50.5
Vitória	...	...	550	...	...	185.8
Rio de Janeiro	14,036	11,502	11,701	250.7	196.4	198.4
São Paulo	59,963	60,646	56,294	601.5	581.2	536.2
<b>Total - South-east</b>	<b>76,012</b>	<b>81,646</b>	<b>69,686</b>	<b>946.3</b>	<b>1,201.9</b>	<b>970.9</b>
Curitiba	8,472	6,139	8,334	534.8	386.8	514.4
Florianópolis	619	466	614	219.6	136.1	174.2
Porto Alegre	5,315	6,038	6,796	404.5	443.8	494.9
<b>Total - South</b>	<b>14,406</b>	<b>12,643</b>	<b>15,744</b>	<b>1,158.9</b>	<b>966.7</b>	<b>1,183.5</b>
Campo Grande	821	1,052	927	126.4	158.5	136.5
Cuiabá	...	...	...	...	...	...
Goiânia	1,934	1,459	1,629	183.1	133.5	146.5
Distrito Federal	5,541	6,265	6,896	281.3	305.4	328.8
<b>Total - Centre-west</b>	<b>8,296</b>	<b>8,776</b>	<b>9,452</b>	<b>590.8</b>	<b>597.4</b>	<b>611.8</b>
<b>Total Brazil</b>	<b>104,985</b>	<b>110,212</b>	<b>102,304</b>			
Source: Public Security State Secretariat. IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute) 2000.						



The prison system in Brazil (918 establishments) with rare exceptions, is short of cells. Overcrowding often results in rebellions. Table 13 gives a complete overview of the prison system.

**Table 13**  
**Prison system per state (July 2002)**

State	Absolute number of prisoners	Population	Rate / 100 thousand inhab.	Gender distribution			Deficit
				Male	Female	Total	
<b>Brazil</b>	<b>239,348</b>	<b>169,799,170</b>	<b>133</b>	<b>228,597</b>	<b>10,751</b>	<b>239,348</b>	<b>(58,187)</b>
<b>Northern region</b>	<b>11,871</b>	<b>12,900,704</b>	<b>143</b>	<b>10,817</b>	<b>1,054</b>	<b>11,871</b>	<b>(3,454)</b>
Rondonia	3,052	1,379,787	221	2,722	330	3,052	(1,505)
Acre	1,451	557,526	260	1,384	67	1,451	(689)
Amazonas	1,901	2,812,557	68	1,364	537	1,901	(843)
Roraima	393	324,397	121	370	23	393	(51)
Para	3,020	6,192,307	49	2,993	27	3,020	(15)
Amapá	850	477,032	178	808	42	850	(313)
Tocantins	1,204	1,157,098	104	1,176	28	1,204	(38)
<b>North-eastern region</b>	<b>32,094</b>	<b>47,741,711</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>30,907</b>	<b>1,187</b>	<b>32,094</b>	<b>(12,082)</b>
Maranhao	2,905	5,651,475	51	2,775	130	2,905	(2,090)
Piauí	1,795	2,843,278	63	1,704	91	1,795	(368)
Ceara	6,762	7,430,661	91	6,546	216	6,762	(1,923)
Rio Grande do Norte	1,168	2,776,782	42	1,120	48	1,168	156
Paraíba	3,151	3,443,825	91	3,043	108	3,151	(1,243)
Pernambuco	8,958	7,918,344	113	8,693	265	8,958	(4,613)
Alagoas	852	2,822,621	30	798	54	852	(180)
Sergipe	1,601	1,784,475	90	1,541	60	1,601	(943)
Bahia	4,902	13,070,250	38	4,687	215	4,902	(878)
<b>South-eastern region</b>	<b>147,031</b>	<b>72,412,411</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>140,344</b>	<b>6,687</b>	<b>147,031</b>	<b>(31,758)</b>
Minas Gerais	19,723	17,891,494	110	19,396	327	19,723	(15,501)
Espírito Santo	3,774	3,097,232	122	3,580	194	3,774	(1,075)
Rio de Janeiro	20,726	14,391,282	144	20,064	662	20,726	40
Sao Paulo	102,808	37,032,403	278	97,304	5,504	102,808	(15,222)
<b>Southern region</b>	<b>30,597</b>	<b>25,107,616</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>29,493</b>	<b>1,104</b>	<b>30,597</b>	<b>(4,942)</b>
Paraná	9,956	9,563,458	104	9,531	425	9,956	(1,279)
Santa Catarina	5,710	5,356,360	107	5,488	222	5,710	(2,025)
Rio Grande do Sul	14,931	10,187,798	147	14,474	457	14,931	(1,638)
<b>Centre-west region</b>	<b>17,755</b>	<b>11,636,728</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>17,036</b>	<b>719</b>	<b>17,755</b>	<b>(5,951)</b>
Mato Grosso do Sul	4,435	2,078,001	213	4,321	114	4,435	(2,236)
Mato Grosso	2,673	2,504,353	107	2,551	122	2,673	(572)
Goiás	5,608	5,003,228	112	5,356	252	5,608	(1,234)
Federal District	5,039	2,051,146	246	4,808	231	5,039	(1,909)

Source: DEPEN/MJ  
IBGE/2000

Table 14 Federal police: drug-related arrests (1997 to 2001)			
Year	Art. 12*	Art. 16**	Total
1997	2,112	330	2,442
1998	2,148	232	2,380
1999	2,224	282	2,506
2000	2,424	275	2,699
2001	2,795	254	3,049
<b>Total</b>	<b>11,703</b>	<b>1,373</b>	<b>13,076</b>

Source: *Departamento de Polícia Federal - Coodenação-Geral de Prevenção e Repressão a Entorpecentes* - CGPRE (Federal Police Department - General Coordination for Drug Prevention and Law Enforcement), the former Narcotics Law Enforcement Division (*Divisão de Repressão a Entorpecentes* - DRE), 2002.

\*Law No. 6,368 (21 October 1976) art. 12: Refers to the trafficking, preparation, cultivation, sale or induction to drug use and/or to physical and psychological dependence-causing substances. Sentence: 3 to 15 years.

\*\*Law No. 6,368 (21 October 1976) art. 16: Refers to acquiring, keeping or carrying drugs for personal use (sentence: 6 months to 2 years).

### 3. THE YEAR IN REVIEW: MAIN EVENTS

#### 3.1. Major political and economic events

The October 2002 general election marked the end of President Fernando Henrique Cardoso's eight-year era, run by a coalition between the Brazilian Social Democrat Party (PSDB) and other centre-right parties. Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva, of the Workers' Party (PT), took office on 1 January 2003, with an agenda centred on public security issues and social reforms.

The strong currency devaluation that began in August 2002 (linked to the president election) caused a destabilization of internal prices. Inflation gained force in the second semester of 2002. The official IPCA inflation index, a key government gauge for setting interest rates, rose 1.31 per cent in the election month of October, against 0.72 per cent in September. The accumulated IPCA inflation index for 2002 was 9.91 per cent — much higher than both the market expectations and the 6.7 per cent inflation index previously forecasted by the Government.

There has been a positive side of currency devaluation, which can be observed in the international trade statistics. Low exchange rates for the *real* has increased export substantially, totalling US\$ 60.3 billion in 2002. The external account at the end of 2002 had a US\$ 13.1 billion surplus. The reserve of the Central Bank reached US\$ 37.8 billion at the end of the year.

### 3.2. Drugs

The National Anti-drug Policy (PNAD) was launched in 2001 by the National Anti-drug Secretariat (SENAD). A participative design methodology was used in the formulation of PNAD, involving the Government and civil society.

SENAD, through the Brazilian Centre for Psychotropic Drugs Information (CEBRID), published in 2002 the first national Household Survey on Drugs Consumption, carried out in 2001. It collected information through stratified samples in 107 cities with more than 200,000 inhabitants. The total sample included 8,589 interviews with people (both male and female) between the ages of 12 and 65. According to the survey, 19.4 per cent of the interviewees reported the consumption of some kind of drug (except tobacco and alcohol) at least once in a lifetime. Some 6.9 per cent smoked marijuana; 5.8 per cent used inhalants; 2.3 per cent used cocaine; 1.5 per cent used stimulants and 3.3 per cent used benzodiazepinics. Regarding access to drugs, 45.8 per cent consider it easy to obtain cocaine; 15 per cent have seen someone buying or selling drugs; and drug dealers have approached 4 per cent. The research also indicated that 35 per cent of the interviewees had not concluded the first grade or were illiterate.

SENAD estimates that there are 1,360 private institutions and therapeutic communities rendering drug treatment and care services in the country. The National Sanitary Surveillance Agency (ANVISA), with support of a consultative national committee, issued the "Minimum standards for therapeutic communities" for these institutions. The "Minimum standards" establishes that by mid-2003 the structures of these institutions would have to be adapted to the minimum standards.

The Ministry of Health has introduced 50 Psychosocial Day-Care Centres (CAPS). This innovation of assistance and care is directed towards patients with problems associated with dependency of psychoactive substances — especially towards those of middle and low income. The Ministry of Health has started to address the considerable weakness of the Government in treatment and reintegration of those with chemical dependency. These public centres provide a wide range of services. They focus on the reintegration and social insertion of the patient and his or her family. Services include individual care (medical, psychotherapy and guidance), group psychotherapy, social support activities, therapeutic workshops, home-care, and family care and community activities. The target is to reach 250 centres in 2004. However, there is an urgent need to extend the CAPS to at least 1,000 municipalities, covering approximately 20 per cent of all municipalities in Brazil, by 2006.

Experience shows that investing resources in treatment by offering quality services reduces criminality substantially. Income-generating crime — such as theft, shoplifting, robbery, and prostitution — is considerably reduced. This contributes to improved public security at the family, community and country levels. The cost to society of untreated drug dependency is estimated in Brazil at several billion US dollars.

SENAD is aware of Brazil's responsibility to neighbouring countries and the vulnerability of its vast frontiers. Therefore, SENAD proposed and is currently leading the implementation of a drug demand reduction project to address four major border sites with Argentina, Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay.

A study comparing surveys among secondary school students was carried out in 10 capitals in 1987, 1989, 1993 and 1997. It indicated that 24.6 per cent of the students have used psychoactive drugs in their lifetime. In Rio de Janeiro, 22 per cent made use (lifetime), and 2.4 per cent used drugs frequently. Trends analysis revealed an increase in the lifetime use of cocaine, as well as its intensive use (more than 20 times per month) in eight Brazilian capitals.

A special task force was created to coordinate activities in all three governmental levels aimed at controlling criminal organizations and drug trafficking. The first activity of the task force was to develop an action plan for the states of Rio de Janeiro and Espírito Santo, where organized crime activities were most obvious. In Rio de Janeiro, several drug traffickers were put into prison. This disrupted the activities of the criminal organization and also reduced drug supply. In the state of Espírito Santo signs of organized crime involved with legislative power forced the federal police to act as a coordinating body to dismantle the organizations.

### **3.3. Crime**

The major crime problem of 2002 was a string of rebellions in federal prisons. A criminal organization, known as the Capital First Command (PCC), launched simultaneous rebellions in the largest prisons of Sao Paulo and other states. This is an indication of the high level of corruption existing in the prisons. These operations included the trade of guns, drugs, money and mobile telephones. Mobile telephones enable criminal organizations to maintain control — even from within the prisons. The rebellions gave evidence of the frailty of the prison system in Brazil. The prisons are overcrowded and of low-quality. These conditions invite the onset of rebellions.

Money used for bribes and the illegal trading of weapons among the inmates originates primarily from drug trafficking. Therefore, the situation in the prison system, as described above, may actually be considered a factor that fosters drug-related crime. In some cases, inmates use drugs as currency. Criminal organizations connected to drug trafficking are powerful within the prisons.

To address increased violence, in 2000 the Government launched the National Public Security Plan (PNSP). The PNSP has a budget of approximately US\$ 383 million<sup>2</sup> and foresees the adoption of actions at the federal level and the cooperation of the states and civil society. Special emphasis is placed on the security of citizens, the modernization of the prison system, assistance to threatened victims and witnesses, the fight against drug trafficking and organized crime. This plan has been partially implemented and will continue in the future.

For the total expenditures of the PNSP covering the period 2000 to 2002, please see the following table:

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<sup>2</sup> The United Nations operational exchange rate for Brazil effective on 1 April 2002 was of R\$ 2.35 per US\$ 1.00.

Year	Total reals (R\$)	Average exchange rate	Total US dollar (US\$)
2000	304,412,489	1.9	160,217,100
2001	412,280,012	2.3	179,252,180
2002	338,640,372	2.95	114,793,346
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,055,332,873</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>454,262,626</b>

## 4. GENERAL SETTING

### 4.1. Major characteristics of the country

#### Economic and social indicators<sup>3</sup>

Child labour has sharply decreased in Brazil. From 1995 to 1999, the number of working children between the ages of 5 and 15 fell 25 per cent: from 5.1 million to 3.8 million. Infant mortality decreased from 47.8 deaths per 1,000 in 1991 to 29.6 in 2000.

In 2002, the minimum wage was 27 per cent above the level of the early 1990's. The percentage of the population below the poverty line fell from 42 per cent in the period 1990 to 1994, to the present 33 per cent. This translates into 9 million less people living below the poverty line. Some 8.9 million new jobs were created from 1993 to 2001, helping to maintain the unemployment rate at approximately 7 per cent.

As far as agrarian reform is concerned, more than 588,000 families were settled between 1995 and 2001. During this period, almost 20 million hectares of land were given to landless people.

Yet Brazil, with 172.6 millions inhabitants, is a country of enormous social contrasts. According to the UNDP Human Development Index, Brazil has one of the most inequitable distributions of income in the world:

- Poverty: 33 per cent of the population (54 million) earns less than US\$ 2 per day.
- Indigence: 11.6 per cent of the population (20 million) earns less than US\$ 1 per day.

GDP growth in Brazil has increased a mere 0.5 per cent over the last decade. The average per capita income was US\$ 2,923 per annum in 2001. The economic disparity among different sectors of society is one of the major problems of the country. The calculation of the per capita income is strongly influenced by a small portion of the population with a considerably higher income compared to the majority. If the calculation excluded the richest portion of the population, the per capita income would be considerably lower.

<sup>3</sup> Source: Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute (IBGE), Rio de Janeiro, 2000. All statistics exclude the rural population of the states of Rondonia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Para and Amapa. The population considered in these statistics includes people older than 10 years of age, with or without a monthly income.

### Social tension and crime

Facing enormous economic and social differences, Brazilian society struggles with high rates of violence and tension. Over 30,000 homicides are registered yearly<sup>4</sup>, mainly in low-income urban areas and mostly involving young men. Drug trafficking and the fight for drug distribution points are the cause for many homicides among young people.

In the countryside, tension between landless peasants and landowners often ends in fatal violence. Violence can be indirectly related to the lack of opportunities. In the north-eastern states, for instance, there is little access to basic rights and services, such as education and health.

Socio-economic disparities among regions result in migration from poverty-stricken parts of the country to developed metropolitan areas, where the number of squatter settlements has increased. The metropolitan areas are facing major macro-social risk factors for drug abuse, trafficking and related violence. Sociologists believe that the trafficking cycle and the lack of alternatives for licit income may become causes for violence — especially in the poorest areas or among vulnerable populations, such as youngsters.

During 2002, rebellions commanded by organized crime capos in prisons nationwide challenged the capacity of the Government to control violence within the prison system. In general, violent crimes, such as homicides, occur with often and are shocking to the public.

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<sup>4</sup> Some experts say that this figure has increased to 50,000 in 2001.

## 5. DRUG SITUATION

### 5.1. Production and cultivation

#### Cannabis sativa production

Cannabis production in Brazil is solely for domestic consumption. It supplies the demand in the production areas themselves and nearby regions – north-east and north of the country. A number of criminal organizations, specialized in the trafficking of cannabis, supply domestic demand by importing cannabis, mainly from Paraguay. After entering the country, the drug is sent (usually by road) to the consumer markets — mainly the south, south-east and central-west regions.

#### Cannabis eradication

The police carry out cannabis crop eradication in Brazil manually. Cultivation takes place in isolated areas of the states of Pernambuco, Bahia, and Maranhao (north-east region) and in the states of Para and Amazonas (northern region). Eradication activities are grouped into three phases: (i) previous inspection; (ii) crop destruction; and (iii) monitoring of eradicated areas.

The cannabis produced in the north-east region is irrigated. It has a 90-day production cycle. There are from three to four annual harvests. Eradication is carried out during these periods. In the areas of the northern region (without irrigation) the production cycle is a little longer, yielding about three annual harvests.

Statistics reported in 2001 showed an increase in eradication of 3.5 per cent, slightly higher than that reported in 2000. It is estimated that an area equivalent to 126 acres were eradicated in 2000, in comparison to 123 acres in 2001. An average of 75,000 bushes are cultivated per hectare.

The plantations in the north-eastern regions diminished considerably. Therefore, there was a commensurate decrease in the number of plants eradicated (a reduction of 8.86 per cent in relation to 2000). In contrast, an opposite trend was observed in the northern region. In the north, there was an increase in the amount of crops eradicated (63.96 per cent over 2000). Furthermore, it was observed that there was a migration of plantations from the north-eastern to the northern region.

#### Cocaine production

Brazil does not produce coca bushes. Small cultivations of *epadu* (coca bush with a lesser quantity of alkaloid) have been reported in the northern region bordering Colombia, Peru and Venezuela. These cultivations are almost exclusively for the traditional consumption of leaves by the Indian community and some religious sects. The processing of cocaine hydrochloride is also insignificant.

### Heroin production

So far, the federal police have not reported any poppy cultivation or heroin processing in Brazil.

## **5.2. Manufacture**

### Synthetic drugs production

Over the last few years, the federal police have had no reports of clandestine production of synthetic drugs in Brazil. Nevertheless, they developed permanent surveillance to identify market trends through the intelligence service and through international exchange of information. Among the synthetic drugs, ecstasy is the most disturbing to Brazilian authorities.

## **5.3. International trafficking**

Brazil is particularly vulnerable to trafficking. This is due to its proximity to the main drug-producing countries in Latin America. The geography of Brazil allows for greater mobility of the trafficking network. This makes state control measures difficult. The existing national infrastructure is well explored by criminal organizations for their illicit activities. Brazil is strategically located geographically in the context of a global chain of drug production. These characteristics allow the drug traffickers to find a financial haven in Brazil, using the country as an export route or even as a cocaine deposit point.

### Cannabis sativa and by-products trafficking routes

The major part of the cannabis consumer market in Brazil is supplied by cannabis produced in Paraguay. The cannabis enters Brazil by land or air through the borders of Mato Grosso do Sul and Parana states. Specifically, the drug enters the country through the cities of Ciudad del Este/Foz do Iguaçu, Salto del Guayra/Guaira, Pedro Juan Caballero/Ponta Pora, or Fuerte Olimpo/Porto Murtinho. It is then brought to the consumer markets. These are located in the states of Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo, Espirito Santo, Minas Gerais, Parana, Santa Catarina, Rio Grande do Sul, Goias, the Federal District. It sometimes reaches the north-eastern region, from Bahia to Rio Grande do Norte states.

### Cocaine and by-products trafficking routes

Cocaine entering Brazil to supply domestic demand usually comes from Bolivia, Colombia and Peru. It arrives by road, river and air, through the borders of Paraguay, especially close to Ciudad del Este/Foz do Iguaçu, Lago Itaipu, Salto del Guayra/Guaira, Pedro Juan Caballero/Ponta Porã and Fuerte Olimpo/Porto Murtinho. From Bolivia, it enters mainly through the cities of Puerto Suarez/Corumba, San Mathias/Caceres, San Joaquin/Costa Marques, Guayara Mirim/Guajara-Mirim, and Cubijas/Brasileia. From Peru, it enters through the cities of Anapari/Assis Brasil and Cruzeiro do Sul, Iquitos/Estirao do Equador, Atalaia do Norte and Benjamin Constant. From Colombia, it enters through the cities of Leticia/Tabatinga and the Amazonas/Solimões, Putumayo/Iça, Caqueta/Japura,



Vaupes/Vaupes, Içana/Içana, Guainia/Rio Negro rivers. Once the cocaine reaches Brazil, it is transported to various locations, according to the traffickers' convenience and to market demand.

Cocaine entering Brazil in transit to other countries usually comes from Colombia. It is produced in the south and south-east regions of Colombia. It enters Brazil by air in small planes. "Re-exportation" is normally by ship to Africa, Argentina, Guyana, Italy, Portugal, the Netherlands, North America, Spain, Suriname and the United Kingdom. Most often, the cocaine exits Colombia, passes through Mato Grosso and Goiás states in Brazil and then goes back north towards Suriname. From there, it is mainly sent to European markets and to a lesser degree to the United States<sup>5</sup>.

#### Heroin trafficking routes

Regarding the trafficking of heroin, two points should be noted: (1) The isolated cases observed during 2001 and 2002 indicate that Brazil is being used by drug smugglers (*mulas*) to transport heroin to the consumer markets. (2) With only four heroin seizures reported by the federal police (1998, 2001 and 2002), there is no strong evidence that there is a Brazilian criminal organization dealing with the trafficking of heroin.

Since there are no systematic reports of heroin seizures in Brazil by the federal police, the routes used by the traffickers are not precisely known. Nevertheless, the two cases reported during the last three years indicate that the drug entered Brazil through the border with Venezuela, in Santa Elena/Pacaraima, Roraima state, towards São Paulo, from where it would have been sent abroad, possibly to the United States.

Heroin traffickers are reportedly using *mulas* to transport it from Buenos Aires (Argentina) or Montevideo (Uruguay) through São Paulo (Brazil) towards New York (United States) and Europe.

#### Synthetic drugs trafficking routes

Synthetic drugs, especially ecstasy, come mostly from Europe (mainly the Netherlands). They usually enter Brazil in small quantities by air or mail, to be consumed in populous cities – such as São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Belo Horizonte, Salvador, Recife and Fortaleza.

#### Seizures

##### Cannabis sativa seizures

A comparison between the seizures of 2001 and those of 2000 shows a decrease of about 7.97 per cent, from approximately 160 tonnes to 146 tonnes of cannabis seized. This should not be considered to be an indication that trafficking, trade and consumption are decreasing. Neither should it be considered that police control is lax. No technical studies allow for these conclusions. It should be noted that the decrease was related to marijuana

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<sup>5</sup> Based on data from the federal police.

seizures. In fact, there was a slight increase regarding other drugs. It should also be emphasized that some major dealers were arrested in 2001.

#### Cannabis resin seizures

Although cannabis resin is not a popular drug in Brazil, the federal police reported a slight increase in its seizures in 2001: 4.64 per cent. Similar to marijuana, there is no indication that there will be significant changes in its trafficking, consumption or seizure within the country.

#### Cocaine seizures

The fact that there was a significant increase of the seizures of cocaine and its by-products during 2001<sup>6</sup> (73.76 per cent) does not mean that there was a commensurate increase in their trafficking and use. No technical studies are available to corroborate this conclusion. Nevertheless, some factors may have influenced the increase in cocaine seizures:

- a. Intelligence actions aimed at the activities of major criminal organizations involved in cocaine trafficking;
- b. Police training aimed at dismantling organized crime;
- c. Establishment of programmes to be developed in strategic areas;
- d. Operational and intelligence activities coordination executed with a greater participation of the decentralized units;
- e. Purchase and use of technological equipment more suitable for police actions;
- f. More routes options within Brazil for the traffickers;
- g. More intensive joint operations with neighbouring countries; and
- h. Increase in cocaine production, transport, trade and demand at the global level.

#### Coca paste seizures

Coca paste seizures have remained stable as compared to 2000, with a slight decrease of approximately 3.51 per cent. It is possible to assume that this trend will continue next year, as major coca paste processing laboratories or apparent signs of future installations have not been identified.

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<sup>6</sup> On the basis of an analysis carried out regarding cocaine seizures during 2001, it was observed that the central-west region has become the main route for drug smuggling to Brazil, with about 4,500 kg in 2001. This is equivalent to approximately 54 per cent of the total seizures of 2001, against 23 per cent reported in 2000. Next comes the south-east region, with *circa* 30 per cent of the seizures in 2001, against 36 per cent in 2000. The northern region reported 7.5 per cent in 2001, against 23 per cent in 2000. The southern region seized 6 per cent in 2001, against 14 per cent in 2000. The north-east region reported about 2.5 per cent in 2001, against 4 per cent in 2000. Considering the total cocaine seizures, there was a relative increase of 73.76 per cent as compared to 2000. This is in most part due to the increase in the seizures in the central-west region (approximately 290 per cent). The seizures in the south-east region also showed a significant increase in 2000 and 2001: 46.09 per cent.

### Crack seizures

In Brazil, the level of demand for crack (a cocaine by-product) varies by area. For instance, the drug is more traded and consumed in the state of Sao Paulo, a region that is highly developed economically. However, it is also available in a number of impoverished areas. As it is inexpensive, it is easily accessible to the low-income population.

Crack seizures during 2001 were significantly higher than the previous year, reaching 186.25 per cent. There are neither technical studies nor reliable data from which to infer the trends of commerce and use of this drug in Brazil in the next few years.

### Heroin seizures

Analysts of heroin trafficking state that there is a tendency to use South America as a drug transit route to North America and Europe, in an attempt to avoid the barriers imposed by the consumer countries as a result of the terrorist attacks of 2001.

### Synthetic drugs

World projections indicate an increase in the production and consumption of synthetic drugs, especially MDMA. Currently, these stimulants represent one of the most important and profitable segments of the international illicit drug market. According to experts, metamphetamine rivals cocaine as the favourite stimulant in many parts of the world. The demand for metamphetamines and other synthetic stimulants, MDMA among them, has increased not only in the industrialized nations, but also in a number of developing countries.

These stimulants are easily produced. This is because production does not depend on harvests, as is the case with drugs manufactured from coca or opium poppy. This attracts both small entrepreneurs and major international cartels. Also, synthetic drugs allow for the whole process (from the manufacture to the distribution and street marketing) to be controlled by only one criminal organization, thus yielding greater profit.

The Brazilian police do not have reliable data and studies to be able to establish ecstasy routes. However, it is known that the drug enters Brazil from European countries – mainly Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands.

## **5.4. Diversion of drugs and precursors**

According to data from the Brazilian Association of Chemical Industries, the volume of the chemical industry worldwide surpasses US\$ 1.59 trillion. Global export of chemical products is worth over US\$ 528 billion a year. The Brazilian chemical industry is among the 10 largest in the world in the production of chemicals.

For the regulation of chemical precursors, Brazil is developing a flexible system aimed at controlling the flow of precursors without establishing unwanted barriers to business and industry. The federal police is in charge of the monitoring and control of 140 chemical products, including chemical precursors that could be used in the manufacture of cocaine and synthetic drugs.

Brazil produces 7 of the 12 chemical precursors used in the manufacture of cocaine. These are:<sup>7</sup> Acetone or 2-Propanone, Methyl ethyl ketone or 2-Butanone, Sulphuric acid, Methylene chloride (methylene dichloride or dichloromethane), Hydrochloric acid, Acetic anhydride, Chloroform, Ethyl chloride, Ethyl ether, Potassium permanganate, Sodium sulfate and Toluene. Controls by the federal police are strict. The result of chemical precursors control activities are shown in table 5.

### 5.5. Drug prices

The most popular illicit drugs sold in Brazil are cannabis, cocaine, coca paste and crack. The cocaine that enters the country is stored near metropolitan areas for later distribution. Most of the cocaine is made into crack locally. Crack is the drug of choice of the low-income population. This is true for many of the major cities of Brazil (such as Sao Paulo), with the exception of Rio de Janeiro. In the poorest areas of Rio de Janeiro, drug trafficking is mainly a retailer's activity.

Since the 1980's, cocaine is the top product, yielding the highest profit in comparison with other illegal merchandise. Cocaine is sold in units called *papelotes*. These are small envelopes in the shape of candies, generally containing half a gram of the drug. The price is determined by quality and "market" conditions, such as the presence of police in the trafficking area. The market also oscillates according to special dates, such as carnival and holidays. In Brasilia *merla* (a coca paste by-product) is more common in the outskirts of the city. This is because it is the cheapest drug available. It costs approximately US\$ 10 to US\$ 15 for a can (approximately 40 grams).

Before reaching the consumer, the price of the drug increases in geometric proportions. While 1 gram of cocaine costs US\$ 1 in the producer countries, the consumer in Brazil may pay US\$ 4 or US\$ 5 in the shantytowns for the same amount. House delivery of drugs to wealthy customers is a profitable business in major cities. In Rio de Janeiro, this service costs US\$ 20 per gram of cocaine.

As for cannabis, Pernambuco state in north-east Brazil (Marijuana Polygon) calls special attention from the Government. A farmer is estimated to make as much as US\$ 150 per month (average) by growing cannabis. The price of 1 kg of cannabis at the producer level is less than US\$ 30. This can be sold for approximately US\$ 220 in the streets. Regarding drug purity, there is no information available on this as no research has been done.

### 5.6. Demand

The launching of the PNSP in 11 December 2001 represented an important landmark to counter the drug problem in Brazil. It restated to the national and international community the commitment of the Brazilian Government in establishing the objectives and strategies to reduce demand and supply. This policy reinforces the commitment of the Brazilian Government to the UN Conventions and to the Guiding Principles for the Reduction of the Drug Demand. However, this political commitment has not been matched by a budgetary

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<sup>7</sup> Source: Chemical Control Procedures, Ministry of Justice, 1998.

allocation for the demand reduction area. Therefore, the situation on the ground did not improve.

A number of approaches have been used to evaluate drug consumption in the country. These include population studies among students and street children, drug consumption indicators (drug-related hospitalizations, etc.) and ethnographic studies. They all point to drug abuse as a phenomenon of increasing importance in Brazil. The poorest communities, where there are few social and professional opportunities, represent a source of cheap labour for drug traffickers. It is in these communities that there appears to be a tendency towards drug abuse in its most harmful form — injecting drug use.

The First National Household Survey on Drugs Consumption, carried out in 2001, was designed to collect information through stratified samples in 107 cities with more than 200,000 inhabitants. The total sample was of 8,589 interviews with people of age 12 to 65, male and female. (Key data from this study are shown in table 7, page 9).

Another study, entitled “the Voice of the Adolescents”, was carried out by UNICEF/Brazil to support the elaboration and design of its country programme. It was addressed to 5,280 Brazilian adolescents from all regions and dealt with several subjects. Themes included leisure, education, health, labour, family, violence, drugs, among others. It revealed serious disparities and difficulties regarding the rights of youth.

Data obtained that related to drug use revealed that 14.2 per cent of the interviewees (ages ranging from 12 to 17) reported to use or to have used some kind of illicit drug. Some 84.4 per cent reported never having used any drug. The table below shows these figures broken down by social class and divided into four categories, A to D — A being the highest. One can observe that the use of drugs is higher among classes A and B, while the percentage is reduced in classes C and D.

<b>Table 15</b> <b>Use of drugs by adolescents per social class (%)</b>					
	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D	Not answered
Use or have used in lifetime	21.6	20.5	11.4	16.5	17.7
Never used	78.4	78	86.9	83.3	80.6
Not answered	0	1.5	1.7	0.2	1.7

Among the adolescents ages 12 to 14, some 8.2 per cent reported lifetime use of some kind of illicit drug. This percentage increased to 20.2 per cent among adolescents ages 15 to 17. The research listed nine types of illicit drugs. It was observed that 9 per cent reported to use or to have used marijuana, which also appears as the most frequent illicit drug used. This was followed by cocaine, with 5 per cent (UNICEF).

The study “*Retrato da Escola*”, launched in 2002 by the National Confederation of Workers in Education, collected data among 2,351 national private and public schools to improve public education. Data was obtained on school management, working conditions, teaching quality and planning. The study also offered data on drug use, trafficking and violence within the school environment.

**Table 16**  
**Trafficking and violence within the school environment**

Drug use (valid percentage)		Trafficking in school (valid percentage)	
Never	68.0	Never	78.3
Occasionally	27.8	Occasionally	19.4
Always	4.2	Always	2.3

Drug use within school premises (valid percentage)		Drug use outside school premises (valid percentage)	
Never	79.1	Never	59.1
Occasionally	17.6	Occasionally	29.7
Always	3.3	Always	11.2

Drug trafficking within school premises (valid percentage)		Drug trafficking outside school premises (valid percentage)	
Never	89.8	Never	70.2
Occasionally	8.3	Occasionally	22.6
Always	1.9	Always	7.2

This same study shows data obtained by the Brazilian Institute for Statistics and Opinion, which questioned the youngsters on their main reasons for using drugs. The most frequent answers provided by the youngsters were:

**Table 17**  
**Evolution of the main reasons for using drugs**

	Apr/96 %	Oct/ 97 %	Jan/99 %
To escape from problems with family and parents	28	27	35
To be accepted by a group of friends	11	18	15
To experience new and pleasurable sensations	11	11	9
To feel free and less shy	11	7	9
To break society's rules	6	6	7
To escape from bad thoughts and feelings	9	10	6
To feel at ease in parties and programmes	5	5	4
To facilitate studying and learning	4	1	3
To do something with free time	2	2	2
To improve creativity	1	1	2
To get to know oneself better	2	1	2
Other	2	2	1
None of these answers/Other	4	4	2
Does not know / Does not have an opinion	3	5	3

As to the best ways of approaching the prevention of drug abuse among this population, the most frequent answers provided by the youngsters were:

<b>Table 18</b> <b>Evolution of the best approaches to prevent drug abuse</b>			
	Apr/96 %	Oct/97 %	Jan/99 %
To provide the family with training to discuss the subject with the youngsters	57	61	52
TV and radio campaigns addressed to youngsters	51	46	45
To provide teachers with training to discuss the subject with students	45	50	39
To bring specialists to discuss the issue at school	43	42	33
To better prepare / give parents more information	-	-	33
To distribute informative material in the streets and in the places where youngsters go	43	40	31
To improve repressive conditions in schools, in the streets and in public sites.	25	29	31
To have doctors discuss the subject with their young patients	19	19	20
Other	1	2	0
Does not know/ Does not have an opinion	2	1	0

The answers show that provision of information is essential. They also reveal that schools have an important role to play — even more than the family — as an agent of preventive education. The intervention of schools is important in preventing and reducing drug abuse. Conditions in public schools must be improved with respect to human resources, materials and premises. Worth mentioning is that repressive conditions appear with relative frequency among the youngsters' replies.

### 5.7. Costs and consequences

Drug abuse among the Brazilian population in general, and its youth in particular, has increased significantly over the last decade. A fourfold increase of cocaine consumption among adolescents has shown that this trend is a growing problem. Drug addiction is a problem that places increasing demands on the public health services and society in general. According to the Ministry of Health, loss in productivity and premature deaths in 1996 represented 7.9 per cent of the GDP. The relationship between psychoactive substance abuse and HIV/AIDS prevalence and the link between drugs and violence are the two main aspects that make drug abuse a serious problem in Brazil.

Research on the relative costs of alcohol and drug abuse in terms of public health has been based on the cost of medical treatment; loss of productivity of workers who are drug users; and social losses originating from premature drug-related deaths. According to an estimate of the Ministry of Health Information Department (DATASUS), 5 per cent of the specialized health assistance in the country is addressed to treatment of drug abuse (not

including alcohol), equalling 0.3 per cent of the GDP. Following this line of thought, the cost of drug abuse would correspond to 7.9 per cent of GDP or US\$ 28 billion per year.

According to DATASUS, from 1993 to 1997 the number of drug-related admissions in public health facilities tripled. The corresponding increase in costs went from US\$ 900,000 per year to almost US\$ 3 million.

Data gathered from 1988 to 1999 by the Ministry of Health indicates that there were 726,429 drug-related admissions in public hospitals in which alcohol was the main cause (90 per cent). Admissions derived from the abuse of other psychoactive substances grew considerably along these years, from 4.7 per cent in 1988 to 15 per cent in 1999. Admissions related to cocaine and its sub-products increased from 0.8 per cent in 1988 to 4.6 per cent in 1999.

The main causes of the 44,680 drug-related admissions registered in 1999 are shown in the table below:

<b>Table 19</b>	
<b>Causes of admission, 1999</b>	
<b>Causes</b>	<b>%</b>
Alcohol	84.5
Other psychotropics	8.3
Cocaine	4.6
Marijuana	1.3
Inhalants	0.2
Other	1.1

According to a study carried out by UNESCO and UNDCP (now known as UNODC) on the “Evaluation of actions to prevent STD/AIDS and Drug Use” among schools of 14 Brazilian capitals in 2001, the first contact of adolescents with licit drugs occurs at the age of 14. The first contact with illicit drugs occurs with the age of 15.

Another study carried out in 1997 by the Brazilian Traffic Association detected traces of alcohol in 61 per cent of the victims of traffic accidents that occurred in Salvador, Recife, Brasilia and Curitiba. According to the research in Recife, 10 per cent of the victims (drivers, passengers and/or pedestrians) had used marijuana.

Two main aspects make drug abuse a serious problem in Brazil, multiplying risks and increasing the social and economic costs to society: (1) the growing interface between drugs and violence; and (2) the relationship between the use of psychoactive substances and HIV/AIDS prevalence as well as other sexually-transmitted diseases. Sociologists believe that the trafficking cycle and the lack of alternatives may become catalysts of violence — especially in the poorest areas or among vulnerable populations such as youngsters.

### Drugs and violence

“Violence in Schools”, published by UNESCO in 2002, is an analytic study of the phenomenon of violence in schools and the diverse ways in which violence is expressed



and perceived by the individuals involved. It shows that violence became a social question. It points out that schools and their immediate surroundings stopped being a protected and a preserved place. They are now incorporated into the day-to-day violence of the cities. Violence affects the lives and the physical, emotional and psychological integrity of students, teachers and parents.

The table below presents safety levels of the school environment. A total of 340 schools were surveyed. It takes into account the existence of safe gates, fences, gatekeepers, entry control, external policemen, etc. The percentages show that more than 50 per cent of the schools have an unsafe environment, with a significant difference between private schools (53 per cent) and public schools (65 per cent).

<b>Table 20</b> <b>School safety level</b>			
	<b>Public schools %</b>	<b>Private schools %</b>	<b>Total %</b>
Safe environment	35	47	39
Unsafe environment	65	53	61

The study also shows that 55 per cent of the students know where and from whom to buy guns. They also consider it easy to obtain guns within the immediate surroundings of the school. Some 51 per cent declared that their parents or relatives own or have owned a gun.

In 2002, ILO launched a study on the exploitation of children and adolescents by drug trafficking in the city of Rio de Janeiro. The study indicated that “the city of Rio de Janeiro is witnessing a process that has led to the increase of violence practiced by children and young adults in Rio. In 1996, there were 3,318 offences by children under 18 registered. In 1997, this number rose by 50 per cent, reaching 5,011. The situation peaked in 1998 with 6,004 cases, then fell nearly 10 per cent in 1999. In 2000, the number rose slightly to 5,898 cases.

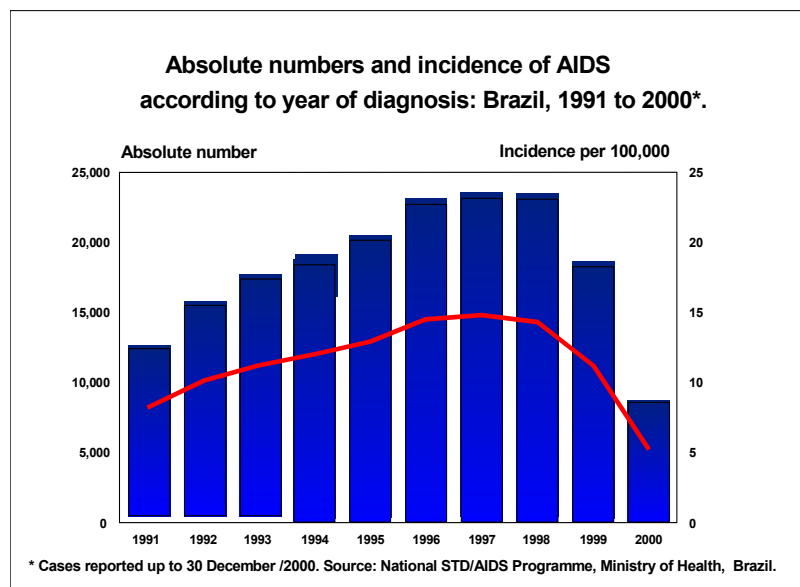
Relevant data was obtained from the Children’s Court of Rio de Janeiro (part of the judiciary system) designated to prosecute children under 18 years of age. Between 1996 and 2000, one branch of this system handled 25,488 children and adolescents: 2,612 (11.07 per cent) female and 22,876 (88.93 per cent) male. In 2000, 59.5 per cent of the children were first-time offenders; 19.11 per cent had one previous offence; and 9.33 per cent had two previous offences. Approximately 10 per cent had three or more offences. As the data reveals, involvement with narcotics corresponds to 35.5 per cent of registered offences. Of these, 22.1 per cent is defined as drug dealing, and 13.4 per cent as drug abuse.

### Drugs and AIDS

Brazil has successfully reduced the incidence of AIDS, including AIDS resulting from injecting drug use. From 1994 to 2000, the incidence of AIDS fell from 21.4 per cent to 12 per cent, proving the effectiveness of measures to control the epidemic. This was

achieved through vigorous implementation of a nationwide HIV/AIDS prevention programme. The programme has attracted worldwide attention.

The World Bank predicted that by 2000 Brazil would have 1,200,000 people infected with HIV. However, control of the epidemic in Brazil over these last 10 years has exceeded all expectations. In fact, Brazil began the 21st century with 597,000 people infected with HIV. Due to the implementation of a clear national policy and a well-structured programme, it is estimated that approximately 600,000 new infections have been avoided — resulting in the saving of human lives and several billion dollars in the health sector.



An external independent evaluation mission, financially supported by UNAIDS, visited Brazil in August 2002, to assess UNODC work in HIV/AIDS prevention. The evaluation report stated *“Brazil is a good example of how the issue of HIV/AIDS among injecting drug users could be addressed. UNDCP took the lead in establishing close working relations between the control sectors and the public health sector, and assisted in developing comprehensive policies as well as concrete interventions. The UN system was also able to mobilize broad civil society organization involvement, and assisted in establishing networks between these organizations. The impact of all these interventions, it seems, resulted in a stabilization of the prevalence rate among injecting drug users in Brazil”*. The report also stressed that *“The Brazil projects are not only overall an example of good practice, but some of the elements are outstanding.”* Moreover, the evaluation pointed out that *“The interventions in Brazil come very close to what is envisioned in the system-wide position paper as the comprehensive approach.”*

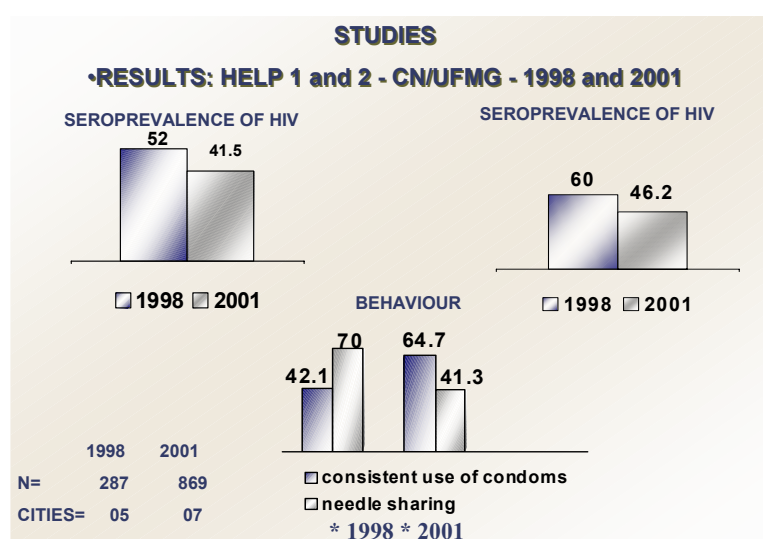
A network of transmission routes accounts for the more than 500,000 HIV infections estimated in Brazil. Transmissions through man who has sex with man (MSM) and injecting drug users have dominated so far. However, there is a growing epidemic, caused by heterosexual transmission. In urban areas, HIV prevalence in pregnant women ranges from 1 per cent to 5 per cent. At the national level, 36 per cent of the registered AIDS cases in children are related to an injecting drug user mother or partner. Prevalence among female sex workers is approximately 5 per cent. Among injecting drug users, due to regional disparities it ranges from 6.4 to 64.3 per cent. Overall, the current phase of the epidemic is marked by five distinct trends: (1) increasing heterosexual spread; (2) younger

age groups; (3) greater sexual parity; (4) low educational level; and (5) increasing spread in rural areas.

The link between injecting drug use and heterosexual transmission is based on an analysis of the partners of people living with AIDS. Among those diagnosed as having become infected through heterosexual intercourse, 19 per cent of the men and 38 per cent (2001) of the women had a drug-injecting partner. According to the Ministry of Health, 25 per cent (2000) of the registered AIDS cases are injecting drug-related and 9.4 per cent (2001) are due to shared needles specifically.

The Brazilian epidemic among injecting drug users follows the main routes of cocaine transshipment. While there is some concern regarding HIV transmission through the use of injecting cocaine, this appears to be decreasing in Brazil according to a retrospective analysis carried out by a drug treatment centre in Rio de Janeiro<sup>8</sup>. While recent analysis shows a slowdown in the spread of HIV among injecting drug users, other recent studies in the cities of Sao Paulo, Campinas and Santos demonstrate a disturbing relationship between the use of crack and AIDS. Further, psychopharmacological drugs are also commonly used in South America — especially in Brazil, Argentina and Uruguay. These are frequently injected. Because of the frequency of needle sharing documented in the Brazilian samples, the risk of exposure to HIV through the blood persists. This is confirmed by high levels of hepatitis C in samples of injecting drug users from Rio de Janeiro and Santos (two ports in the south-eastern region).

In addition to unsafe injections, the sexual practices of users influence the spread of HIV, including to offspring. Risk factors for the spread of HIV/AIDS include the injecting drug use, unprotected sex and commercial sex. The combination of these risk factors is significantly higher for women than for men. Through harm reduction and preventive interventions, some high-risk populations (such as injecting drug users), were influenced to change to safer sexual behaviour. This was proved by a study entitled “*Ajude Brasil I e II*” as indicated below:

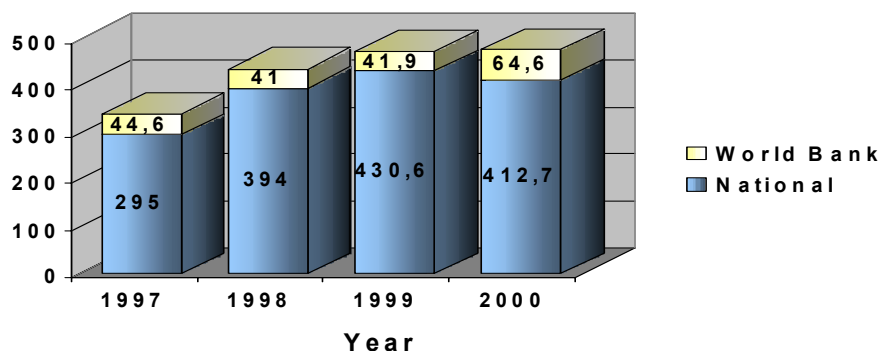


<sup>8</sup> Núcleo de Estudos e Pesquisas em Atenção ao Uso de Drogas – NEPAD/UERJ.

Following is a chart indicating Brazilian Government investments (in US dollars) to counter HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases:

### **Brazilian Government Investment in STD/AIDS (1997 – 2000)**

(US\$) Millions



Source: Ministry of Health, 2001.

Note: Approximately 13 per cent of the total costs are used for prevention, 35 per cent for diagnosis and treatment, 46 per cent medication and 6 per cent institutional strengthening.

## **5.8. Money-laundering**

Law 9613 of 3 March 1998, created the Council for Financial Activities Control (COAF). Under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Finance, the COAF deals with the crime of money-laundering or concealment of assets, rights and valuables. It has the following functions:

- To coordinate and to make suggestions for the adoption of systems of cooperation and exchange of information designed to bring about a rapid and efficient response to the practice of hiding or concealing assets, rights and valuables;
- To be informed of, examine and identify any activities that raise suspicion that an illegal act defined in the above-mentioned federal law is occurring, and receive all pertinent information, respecting the authority of other agencies and bodies;
- To enforce and apply administrative sanctions; and
- To notify the appropriate officials whenever it finds evidence of the existence of any of the crimes defined in this law, so as to enable such officials to take appropriate measures.

The COAF received approximately 134 requests for information on suspicious transactions, and it made 133 requests for information from other countries. The COAF also received over 16,000 tips on suspected transactions, with an estimated 11,000 of these coming from the banking sector. There is no data available on convictions or on seizures of assets after prosecution. A stronger Government action aimed at achieving concrete results in terms of

arrests and recovery of assets is highly desirable in order not to lose national and international credibility in this field.

## **6. CRIME SITUATION**

### **6.1. Main characteristics**

Public security has been an issue of growing concern in Brazil. It is the focus of a series of governmental actions encompassed by the National Plan of Public Security (PNSP), launched on 20 June 2000, aimed at reducing criminality and violence.

The Government of Brazil is carrying out specific projects to improve public security. The Prison System Restructuring Programme, aimed at improving the national prison system and training personnel, is being implemented at an estimated cost of US\$ 60 million. The Ministry of Justice is currently implementing the Victim Assistance and Threatened Witness Programme at an estimated cost of US\$ 4.5 million. It will develop a structure for witness protection that would allow witnesses to testify against drug traffickers and members of organized crime. In 2001, this programme was reinforced with an additional allocation of US\$ 4.5 million.

Three other projects are relevant in fighting drug trafficking and organized crime. The Federal Police Modernization Programme has so far received US\$ 65 million to implement activities to improve the capacity of the federal police. In this regard, 21 new fully-operational police stations have been created throughout the country and 1,000 vehicles were recently purchased. As far as demand reduction, the Federal Government Anti-drug Programme has an average yearly budget of US\$ 2 million. It is grossly under-funded. To really make an impact in the reduction of drug abuse, yearly investments should be about US\$ 100 million. Unless the Government invests more in drug demand reduction, the situation will continue to deteriorate. This has been the case for the last 10 years, causing problems in terms of public health and public security — besides failing to address the priorities of the public as recently expressed during the election period. In 2002, the governments of Brazil and Portugal established the basis for the implementation of a project to fight trafficking in human beings, through the enhancement of existing mechanisms.

Concerning the Amazon region, with the largest tropical rainforest in the world, the Amazon is effected by a wide range of problems. These include illegal gold mining, deforestation at a rate of over 2,000,000 hectares per year, drug trafficking, smuggling, and conflicts over land use between the indigenous people of the Amazon and more recent settlers. To better address these problems, the Government is implementing an ambitious surveillance system in the Amazon region (SIVAM). It is composed of a wide range of sensors — from stationary radars to satellites and geophysical monitors — to collect extensive data. This information will be used by the Government to protect the fragile environment of the Amazon. It will also be used: to improve air safety; to increase the accuracy of weather forecasting; to assist in the detection, prevention and control of epidemics; to help to manage land occupation and usage; and (most importantly) to ensure effective law enforcement and border control.

Despite Government efforts to contain criminality and the wide array of projects under implementation, crime rates had a sharp increase in the last two years. Drug-related crimes,

smuggling of arms, organized crime, kidnapping, trafficking in human beings — all associated with ineffective law enforcement and lack of adequate prison facilities — are key areas where additional major actions are urgently required from the Government.

## 6.2. Issues of specific concern

Increased drug trafficking in Brazil potentially impacts public security because it promotes drug-related crime. Brazil is not a major producer of illicit drugs. It is, however, a transit country for drugs produced in neighbouring countries. Brazilian authorities and counter-narcotics agencies are concerned with the consequences of Plan Colombia. It is believed that fighting drug trafficking organizations in Colombia, without completely uprooting their infrastructure, can result in a spillover effect, pushing those organizations into the Brazilian Amazon region. In this regard, the Government is strengthening its northern border with Colombia, intensifying police and military operations in the region. SIVAM, which is still under development, may provide the means to ensure a more effective law enforcement control in the region.

### National prison system

The prison population increased sharply in 2001, resulting in a rate of 150 inmates per 100,000 people. Prison facilities in Brazil cannot accommodate all the inmates. Almost 60,000 prisoners are without cells. A good portion of those convicted remain in police stations under adverse living conditions. Some 90 per cent of the prisoners belong to the low-income population.

### Crime indicator – analysis

The following table was prepared by University of Sao Paulo to evaluate the Urban Violence Prevention Plan (PIAPS). The university developed a database that includes crime information, demographic and socio-economic data of 78 municipalities from the states of Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Espirito Santo and Pernambuco. These are considered to be the most violent states of Brazil in terms of homicide. The municipalities were aggregated in three clusters – high, medium and low criminality – based on homicide rates, robbery and theft, and robbery and theft of vehicles.

<b>Table 21</b>			
<b>Criminality in states</b>			
	<b>Low criminality</b>	<b>Medium criminality</b>	<b>High criminality</b>
Banks per 10,000 inhabitants	0.36	0.73	1.04
Micro-, small and medium size businesses per 10,000 inhabitants	32.40	47.03	71.20
Illiterate population (%)	11.7	0.9	0.7
Urban paved roads (%)	46	57	66
People enrolled in public schools (7 to 14 years of age)	1.09	1.17	1.16

Source: ILANUD, *Das Políticas de Segurança Pública às Políticas Públicas de Segurança*, 2002.

The first conclusion of this evaluation was that the wealthiest municipalities from the state of Sao Paulo show the highest crime rate. Table 21 also shows that the municipalities with highest crime rates are the richest and have the best quality of life. After applying a regression analysis, the conclusion is that municipalities with the best education indicators – low rates of illiteracy and more enrolments in schools per inhabitants – are those with the highest rates of criminality.

Municipalities with the best quality of life – measured in terms of education, health and urban infrastructure – demonstrate the highest rates of criminality (referring mainly to crimes against property). Based on analysis of victimization studies in several countries, it can be concluded that in general, violent crime against persons are “poverty driven” and decrease with the reduction of poverty. Crime against property is to a large extent “opportunity driven” and increases with the improvement of development indicators (Van Dijk, 1998).

In the specific situation of large metropolitan areas in Brazil, the cause for high homicide rates among young people between the ages of 15 and 25 is mainly gang fights. These fights are undertaken to control the lucrative drug market. Clashes with the police also contribute to homicides. This being said, it should be noted that “soldiers” of gangs are a minority as compared to the millions of honest, hard-working people who live in the *favelas*.

## **7. POLICY**

### **7.1. Drugs**

#### **7.1.1. National drug control framework**

In Brazil, the federal police are responsible for reducing the drug supply, while SENAD is responsible for demand reduction. The National Anti-drug Fund (FUNAD) is managed by SENAD. FUNAD finances the activities of the central coordinating agencies of the National Anti-drug System (SISNAD) to reduce drug supply and demand.

It is difficult in Brazil to quantify total budget resources allocated annually by federal, state and local governments for drug supply and demand reduction. This is because of the large number of states and municipalities that enjoy political and administrative autonomy and are therefore free to establish and manage their own budgets. Furthermore, many anti-drug actions are included in sector-based Government programmes in the areas of health, education, culture, sports, labour and security, which do not specify the amount of resources devoted to activities classified as anti-drugs.

In Brazil, there is no integrated system for the statistical data of the federal and state police. Therefore, the results presented by the federal police regarding supply reduction are used as reference. It should be emphasized that these results do not depict the real situation of drug trafficking and abuse in Brazil. They refer to the related activities carried out by the federal police, and exclude the results achieved by the state civil and military police.

Activities of the federal police in the fight against drug trafficking and abuse in 2000 were compared to those in 2001. In this regard, there is an increase of approximately 9 per cent

in investigative procedures set up. There is also an increase of 10.4 per cent in the number of people arrested during the same period.

#### **7.1.1.1. Conventions adherence and national legislation**

Brazil ratified all three international conventions related to the drug problem: The Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs 1961, the Convention on Psychotropic Substances 1971, and the United Nations Convention Against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances 1988) are in force.

#### **7.1.1.2. Main characteristics of national drug control policy**

The National Anti-drug Policy centres on participation by the states and municipalities through the Anti-drug Councils. The strategy is financed with federal, state and municipal funds.

#### **7.1.2. Licit control (drugs and precursors)**

The National Health Surveillance Agency (ANVISA) is in charge of control of pharmaceutical products. Brazilian law provides for criminal civil and administrative sanctions for the diversion of pharmaceuticals. ANVISA lacks human and technological resources. It needs to develop an integrated system for information sharing, recording and evaluation. In conjunction with the Federal Police Department of the Ministry of Justice, ANVISA is responsible for the monitoring of controlled chemical substances.

#### **7.1.3. Supply reduction**

The Brazilian supply reduction strategy is based on the National Anti-drug Policy, which focusses mainly on illicit crops eradication and interdiction. The federal police is responsible for the overall policy implementation with the following mandate:

- a. To improve the safety of citizens by reducing drug-related crime and violence;
- b. To reduce the illicit drug supply through eradication and seizure of illicit drugs produced in the country and close the borders for illicit drugs coming from abroad;
- c. Coordinate Government action at the federal, state and municipal levels; and
- d. Support all government agencies dealing with drug law enforcement.

This is carried out by the Brazilian police forces in coordination with national and state authorities, and other countries as well.



#### **7.1.4. Demand reduction**

SENAD is the organization articulating the overall prevention activities at the federal level. Brazil has developed a national demand reduction strategy, encompassing various bodies from the public and private sectors. Brazilian society has been targeted for a number of mobilization campaigns coordinated by SENAD and carried out through partnerships with the public and private sectors. Since 1998, there has been an increase in professional training in specific areas of demand reduction. Courses are offered by governmental and non-governmental organizations with national professionals and experts in drug abuse prevention and treatment.

There are three organizations dealing with drug treatment in Brazil:

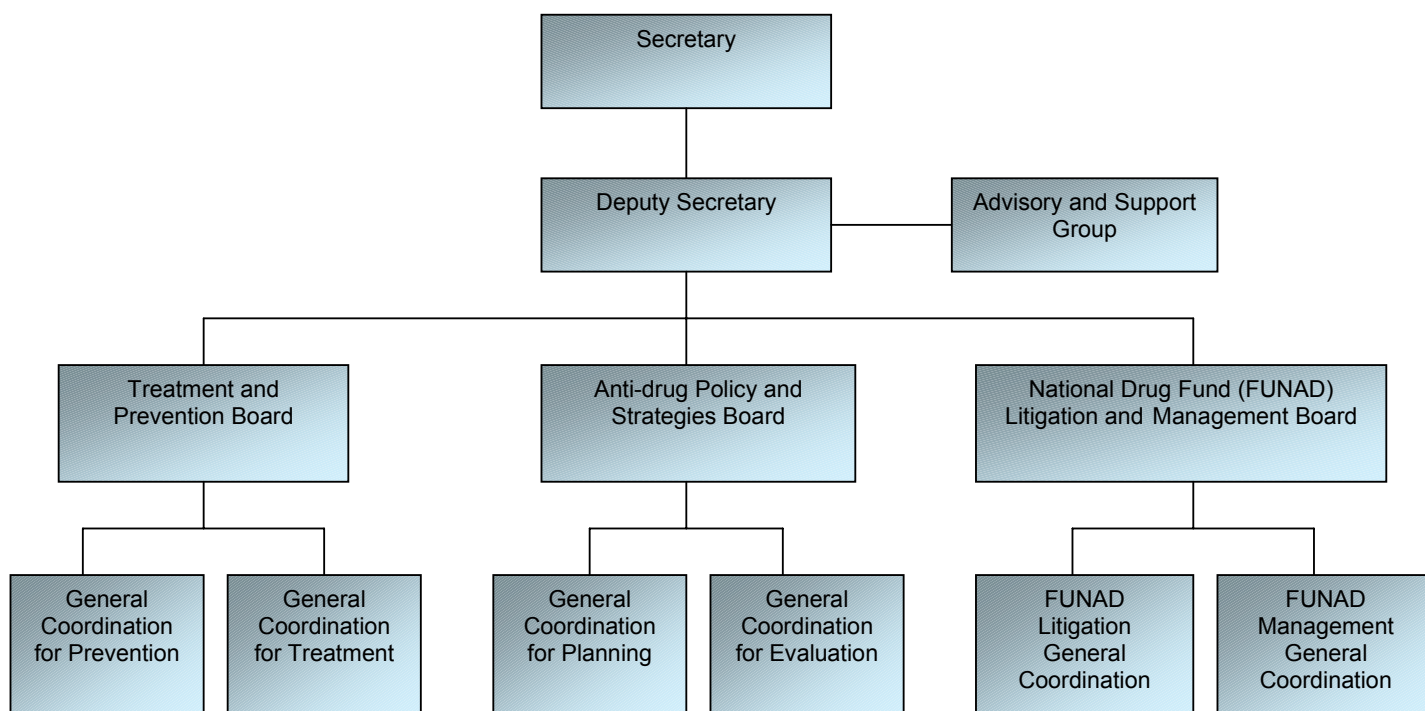
- a. The National Anti-drug Secretariat (SENAD). It is part of the Presidency of the Republic. As far as treatment, SENAD coordinates efforts with the Ministry of Health in training personnel and improving care of drug users. SENAD establishes minimum requirements for therapeutic communities and supports self-help.
- b. The Ministry of Health, Sector for Alcohol and Drugs focusses on expanding the number of units of the Psychosocial Day-Care Centres (CAPS). There are currently 50 CAPS in the country. The Ministry of Health is also working to expand hospital services with trained personnel.
- c. The Ministry of Health, CN/DST and AIDS National Coordination for Sexual Diseases and AIDS. Among interventions addressed to vulnerable groups, special emphasis is given to attention and care of injecting drug users. Harm reduction strategies are part of the public health policy.

#### **SENAD**

Concerning treatment, some of the priorities of SENAD are as follows:

- a. To encourage Brazilian society to assume responsibility, supported by government agencies on all levels.
- b. To classify treatment and recovery as a process consisting of phases and stages. This process requires continuous and permanent effort. It should be made available to drug users who wish to recover.
- c. To link treatment and recovery initiatives to scientific research – disseminating, multiplying and advocating only those experiences that achieve the best results.
- d. To emphasize, in the recovery stage, social and occupational rehabilitation. Rehabilitation can break the vicious cycle of drug consumption/treatment for a large part of those involved.

### National Anti-drug Secretariat (SENAD)



### The Ministry of Health

The Ministry of Health regulates the work of the Psychosocial Day-Care Centres (CAPS). These units were established to fulfil the need of civil society for a community-based solution for drug abuse treatment. They are used instead of the traditional method of hospitalization in psychiatric hospitals. These units, besides providing care and treatment, promote social rehabilitation of drug users.

The HIV epidemic involving drug users poses enormous challenges to public health and society at large. It is a top priority for the Brazilian Government, through the Ministry of Health, to formulate and implement policies, strategies and actions with the purpose of: reducing the incidence of HIV/AIDS and other STDs; broadening the access to health services and improving the quality of diagnosis, counselling, treatment and healthcare in the area of STD, HIV and AIDS; and strengthening public and private institutions responsible for the prevention and control of STD, HIV and AIDS.

In the areas where significant HIV infection can be attributed to injecting drug use, needle exchange combined with intensive education programmes on sexual and reproductive health of drug users and their social networks are emphasized.

Since 1994, the Government of Brazil has worked in partnership with UNDCP (now known as UNODC) to prevent and reduce drug abuse and HIV/AIDS. The major goal of the

National Coordinating Office for STD/AIDS and UNODC is to implement actions in areas such as primary prevention in schools, substance abuse treatment, assistance to state and municipal agencies and assistance to people that have no access to appropriate services, training and research. The main strategies are: fostering institutional partnerships; reaching vulnerable populations; making services more accessible to drug users and people living with AIDS; capacity-building of state and local organizations; obtaining lessons learned and identifying best practices; dissemination and cooperating with other countries.

#### **7.1.5. Money-laundering control measures**

After the events of 11 September 2001, the Government adopted all eight complementary recommendations approved by the Financial Action Task Force (FATF) to prevent money-laundering activities for terrorism.

#### **7.1.6. International cooperation**

Brazil cooperates bilaterally with other countries and participates in the UNODC and the Organization of American States/Inter-American Drug Abuse Control Commission (OAS/CICAD). Brazil has entered into various drug control cooperation agreements with its South American neighbours, the United States, Canada, several European countries, and South Africa<sup>9</sup>.

The cooperation of the federal police with other countries has been intensified, especially within the framework of CICAD, HONLEA and the Inter-American Drug Enforcement Conference (IDEC). Noteworthy are the operational cooperation of Brazil along the borders and the exchange of experience with police agents from other countries, both within Brazil and abroad. Partnership initiatives include MERCOSUR countries (Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay). Initiatives for joint operations also include Bolivia, Colombia and Peru. Brazil also participates in the Andean Intelligence Group, which it joined in 1998.

#### **7.1.7. Legislation (drugs)**

Bills approved during the last decade:

- Law 10357, of 27 December 2001. It establishes the norms to control chemical products that directly or indirectly may be used to produce illicit narcotic substances, psychotropics or produce physical or chemical dependency.
- Law 9804, of 30 June 1999. It modifies article 34 from Law 6368, of 21 October 1976, that regulates prevention and law enforcement measures against illicit trafficking and abuse of narcotic substances or those that produce physical or psychological dependency.
- Law 9017, of 30 March 1995. It establishes norms to control chemical products and raw material that may be used to produce cocaine in its different forms and other narcotic

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<sup>9</sup> Please see annex II for the listing of these agreements.

substances that produce physical or psychological dependency. It modifies Law 7102, of 20 June 1983, that regulates on the security of financial enterprises. Law 9017 also establishes norms for the constitution and functioning of private security enterprises that study surveillance and the transport of valuable goods services.

- Law 8764, of 21 December 1993. It creates the National Secretariat for Narcotics.
- Law 7560, of 19 December 1986. It regulates the creation of the National Anti-drug Fund (FUNAD) and handles goods seized and purchased with illicit drug traffic proceeds or related activities.

## **7.2. Crime**

### **7.2.1 National crime prevention framework**

#### Crime control institutions

Due to the federative character of the Brazilian republic, the country has a number of different police forces. These include the federal police, at the federal level; the civil and military police, at the state level; and the municipal police force, at the municipal level. In some municipalities a municipal guard was created.

The federal police are subordinate to the Ministry of Justice. The military police force is subordinated, together with the civil police, to the state or federal district government.

#### The federal police

The federal police have an important role in the fight against the illegal use of narcotic substances and related drug trafficking. Besides fighting drug trafficking, the federal police also investigate penal infractions against the national interest. These include social welfare related crime, "confidence scams" and credit crimes, fraud (forgery of documents, diplomas and social welfare cards), and crimes against national goods and services. The federal police are also responsible for controlling the country's sea, lake, and river ports, as well as airports and the extensive Brazilian border.

The federal police are responsible for the issuance of passports and control of foreigners entering or leaving the country. By an agreement with other countries, the International Police (Interpol) is responsible for fulfilling requests and delivering information regarding crime prevention and law enforcement. It is also responsible for arresting criminals wanted in other countries. Finally, they act as the exclusive judicial police of the federation, acting to prevent and punish federal penal infractions as well as performing judicial procedures related to those infractions.

### Civil police force

The civil police force, led by career police officers, is responsible for the functions of state judicial police and investigation of penal infractions. The civil police have administrative and judicial roles. Dealing with the maintenance of public order and preventing crime is administrative in nature. Investigating crimes, finding perpetrators, and providing elements for indictment is judicial in nature. It aids the judicial power.

### Military police forces

The military police is responsible for patrolling and maintenance of public order. It acts as a preventive police force and also supports special assignments upon request.

### Municipal police forces

According to the law (paragraph 8, article 144 of the federal constitution), the municipalities can establish municipal police forces to protect their goods, services and facilities.

**Table 22**  
**Police forces per state (2002)**

State	Police organizations in Brazil						
	Military police	Civil police	Federal highway police	Federal police	Total police force	Police per 100,000 inhab.	Inhabitants per police
<b>Brazil</b>	<b>361.034</b>	<b>102.554</b>	<b>8.014</b>	<b>7.012</b>	<b>478.614</b>	<b>282.3</b>	<b>354</b>
<b>North</b>	<b>30.802</b>	<b>7.306</b>	<b>705</b>	<b>617</b>	<b>39.430</b>	<b>305.2</b>	<b>328</b>
Rondônia	3.476	1.088	215	116	4.895	355.3	281
Acre	2.042	880	...	49	2.971	533.1	188
Amazonas	6.145	860	60	109	7.174	252.5	396
Roraima	1.212	639	19	41	1.911	589.5	170
Pará	12.487	2.363	277	211	15.338	247.8	403
Amapá	2.385	912	31	33	3.361	706.3	142
Tocantins	3.055	564	103	58	3.780	327.2	306
<b>North-east</b>	<b>93.602</b>	<b>18.371</b>	<b>2.516</b>	<b>1.616</b>	<b>116.105</b>	<b>243.5</b>	<b>411</b>
Maranhão	6.298	1.523	240	173	8.234	146	685
Piauí	5.935	1.267	237	111	7.550	265.8	376
Ceará	10.829	2.129	380	289	13.627	183.7	544
Rio Grande do Norte	7.103	886	196	159	8.344	301.1	332
Paraíba	7.105	2.230	224	177	9.736	283.3	353
Pernambuco	17.336	4.202	439	251	22.228	281	356
Alagoas	7.552	1.237	163	104	9.056	321.4	311
Sergipe	5.107	460	122	93	5.782	324.9	308
Bahia	26.337	4.437	515	259	31.548	241.4	414
<b>South-east</b>	<b>151.389</b>	<b>53.753</b>	<b>2.172</b>	<b>2.276</b>	<b>209.590</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>345</b>
Minas Gerais	36.580	9.016	721	356	46.673	261.7	382
Espírito Santo	7.854	1.707	209	167	9.937	321.3	311
Rio de Janeiro	33.301	9.312	729	904	44.246	308	325
São Paulo	73.654	33.718	513	849	108.734	294.1	340
<b>South</b>	<b>48.361</b>	<b>12.155</b>	<b>1.520</b>	<b>1.184</b>	<b>63.220</b>	<b>252.2</b>	<b>397</b>
Paraná	15.501	3.830	443	427	20.201	211.3	473
Santa Catarina	11.250	2.920	400	238	14.808	277.7	360
Rio Grande do Sul	21.610	5.405	677	519	28.211	277.1	361
<b>Centre-west</b>	<b>36.880</b>	<b>10.969</b>	<b>1.101</b>	<b>1.319</b>	<b>50.269</b>	<b>432.9</b>	<b>231</b>
Mato Grosso do Sul	4.601	1.469	361	211	6.642	320.1	312
Mato Grosso	4.529	1.581	325	117	6.552	262.3	381
Goiás	12.799	3.078	337	224	16.438	329.1	304
Distrito Federal	14.951	4.841	78	767	20.637	1.010	99

**Source:** Survey on Police Profile/Federal Police and Federal Highway Police. MJ/SENASP/DECASP.

## Prosecution

The 1988 Constitution of Brazil calls for the establishment of a national prosecution service. Its mandate is defined in the Complementary Law No. 75, dated 20 May 1993. The President appoints the head – General Prosecutor of the Republic – of the public prosecution service (MPU) and the absolute majority of the Senate gives confirmation.

Its main function is to defend the judicial order, the democratic regime, and social and individual interests. It puts into force the necessary measures to guarantee respect of Public Powers and to all relevant public services rendered by the State. It also guarantees the fundamental rights stated in the Constitution. It is also the external controlling body of all police activity.

### **The Courts**

The Federal Supreme Court is equivalent to a constitutional court. It deals with cases from the Federal High courts. Eleven judges compose the court (one female). During 2002, the court received 160,453 cases. Some 87,313 came before the judges and 83,097 cases were judged.

The Superior Justice Court receives cases from the lower courts throughout the country and prepares appeals to the Federal Supreme Court. The court is made of up 33 judges (three female). During 2002, 184,478 came before the court and 198,613 were judged (some cases being left over from previous years).

### **Correction facilities**

In 2002, the country's 922 prisons (designed to hold 186,500 people) were housing 248,685 inmates. The available facilities hold 153,000 male inmates and 5,200 female inmates.

Overcrowding is a major problem. It undermines the efforts of rehabilitation programmes and promotes HIV/AIDS among inmates. The situation makes it difficult to guarantee the human rights of the inmates.

The increase of the total number of inmates is due to blockages in the criminal justice system. The criminal justice system in Brazil (Latin in origin) permits several forms of appeals for all kinds of cases.

#### **7.2.1.1 Organized Crime Convention adherence**

On 12 December 2000, Brazil became a signatory of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. The Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air were also signed on that date. On 11 July 2001, Brazil signed the Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition. All these instruments depend on ratification by the National Congress.

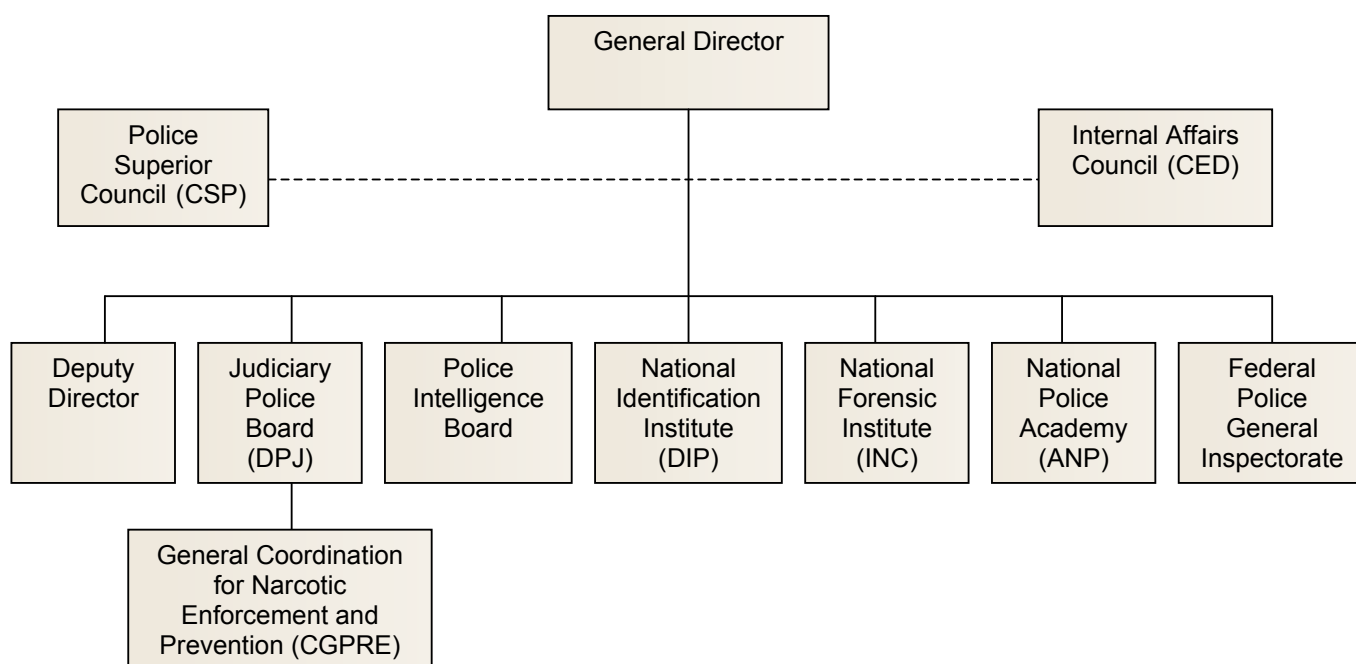
#### **7.2.1.2 Legislation (crime)**

- Law 10217 of 11 April 2001. This law modifies articles 1 and 2 from Law 9034 of 3 May 1995, that regulates the use of operational means in the prevention and law enforcement of actions carried out by criminal organizations.

- Law 9303, of 5 September 1996. It modifies article 8 from Law 9034 of 3 May 1995 that regulates the use of operational means in the prevention and law enforcement of actions carried out by criminal organizations.
- Law 9034, of 3 May 1995. It regulates the use of operational means in the prevention and law enforcement of actions carried out by criminal organizations.
- Law 9437 of 20 February 1997. It creates the National Arms System (SINARM), defines the conditions for the registration of firearms and license issuance, defines crimes and makes other provisions.
- Law 9614 of 5 March 1998. It alters law 7565 of 19 December 1986 to include the hypothesis of airplane destruction.

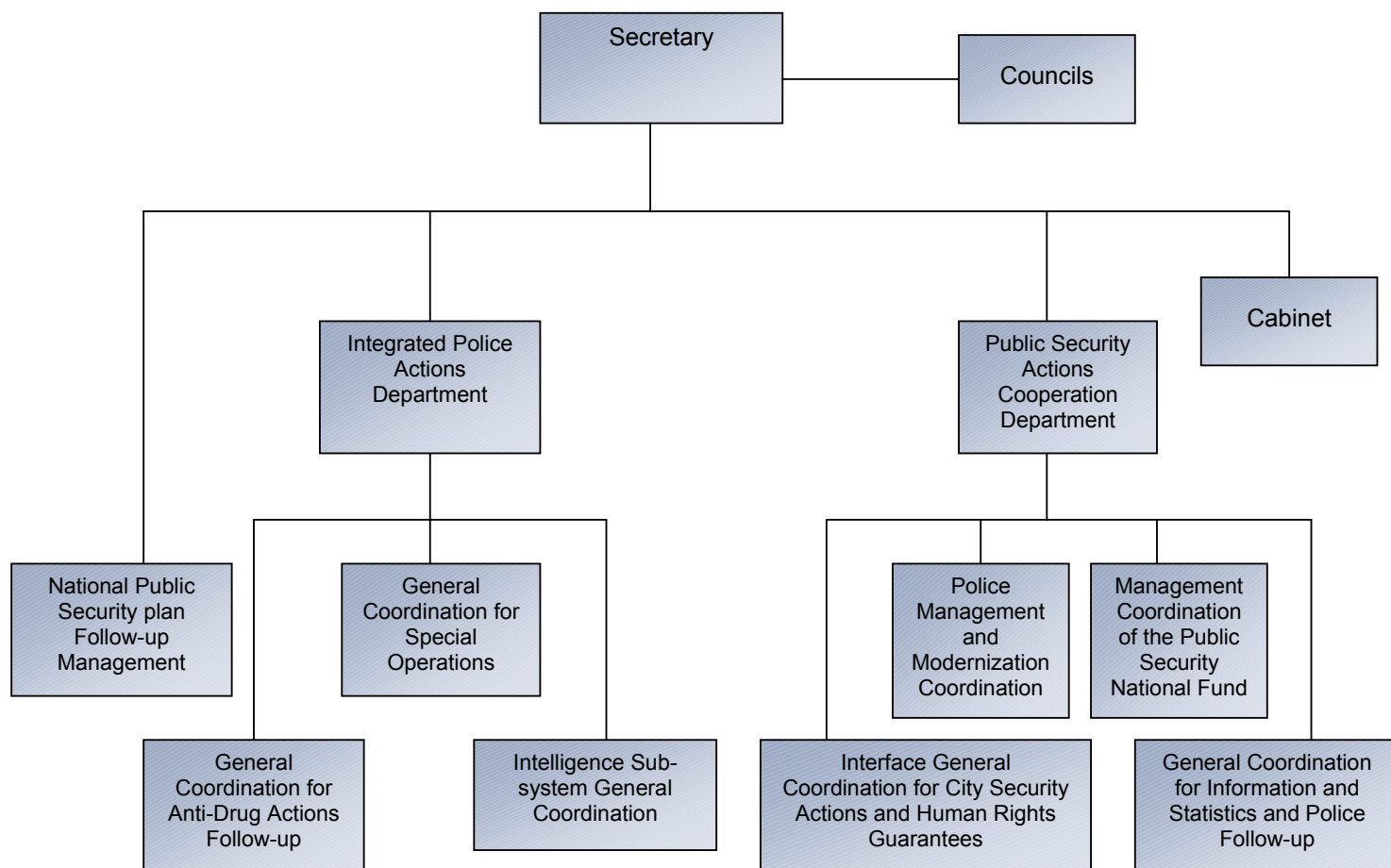
### 7.2.1.3 Crime control institutions

#### Federal police





### National Public Security Secretariat (SENASP)



#### 7.2.1.4 Main characteristics of the national crime prevention strategy

The national crime prevention framework falls within the National Public Security Plan (PNSP). The PNSP aims to improve the public security system through the integration of social actions focussed on decreasing violence and preventing crime. The Federal Government launched the PNSP on 20 June 2000. It encompasses 15 commitments of the Federal Government on public security issues. These commitments resulted in 124 actions to be implemented by the executive, legislative and judiciary powers of the Federal Government as well as by civil society, multilateral development organizations, and international agencies.

National legislation signed in July 1999 enforces the Federal Programme of Assistance to Victims and Threatened Witnesses. Thus, new procedures have been introduced to increase protection of victims and witnesses as well as of their relatives.

#### **7.2.1.5 Extradition agreements**

In Brazil extradition is regulated by bilateral treaties as well as Law 6815/80 (title IX, articles 76 to 94) and by Executive Law 86715/81 (sole paragraph). This law only regards foreigners. The procedure for extradition is indicated in article 20 of decree 394 (28 April 1938). A request for extradition must be made to the Ministry of Justice for assessment. If it is considered to be pertinent, the request for extradition may be sent to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs be formalized. It must be accompanied by Brazilian law texts regarding the crime, the applicable penalty and its forfeiture and clarifying data or information. The Ministry of Justice may determine the related preventive arrest.

The extradition request is subject to: (a) the existence of a criminal legal proceeding resulting in conviction for a period of more than one year; (b) a warrant having been issued by the pertinent trial court; (c) the motive must also be considered a crime in the requesting country; (d) the criminal action not being forfeited or the possibility of punishment being beyond the statute of limitations according to Brazilian law or that of the requesting country; (e) the person in question not being on trial or having been convicted or acquitted for the same crime under consideration; (f) the crime is not political in nature; and (g) the person in question not to be tried, in the requesting country, before an exception court.

The request from government to government, through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, is fundamental for the formalization of the extradition process.

The Federal Constitution (article 5, clause LI) determines that "no Brazilian will be extradited, except the naturalized ones, in case of common crime committed before naturalization or if involvement with illicit drug trafficking is confirmed, according to the law." These exceptions allow the extradition of a naturalized Brazilian, regardless the administrative process for the naturalization act to be declared null. The extradition of the naturalized Brazilian is subject to the declaration of specific reciprocity commitment by the requesting country. If there exists an extradition treaty, the request shall be accompanied by the documents foreseen therein.

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## 8. SIGNIFICANT MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION

### 8.1. Annex I

Table 23 Employment: education and gender (1994 and 2000)						
Education	1994			2000		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Illiterate	510,522	225,262	735,784	350,269	127,024	477,293
4 <sup>th</sup> year incomplete	1,812,784	532,653	2,345,437	1,437,108	427,564	1,864,672
4 <sup>th</sup> year complete	2,794,118	941,794	3,735,912	2,068,059	746,807	2,814,866
8 <sup>th</sup> year incomplete	2,597,311	1,028,280	3,625,591	2,462,300	977,111	3,439,411
8 <sup>th</sup> year complete	2,415,637	1,227,091	3,642,728	2,986,747	1,469,955	4,456,702
High school incomplete	1,067,264	701,705	1,768,969	1,402,332	841,826	2,244,158
High school complete	2,046,018	2,384,483	4,430,501	3,105,813	3,227,589	6,333,402
University incomplete	403,991	364,619	768,610	485,470	510,427	995,897
University complete	1,244,222	1,309,321	2,553,543	1,393,268	1,732,268	3,125,536
<b>Total</b>	<b>14,891,867</b>	<b>8,715,208</b>	<b>23,607,075</b>	<b>15,691,366</b>	<b>10,060,571</b>	<b>25,751,937</b>

Source: MTE – RAIS 2000. (Ministry of Labour and Employment, data from 31 December from each year).

General statistics (relevant to the drug/crime problem)

Labour

Table 24 Percentage of the economically active population (older than 10 years of age) per years of study – 1999				
	3 years	4 to 7 years	8 to 10 years	11 years or more
North*	28.9	28.2	16.3	26
North-east	49.7	24.6	9	16.3
South-east	19.1	31.9	17.9	30.7
South	18.5	38.5	16.8	24.9
Central-west	25.5	33.5	15.8	24.7
<b>Total Brazil**</b>	<b>28.7</b>	<b>30.9</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>24.9</b>

Source: IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute), *Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios* (National Household Sample Research) – 1999

\* Excluding the rural population.

\*\* Excluding the rural population of Rondonia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Para and Amapa states.

**Level of education**

<b>Table 25</b> <b>Illiteracy rate among the Brazilian population</b> <b>15 years of age or older</b>			
	Percentage of men	Percentage of women	Total %
North*	11.7	11.5	11.6
North-east	28.7	24.6	26.6
South-east	6.8	8.7	7.8
South	7.1	8.4	7.8
Central-west	10.5	11.0	10.8
<b>Total Brazil**</b>	<b>13.3</b>	<b>13.3</b>	<b>13.3</b>
Source: IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute), <i>Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios</i> . (National Sample Household Research) –1999. * Excluding rural population. ** Excluding rural population of Rondonia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Para and Amapa.			

<b>Table 26</b> <b>Level of education in Brazilians 5 to 24 years of age</b> <b>(percentage)</b>					
Region	5 to 6 years old	7 to 14 years old	15 to 17 years old	18 to 19 years old	20 to 24 years old
North	71.3	95.5	79.6	59.7	31.4
North-east	76.9	94.1	76.7	52.8	26.3
South-east	71.1	96.7	81.0	53.0	24.9
South	60.8	96.5	75.2	44.3	23.7
Central-west	66.1	96.0	77.8	50.9	25.1
<b>Total Brazil</b>	<b>70.9</b>	<b>95.7</b>	<b>78.50</b>	<b>51.9</b>	<b>25.5</b>
Source: IBGE (Brazilian Geography and Statistics Institute) 2000.					

<b>Table 27</b> <b>Registry in the first eight school years (1996 and 2000)</b>			
	1996	2000	Variation (%)
1st to 4th school year	19,817,575	20,024,414	1
5th to 8th school year	12,906,795	15,295,853	19
Total registry	32,726,366	35,322,267	8
Total classes	444,628	614,069	38
Source: MEC/ <i>Censo Escolar</i> (Ministry of Education, School Census).			

## 8.2. Annex II

Table 28 Bilateral agreements - Brazil				
Country/Subject		Title	Date of signature	Put into force
Judicial Assistance in Civil and Penal Matters				
1	Argentina	Convention on Free Judicial Assistance	11/15/61	7/11/68
2		Agreement on Judicial Cooperation in Civil, Commercial, Labour and Administrative Matters	8/20/91	7/18/95
3		Treaty on Transfer of Prisoners	9/11/98	7/23/0
4	Germany	Agreement to Guarantee Reciprocity in the Transmission of Information on Penal Registry	5/15/57	5/15/57
5	Canada	Treaty on Transfer of Prisoners	7/15/92	4/14/98
6	Chile	Treaty on Transfer of Condemned Prisoners	4/29/98	3/26/99
7	Colombia	Agreement on Judicial Cooperation and Mutual Assistance in Penal Matters	11/7/97	8/23/01
8	Belgium	Convention on Free Judicial Assistance	1/10/55	7/29/57
9	Spain	Covenant on Judicial Cooperation in Civil Matters	4/13/89	7/3/91
10		Treaty on Transfer of Prisoners	11/7/96	4/30/98
11	United States of America	Agreement on Judicial Assistance in Penal Matters	10/14/97	5/2/01
12	France	Agreement on Judicial Cooperation in Civil Matters	5/28/96	9/12/00
13		Agreement on Judicial Cooperation in Penal Matters	5/28/96	12/30/99
14	Italy	Treaty on Judicial Cooperation and the Recognition and Execution of Verdicts in Civil Matters	10/17/89	5/2/95
15		Treaty on Judicial Cooperation in Penal Matters	17/1089	7/9/93
16	ILANUD	Agreement on Cooperation for Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Criminals	11/30/89	3/19/97
17	Japan	Agreement on Judicial Assistance	9/23/40	11/1/40
18	Netherlands	Convention on Free Judicial Assistance	3/16/59	5/20/64
19		Agreement on the Extension to Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles of the Convention on Free Judicial Assistance from 1959	11/16/64	11/16/64
20	Peru	Agreement on Judicial Assistance in Penal Matters	7/21/99	8/29/01
21	Portugal	Treaty on Friendship, Cooperation and Consultation	4/22/00	9/19/01
22		Treaty on Mutual Aid in Penal Matters	5/7/91	11/30/94
23		Treaty on Extradition	5/7/91	12/2/94
24	United Kingdom	Agreement on Transfer of Prisoners	8/20/98	1/28/02
25	Uruguay	Agreement on Judicial Cooperation on Civil, Commercial, Labour and Administrative Matters	12/28/92	4/10/96
Penal Law, Smuggling and Narcotics				
26	Republic of South Africa	Agreement on Cooperation and Mutual Assistance in the Field of Combat against the Production and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances and Related Subjects	11/26/96	7/21/99
27	Argentina	Agreement for Cooperation to the Prevention on Drug Abuse and Combat Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	5/26/93	10/9/95
28	Bolivia	Covenant on Reciprocal Assistance for Repression of Illicit Trafficking of Drugs that Cause Dependency	8/17/77	4/28/78
29	Chile	Agreement of Cooperation for Demand Reduction, Prevention of	7/26/90	6/8/92

		Drug Abuse and Combat of Production and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances		
<b>Penal Law, Smuggling and Narcotics - cont</b>				
30	Colombia	Agreement on Reciprocal Assistance for the Prevention of Drug Abuse and the Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	3/12/81	5/11/81
31		Amendment of Judiciary Cooperation Complementary to the Agreement of Reciprocal Assistance for the Prevention of Use and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	9/3/91	9/3/91
32		Agreement of Cooperation to Hinder the Illegal Use of Precursors and Essential Chemical Substances for the Production of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	11/7/97	9/9/99
33	Cuba	Agreement of Cooperation for Demand Reduction, Prevention of Drug Abuse and Combat Production and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	8/29/94	4/26/96
34	United States of America	Memorandum of Understanding for the Control of Narcotics	9/2/92	9/2/92
35		Memorandum of Understanding for the Control of Narcotics	8/20/93	8/20/93
36		Memorandum of Understanding for the Control of Narcotics	9/2/94	9/2/94
37		Agreement on Mutual Cooperation for Demand Reduction. Prevention of Drug Abuse and Combat to the Production and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics	4/12/95	4/28/97
38		Memorandum of Understanding for the Control of Narcotics - Fiscal Year 1997	9/25/97	9/25/99
39		Memorandum of Understanding for the Control of Narcotics - Fiscal Year 1999	9/24/99	9/24/99
40		Memorandum of Understanding for the Control of Narcotics and Legal Repression - Fiscal Year 2001	9/20/01	9/20/01
41	United Nations Fund for the Control of Drug Abuse	Memorandum of Understanding in the Field of Control of Drug Abuse and Trafficking	3/9/87	3/9/87
42		Agreement for the Control of Drug Abuse	11/5/87	11/5/87
43	Guiana	Agreement on Prevention, Control, Fiscalization and Suppression on Abuse and Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	9/16/88	11/27/90
44	Italy	Agreement for Cooperation in the Fight against Organized Crime and the Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	2/12/97	5/15/98
45	Mexico	Agreement for Cooperation to Combat Narcotics and Pharmacodependency	11/18/96	11/25/97
46	Panama	Memorandum of Understanding between COAF and UAF regarding Cooperation in the Exchange of Financial Information related to the Combat of Money-laundering	8/21/01	8/21/01
47	Paraguay	Agreement on Prevention, Control, Fiscalization and Suppression of Abuse and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	3/29/88	1/14/92
		Agreement through Exchange of Notes, on Illicit Trafficking of Vehicles	7/28/88	1/26/89
49		Agreement on the Devolution of Stolen Vehicles	9/1/94	11/18/96
50		Agreement on Cooperation to Combat the Illicit Trafficking of Wood	9/1/94	4/29/96
51	Peru	Covenant on Reciprocal Assistance for Repression of Illicit Trafficking of Drugs that Cause Dependency	11/5/76	1/15/79
52	Portugal	Agreement on Cooperation for Demand Reduction, Combat on Production and Suppression of Illicit Trafficking of Drugs and Psychotropic Substances	11/5/87	11/5/87
53	United Kingdom	Agreement on Narcotics, 1988	11/8/88	11/8/88

<b>Penal Law, Smuggling and Narcotics cont.</b>				
54	Romania	Agreement for Cooperation in the Field of Combating the Production and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances, on Drug Abuse and Pharmacodependency	10/22/99	7/10/01
55	Russia	Agreement for Cooperation for Prevention on Abuse and Combating Production and Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	10/11/94	2/29/96
56	Suriname	Agreement for Prevention, Control and Repression of Production, Trafficking and Illicit Consumption of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	3/3/89	8/7/90
57	Uruguay	Agreement for Cooperation for Demand Reduction, Prevention on Abuse and Combat the Production and the Illicit Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances and its Precursors and Closest Chemical Products	9/16/91	6/7/95
58	Venezuela	Agreement on Prevention, Control, Fiscalization and Suppression on Abuse and Trafficking of Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances	6/3/87	11/1/90
<b>Extradition</b>				
59	Argentina	Extradition Treaty	11/15/61	6/7/68
60	Australia	Extradition Treaty	8/22/94	9/1/96
61	Belgium	Extradition Treaty	5/6/53	7/14/57
62		Agreement to Regulate the Use of the Extradition Treaty from 6 May 1953	11/12/56	11/12/56
63		Complementary Agreement extending the Use of the Extradition Treaty from 6 May 1953 to the Illicit Trafficking of Drugs	5/8/58	7/8/58
64	Bolivia	Extradition Treaty	2/25/38	7/26/42
65	Chile	Extradition Treaty	9/8/35	8/9/37
66	Colombia	Extradition Treaty	12/28/38	10/2/40
67	South Korea	Extradition Treaty	9/1/95	2/1/02
68	Ecuador	Extradition Treaty	3/4/37	6/3/38
69	Spain	Extradition Treaty	2/2/88	6/30/90
70	United States of America	Extradition Treaty	1/13/61	12/17/64
71		Additional Protocol for the Extradition Treaty	6/18/62	12/17/64
72	Italy	Extradition Treaty	10/17/89	8/1/93
73	Lithuania	Extradition Treaty	9/28/37	6/19/39
74	Mexico	Extradition Treaty	12/28/33	3/23/38
75		Additional Protocol for the Extradition Treaty	9/18/35	3/23/38
76	Paraguay	Extradition Treaty	2/24/22	5/22/25
77	Peru	Extradition Treaty	2/13/19	5/22/22
78	Portugal	Extradition Treaty	5/7/91	12/1/94
79	United Kingdom	Extradition Treaty	6/18/95	8/13/97
80		Complementary Amendment, through exchange of Notes, for the Extradition Treaty from 18/7/1995, extending it to be used for the Isle of Man	8/1/01	8/1/01
81	Switzerland	Extradition Treaty	7/23/32	2/24/34
82	Uruguay	Extradition Treaty	12/27/16	1/21/19
83		Additional Protocol for the Extradition Treaty of Criminals	12/7/21	11/20/26
84	Venezuela	Extradition Treaty	12/7/38	3/14/40



**Table 29**  
**Multilateral agreements - Brazil**

✓ Convention on Offences and Certain other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft
✓ Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft
✓ Convention to Prevent and Punish Terrorism Acts in Tort Against People and Related Extortion, when being of International Transcendence
✓ Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful acts against the safety of civil aviation
✓ Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents
✓ Convention against the taking of Hostages
✓ Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material
✓ Protocol for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts of Violence at Airports Serving International Civil Aviation
✓ Convention on the marking of plastic explosives for the purpose of detection
✓ Inter-American Convention Against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Ammunition, Explosives and Other Correlated Material
✓ International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings
✓ Resolution 1373 Security Council