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**ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC AND INTERREGIONAL
COOPERATION POLICIES ON COMBATING
COCAINE TRAFFIC NETWORKS ON THE AFRICAN
ROUTE SOUTH AMERICA-EUROPEAN UNION
THROUGH BRAZIL AND WEST AFRICA**

Summary

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ȘCOALA NAȚIONALĂ DE STUDII
POLITICE ȘI ADMINISTRATIVE

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIRCOP aims to build drug interdiction capacities at selected international airports in West Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean by establishing Joint Airport Interdiction Task Forces (JAITFs)

AMERIPOL – Community of American Police

AML-WA – Anti Money Laundry West Africa

ANA – National Anti-drugs Agency

CDT – Drug Abuse Discouragement Commission

CONAD – National Anti-drug Council

CPLP – Portuguese Language Community

CRIMJUST - Strengthening criminal investigation and criminal justice cooperation along the cocaine route in Latin America, the Caribbean and West Africa, 4 programme 2016 - 2020

DEVIDA – National Commission for Development and Drug-free Life

DIGPROCOCA – General Directorate for Integrated Development of Coca Producing Regions

DIICOT – Directorate for the Investigation of Organized Crime and Terrorism

DIRAN - Colombian National Police – Drug Enforcement Directorate

ECOWAS – Economic Community of Western African Countries

EFCC – Economic and Financial Crime Commission

EMCDDA – European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction

ENACO - National Coca Enterprise

ENACO – The National Coca Enterprise

ERANID - European Research Area Network on Illicit Drugs

EUROHrn - European Harm Reduction Network

FATF - Financial Action Task Force

GAFILAT - Financial Action Task Force of Latin America, ex GAFISUD

GAFILAT - Financial Action Task Force of Latin America, ex GAFISUD

GAFISUD – South American Financial Action Force against Money Laundering

ICMP – Illicit Crops Monitoring Programme

MONEYVAL - Committee of Experts on the Evaluation of Anti-Money Laundering Measures and the Financing of Terrorism

NDLEA – National Drug Law Enforcement Agency

NPF – Nigerian Police Force

OBID – Brazilian Observatory body of Drug Information

ODC – Colombian Drug Observatory

PNAD – National Drug Policy

PRELAC - Prevention of the diversion of drugs precursors in the Latin American and Caribbean region

REITOX – European Network on Drugs and Drug Addiction

SEACOP - The Seaport Cooperation Project seeks to build capacities and strengthen cooperation against maritime trafficking in countries on the trans-Atlantic cocaine route. The project aims to reinforce capacities in seaports by supporting the setup of Joint Maritime Control Units (JMCUs) in selected countries in West Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean.

SENAD - National Drug Policy Secretariat

SISNAD – National Public Drug Policy System

TOC – Transnational Organized Crime

WACD – West Africa Commission on Drugs

WACI (TCU) – West Africa Coast Initiative (Transnational Organized Crime Unit)

Keywords: drug trafficking, cocaine, transformationalism, African Route, European Union, Brazil, West Africa, public policies, cooperation policies

Summary

This paper focuses on the analysis of the public policies and international cooperation on combating cocaine traffic on the African Route - Latin America - the European Union - through Brazil and West Africa.

The central hypothesis of the paper is that the harmonization of public policies and international cooperation ones increases the degree of development of the states on the African Route at the individual and cohesion levels, which generates positive results in terms of preventing, monitoring and combating this type of transnational crime at regional, inter-regional and global level. This hypothesis is demonstrated by analyzing the public policies and international cooperation ones at the individual level, cluster (regional), inter-cluster (interregional) and route (global). This analysis sets out the individual indicators for the implementation of public policies on drugs in the analyzed states and the cohesion indicators that measure the degree of regional, inter-regional and global cooperation of the analyzed states. By the end of the paper it is explained the evolution of the public policies and international cooperation ones on the African Route, the effects of their implementation and the results obtained by analyzing the established indicators. The last chapter of the paper presents the current trends resulting from the implementation of the above measures at all levels and the fact that the hypothesis is confirmed.

International trafficking of cocaine is a sub-domain of international drug trafficking and is a transnational phenomenon, in an expanded and undergoing continuous transformation and adaptation. The relevance of studying the phenomenon lies in the following aspects: in the last decade, the pace of enlargement has accelerated, the phenomenon becoming a global phenomenon; cocaine demand belongs to individuals, supply belongs to cross-border groups of organized crime, and states have difficulties in controlling the phenomenon; the huge profits allow the purchase of influence at state level and at the level of other organized crime groups, making it difficult to fight at the source level. States' attempts to tighten security and control measures at transit points have led to changes in traditional delivery routes and indirectly created new drug user markets even in countries where traffickers have been reoriented; the phenomenon rises problems for many countries, with major differences,

and cooperation between these states to combat cocaine trafficking is seen as a complex and forward-looking approach.

In the correct approach to the theoretical delimitations and limitations, there are also in-depth relevant considerations regarding international terrorism and drug trafficking, according to the UN considerations that fall within the ample phenomenon of international terrorism that threatens global security¹. Drug trafficking is a global phenomenon that requires a global response, and therefore states and many organizations are forced to develop public policies and harmonized co-operation to combat this kind of crime.

The connections of organized crime to terrorism lead to the significant expansion of the financial, material and operational capabilities of terrorist groups. The groups involved in organized crime use intimidation and direct violence in exerting pressure on governments to protect spheres of influence, property and income from criminal activities. On the other hand, many of the techniques and equipment necessary for drug trafficking groups are common to those used by terrorist groups. Trafficking, fake travel documents, arms trafficking, vehicle theft, smuggling and illegal financial transactions are tools that are as useful to terrorists as to traffickers. The connections between terrorism and drug trafficking take various forms: facilitating, protecting, transporting and levying protection charges, as well as the direct involvement of terrorist groups in drug trafficking in order to self-finance their actions. The United Nations estimates that illicit drug trafficking is generating an annual profit of hundreds of billions of dollars; terrorist groups being eligible for a percentage of this amount without the authorities know anything about it.²If in the past the "sponsoring states" provided logistical and financial support to terrorist groups, "at present, as they are under close international monitoring, terrorist groups have shifted to drug trafficking as a source of income. At the same time, drug trafficking is considered a two-edged weapon, not only a source of income but also a mean of weakening "enemies" by over-saturation of the population with addictive drugs"³.

Continuing research and follow-up the cocaine trafficking networks between Latin America and the European Union there is a current and interesting topic for all the countries involved, including the West African transit countries that are part of the new routes. International drug trafficking networks have continued dynamics and, although the US

¹ UNODC – United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, accessed on June, 5th 2017 :

<http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/frontpage/drug-trafficking-and-the-financing-of-terrorism.html>

²Casteel, Steven *Drugs and Terrorism a Dangerous Mixture*, http://www.usdoj.gov/dea/ongoing/narco-terrorism_story052003.html , accessed on June, 3rd 2017

³ Barna, Cristian, *Terrorism, Last Solution?* (Bucharest: Ed. Top Form, 2007), pg. 100

launched the 1971 the *Drug War*⁴, this phenomenon did not show significant diminutions, but only changes in the routes and areas where it occurs.

All these transformations of organized cross-border crime networks call for changes in the approaches and policies imposed by each state. These include the redefinition of cooperation agendas to strengthen interregional cooperation - Latin America - Africa - the European Union, but also the creation of common specific instruments, the creation of international organizations, and the development of judicial cooperation and prevention methods.

As can be observed, the concept of transformation is a central element of the analysis and the reporting on the proposed theme: networks are transforming, processes, transit routes and distribution procedures are transforming, and regions where up until recently the transit prevails are turning into consumption regions. Therefore, this phenomenon also requires a state-level transformation of inter-state, interregional cooperation and the creation of common instruments to combat the phenomenon. In order to capture the phenomena listed above and to illustrate the effects of their transformations, it has been used one of the globalist theories - more precisely, the perspective of global transformationalism, the framing of international drug trafficking in this theoretical approach presented extensively in **Chapter 1** of the thesis.

A broader definition of globalization is that of Bilton "*A process through which political, social, economic and cultural relations come to present an increasingly global dimension, and which has profound consequences on individuals, local experiences and day-day*"⁵.

The theory of globalization can be seen from three different perspectives, each with some limitations in the approach. Thus, the three theoretical approaches to the phenomenon of globalization are: the hyperglobalism, the transformationalism and the skepticism.⁶

The hyperglobalist perspective presents globalization as a new stage in history, characterized by the decline of the nation-state's importance due to the growth of global markets, and the economies becoming "de-nationalized". Held & others show that works on hyperglobalism reach a consensus on the factors that have contributed to globalization, but not a unanimous opinion that these social forces shaping are good or not⁷. The hyperglobalist

⁴ Robert Eisenhart, *A Brief History of the US Drug War History, Colombia, and Mexico* (Arthur Levitt Public Affairs Center, New York, 2010), pg. 1

⁵ Bilton et al., *Introductory Sociology* (3rd Edition, Macmillian, 1996), pg. 5

⁶ David Held, Anthony McGrew, David Goldblatt și Jonathan Perraton, *Global Transformations: Politics, Economics and Culture* (Stanford: Stanford University Press. 1999) Introduction, pgs. 32-86

⁷ David Held, Anthony McGrew, David Goldblatt, Jonathan Perraton, *Global Transformations*, (Cambridge: Polity Press, 1999), pg. 17

theory is disqualified because in terms of combating drug trafficking, states play a key role, with public policies being implemented, being fundamental and state actors decisive in this process.

The skeptical outlook of globalization states that international processes are more fragmented and regionalized than globalized. They claim to differentiate the level of globalization according to the spreading area and seeing the global economy as a gloom-level process with inclusion attributes.⁸ The skeptic Linda Weiss states that in the globalization the nation-state preserves its autonomy and sovereignty⁹. The skeptical approach is not suitable because nation states do not maintain their autonomy and sovereignty in combating this cross-border phenomenon.

The transformationalist perspective of globalization is fundamentally different from the hyperglobalist and the skeptical one by two arguments: there is no single cause of globalization and the benefits of the globalization process are not determined. Even if, like other global writers, transformationalists describe the changes brought about by globalization, their approach is much more flexible in terms of the historical trajectory of these changes and less restrictive of the factors that generate globalization. Thus, while the hyperglobalists see the power of the state as ever decreasing and the skeptics growing, the transformationalists see the nature of the nation-state as being changing, rebuilt and restructured, stating that the definition of the change of the nature of the nation-state through growth / simplicity. For transformationalists, the process of globalization does not have a very clear definition as for hyperglobalists or skeptics, and the factors that influence the process of globalization are much more varied and their results uncertain.¹⁰

From a transformational point of view, globalization has the following major characteristics¹¹: i) Globalization has no historical precedent, ii) Globalization implies profound and a central force behind changes that are reshaping the world, iii) Global economy does not involve territoriality, but is increasingly global and transnational iv) Power, the authority and functions of the nation-states are rebuilt and are strongly related to international governance and legislation, multinational corporations and transnational social movements, v) Transformational globalization, territorial limits are still important, vi) Transformationalism does not reduce the world to a unique and fixed form,

⁸ Ed. By Steger, Martin, *Rethinking Globalism*, Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, INC., Oxford, 2004

⁹ Weiss, Linda, *The Myth of Powerless State*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York, 1998

¹⁰ Idem David Held, Anthony McGrew, David Goldblatt și Jonathan Perraton

¹¹ David Held, Anthony McGrew, David Goldblatt; Jonathan Perraton, *Global Transformations*, (Cambridge: Polity Press, 1999), pgs.: 7-14

vii) Transformationalists regard globalization as being composed of differentiated processes according to the field , viii) Transformationalists support the qualitative method , ix) There is a unique and global system of which almost all societies are part of, but there is no global convergence or society - unique world x) Globalization implies new models of stratification in companies, xi) Nationalist perspective, the direction of the globalization is uncertain, xii) Governments can influence the direction that globalization can take.

Globalization, seen through the transformationalist perspective, involves profound transformations at the global level and is the central force that redefines the world. Given this fact, national cultures and drug user preferences in different distant regions are unified, and national culture cannot be delimited by the international one. This feature of globalization is very much present in the study of international drug trafficking networks. Following this process of uniformity and transfer of cultural currents, tastes, preferences, trends, some states that do not present a history of drug use become important points of network expansion. Thus, we can see how cocaine use - once it is reduced in the US region - extends to new regions such as West Africa, the Baltic Sea, the Black Sea region or the Balkans, and notably in the European Union. At the same time, these new markets, including drug users, small traffickers, cartel lords and authorities fighting this kind of organized crime, take on the characteristics of the countries where the phenomenon is already old and adapt to the conditions of the new regions. The economies of nation-states are becoming globalized, the attribute of territoriality disappearing and these become global and transnational. This process can be noticed by analogy in the research on international drug trafficking networks, which act on the territory of different states and move impressive amounts of money from one country to another. Moreover, the attributes of power, authority and functions of nation-states are rebuilt according to the changes dictated by governance and international law and transnational social movements. Although territorial limits lose importance in terms of markets, they remain important as a policy decision-making area. Governments can influence the direction that globalization can take in the national space, maintaining their sovereignty.

Transformationalism defines global changes as generating changes at national level, however, leaving a decisive role for national policies, complemented and reinforced by international cooperation.

Chapter 2 presents the cocaine and African Route, these being the subject and space of the analysis in this thesis.

The history of the coca plant is old, as early as 3000 BC the Empires were dealing with the effects of rarefied air in the Andean regions and Coca is considered to be the most

powerful and dangerous stimulant of natural origin. The people of Peru chewed these leaves only during religious ceremonies, but this taboo was violated with the Spanish invasion of 1532, which brought slavery with it. Masters of silver mines have worked with coca leaf workers, making it much easier to control, exploit and work more efficiently and more time.¹² Cocaine was first isolated from coca leaves in 1859 by German chemist Albert Niemann¹³. It became known in the medical world in the 1880^s by the psychoanalyst Sigmund Freud, who used it constantly and prescribed it as a treatment against depression and impotence. In 1884 Freud published the article *Über Coca*¹⁴ (*About Cocaine*), in which it promotes the substance by describing it as "the magical substance". In 1886, John Pemberton increased the popularity of the substance with the use of coca leaf in the composition of the new Coca-Cola refreshment drink. In the 1890^s, producer Angelo Mariani began to promote the coca leaves stimulant - Vin Mariani, Paris - a precursor of coconut-based soft drinks, widely intended for therapists and high-age people of the time. The recipe of the wine was secret, but Mariani receives and publishes twelve volumes of testimonies on the tonic qualities of the drink, written by many outstanding personalities of the times such as Thomas Halva Edison, Jules Verne, Queen Victoria, Tsar and Land of Russia, and even Pope Leo XIII. Mariani won a gold medal for the elixir produced from the "divine plant of the Incas".¹⁵

In 1903, civil society forces Coca-Cola to eliminate the substance from the drink. In 1905, nasal consumption became popular – *sniff (taking cocaine)* - and numerous cases of nasal complaints were reported. In 1912, the US Government declared 5,000 cocaine-related deaths - registered in one year - and by 1922 the substance was completely banned. The '70^s bring the substance to the attention of people in the showbiz world, thanks to its energetic quality.¹⁶

Between 1970 and 1980, in the US, cocaine use has increased approximately 10 times, and during the same period, Colombian drug cartels are developing increasingly complex networks for transporting the substance to the US. In the 1980^s, due to the huge amounts of cocaine in the market, it turns from the rich drug into the most dangerous and most addictive drug addicted and is associated with poverty, crime and death. In the 1990^s, Colombian drug cartels produce and export between 500 and 800 tons of cocaine per year, which they sell in

¹² Robert C. Peterson, *The History of Cocaine* (Rockville, MD: NIDA Research Monograph No. 13, 1977), pgs. 17-34

¹³ A. Grzybowski, Oczna Klin, *The history of cocaine in medicine and its importance to the discovery of the different forms of anaesthesia*, (US National Library of Medicine, National Institutes of Health, 2007) Abstract

¹⁴Sigmund Freud, *Über Coca, 1884, full text in Portuguese, accessed on July 5th 2017*
http://www.apoa.com.br/uploads/arquivos/revistas/revista26_-_uber_coca.pdf

¹⁵ Concerned Cocaine Citizens, accessed on February 3rd 2015 :

<http://cocaineo5z66elwy.onion.lu/Handbook/Chapter-One-Mama-Cocaine.html>

¹⁶ *Ibidem*

Europe and the US. In the mid-1990^s a strong US struggle began with these great cartels, which led to the capture of many important members and their dismantling. Large traffic networks are now being replaced by small clusters, but they are more widespread and harder to catch. In 2008, cocaine is the second most trafficked drug in the world after cannabis.¹⁷

Cultivation and consumption of coca leaf for traditional purposes is the positive use of coca plant in traditional regions, like Andean states, but with the production and marketing of this raw material in the legal market, part of it comes to the possession of producers and distributors networks that processes the plant to turn it into cocaine. In *cocinas* (kitchens) - cocaine laboratories in Andean countries and beyond, dry coca leaves are sold at very low prices to coca pulp producers. From coca leaves to cocaine, the road is not direct. The first phase is to obtain *the cocaine base (base paste)* and subsequently *cocaine hydrochloride*, which is marketed on the international market. Laborers are not necessarily traffickers or lord traffickers, but sometimes they are simple locals who earn their daily living this way.¹⁸ Laboratories are primitive facilities, manipulated by simple humans, living in subsistence conditions in distant and hidden regions of the Amazon, or the tropical forests of North and South America. The installations are made of barrels or canisters of large quantities of metal in which the already dried coca leaves are introduced. Above them, various precursors are added to obtain the base paste (benzoylmethylguanidine).

Although obtaining *benzoylmethylguanidine*¹⁹ it's a complex chemical process, it is reproduced in the artisanal installations in the Andean regions and not only by using the collected hull leaves in admixture with the *precursors*, namely: potassium permanganate, sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid, acetone, toluene, sodium hydroxide, and gasoline, ammonia in solution, ethyl ether, sodium bicarbonate, calcium hydroxide and kerosene²⁰. Certain precursors are included on special lists, depending on the national policy adopted by the studied states. Subsequently, the base paste is dissolved in a solvent, such as an ethyl acetate, acetone, or ether, and heated by the "bain-marie" process. In the liquefied base paste are added other solvents, acetone and concentrated hydrochloric acid, which lead to crystallization of cocaine hydrochloride. Excess solvents are removed from cocaine

¹⁷ *Idem* Robert C. Peterson, 39

¹⁸ <http://www.fronterad.com/index.php?q=cocina-coca>, accessed on September 22nd 2017

¹⁹ Royal Society of Chemistry – Cocaine: <http://www.rsc.org/chemistryworld/podcast/CIIEcompounds/transcripts/cocaine.asp>, accessed on October 29th 2017

²⁰ Ministry of Internal Affairs and Public Security of Chile, June 2015, pg. 19, accessed on October 29th 2017: <http://www.interior.gob.cl/media/2016/09/De-Precursores-y-Coca%20C3%ADna-Departamento-de-Sustancias-Qu%20C3%ADmicas-Controladas.pdf>

hydrochloride, first by hand, then using a hydraulic press is removed completely by means of microwaves, resulting *cocaine powder* or *cocaine hydrochloride*.²¹

If in the 1970s most of the cocaine trafficking networks were operating in Colombia - Central America - US region, they have now spread across the whole Latin America - Central America - North America - West Africa - EU - Asia (certain regions). This spatial transformation imposes important changes in the external and internal policies of the states on the territory of which this transnational criminal phenomenon takes place.²²

In this paper it is analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively the *African route*²³, namely: Bolivia, Peru, and Colombia through Brazil, through West Africa (Guinea-Bissau, Nigeria) to the European Union (UK, Netherlands, Spain, Portugal and Romania). States that are part of the international drug trafficking routes also present on the one hand national, cultural, political, economic particularities and, on the other hand, the peculiarities of their role in the international trafficking of cocaine.

Thus, we can classify states involved in international drug trafficking into the following categories: producing states, transit states and drug user states. With the emergence of the phenomenon in each of these states, we can see policy implementation public and cooperative efforts to reduce this type of transnational organized crime.

Chapter 2 presents the route map of the cocaine since the 60^s, and those of African routes, from 1989 to 2015. They are drawn up by national and international bodies involved in combating transnational organized crime such as DEA - Drug Enforcement Administration of the United States, UNODC - United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime of the United Nations and EMCDDA - European Monitoring Center for Drugs and Drug Addiction. Their analysis show that the trafficking routes along the analyzed period are in poorly developed regions, with fragile democracies, on the territory of which they are strengthened, having strong connections with the state structures. The African Route comes to the attention of the international community and it is carefully monitored and studied at air, sea and land.

In the year 2018 when the research is completed, coca and its derivatives are exported by the Andean states mainly **Bolivia, Peru** and **Colombia**, fragile economies and democracies, to all areas where there is a demand. Substances are transported through poor

²¹ Cannabis, Coca, & Poppy: Nature's Addictive Plants October 20th 2017:
<https://www.deamuseum.org/ccp/coca/production-distribution.html>

²² *Timeline: America's War on Drugs, 2/04/2007*, accessed on April 5th 2017 :
<https://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=9252490>

²³ *Afghan Opiate Trafficking Southern Route*, UNODC, accessed on March, 3rd 2017:
https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/Studies/Afghan_opiate_trafficking_southern_route_web.pdf

and corrupt states such as Brazil and the West African countries, mainly Nigeria and Guinea-Bissau, where a stronger drug user market is developed, after which it is delivered to the final drug user - the EU countries.

Chapter 3 of the paper analyzes public and interregional cooperation policies on combating international cocaine trafficking networks on the African Route. This analysis focuses on presenting the evolution of public and cooperation policies regarding drugs/cocaine in the analysis area - the African Route, starting with the individual level and reaching the global level.

Chapter 3.1 describes the research methods used in this paper. The research is undertaken by **quantitative and qualitative methods** as well. The **qualitative** methods used are: interpretative analyzes, comparative analysis of public and cooperation policies at state level (individual), regional (cluster), interregional and global level, narrative method that describes realities in the field aiming at defining and implementing public policies regarding cocaine trafficking at every level. This research is conducted by analyzing relevant case studies, local, national or international press reports, public policy reports, interviews with or statements made by directors of national and international agencies acting in this field and individuals involved in this type of crime (trafficker or arrested mules) and fieldwork in Brazil.

From a **quantitative** point of view, the analysis is carried out starting from the individual level (state), going to cluster (regional) and inter-cluster analysis and ending with the global level (route). In order to establish measurable indicators, the level analysis is synthesized in tables illustrating the evolution of public and cooperative policies over periods of public paradigms and international cooperation. After analyzing the tables, a cohesion score is calculated for every country and they classified in terms of cooperation degree.

As a result, there are selected, as research coordinates, 11 main countries on the African route, selected as the most representative of the CRP - Cocaine Route Programme²⁴ of the European Union, listed here in the geographical order: Bolivia, Colombia, Peru, Brazil, Nigeria, Guinea-Bissau, Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, the Great Britain and Romania.

Chapter 3.2 presents the analysis at all levels: individual, regional, interregional and state.

Chapter 3.2.2 presents the analysis at **individual** level, made by describing and evaluating the public and cooperative policies implemented in the 11 states through the

²⁴ European Union, Cocaine route Programme, accessed on April 20th, 2015 at: <http://www.cocaineroute.eu/>

above-mentioned qualitative methods, it being concluded by transforming qualitative data into **quantitative indicators**. This process is achieved by developing a table illustrating the implementation of public and cooperative policies and the quantitative outputs they produce. **The horizontal axis of the tables** contain the main periods of implementation of public and cooperative policies in the respecting states, e.g. Plan Coca Zero (Bolivia), Columbia Plan (Colombia), Law 11.343 / 2006 (Brazil), etc. **The vertical axis of the tables** contain indicators of policy implementation at the end of the period, such as: the limitation of legal hectares regulated by law, eradicated hectares at the end of the period, end-of-year cocaine seizures, price/kg of cocaine (CHC), cocaine base (CB), *crack* in US\$ illicit crops and traffic monitoring agencies, agency funding sources, international projects implemented in the state under analysis, and the GINI indicator - for producing states: Bolivia, Colombia and Peru. The tables with Brazil, Nigeria and Guinea-Bissau data no longer contain illegal crops indicators and leaf eradication since they is no longer the case, becoming the same as those of the Great Britain, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and Spain, the quantitative and qualitative indicators being compared are: cocaine use, trapped amounts of cocaine, price/kg (US\$), traffic monitoring agencies, agency funding sources, applied international projects, and the GINI index. Based on the tables, conclusions at **individual** level are drawn.

Chapter 3.2.2.1 lists and describes the public and cooperative policies adopted by the state of **Bolivia**, such as: Law no. 1008/1988 on Coca and Controlled Substances Crops, the Dignified Plan of 1998, the Bolivian Integral Strategy for Combating Illicit Drug Traffic 2004-2008, *Cocainazero* 2007-2010, Trilateral Agreement USA - Brazil - Bolivia 2011-2013²⁵ etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime, such as: DIPPROCOCA²⁶, UNODC (F-57), Cocaleiros Trade Unions and international projects implemented in this country: AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL-UE²⁷, CRIMUJUST²⁸, GAFILAT-UE²⁹ (GAFISUD³⁰) and PRELAC³¹. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter and the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Similarly, **Chapter 3.2.2.2.** analyzes and describes the public and cooperative policies adopted by the State of Columbia, such as: the 1936 Criminal Code, Law 45 of 1946,

²⁵ US State Department, April 9th, 2012 (accessed on October 22nd, 2016 at: <https://2009-2017.state.gov/p/wha/rls/fs/2012/187613.htm>)

²⁶ DIGPROCOCA – General Directorate for Integrated Development of Coca Producing Regions

²⁷ AMERIPOL - Comunidad de Policías de América

²⁸ CRIMJUST - Strengthening criminal investigation and criminal justice cooperation along the cocaine route in Latin America, the Caribbean and West Africa, four-year programme 2016 - 2020

²⁹ GAFILAT - Financial Action Task Force of Latin America, ex GAFISUD

³⁰ GAFISUD – South American Financial Action Force against Money Laundering

³¹ PRELAC - Prevention of the diversion of drugs precursors in the Latin American and Caribbean region

PLANTE - National Alternative Development Plan and National Rehabilitation Plan 1996, Colombia Plan 2000, etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: DEA, DIRAN³², UNODC, ODC³³ and international cooperation projects implemented in this country: AIRCOP³⁴, CRIME, GAFILAT-EU (GAFISUD), PRELAC and SEACOP³⁵. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter whereas the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.2.3. analyzes and describes the public and cooperative policies adopted by the State of **Peru**, such as Law no. 22.095 - General Drug Act of 1978, Decree no. 853 of 1991 or the Fujimori Doctrine, Decree no. 824/1996 - The Law for Fighting Narcotic Trafficking, Supreme Decree 004-2000-AG of 2000, National Anti-Drug Strategies, etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: DEVIDA³⁶, ENACO³⁷, UNODC, and international cooperation implemented in this state: AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL-EU, AIRCOP, CRIMUJST, GAFILAT-EU (GAFISUD) and PRELAC. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Similarly, **Chapter 3.2.2.4.** analyzes and describes the public and cooperative policies adopted by the State of **Brazil**, such as: Decree 20.930 of 1932, Decree no. 780 of 1936, Penal Code of 1940, National Security Act of 1964, Decree no. 54,216 of 1964, Law no. 5,726 of 1971, the Drug Law no. 6.368 of 1976, Decree no. 85.110 of 1980, Law no. 7,560 of 1986, the Constitution of 1988, Law no. 8,764 of 1993, Decree no. 1,656 of 1994, Law 9,034 of 1995, Law no. 11,343 of 2006, the Crack Consumption and Other Drug Abuse Plan of 2011, Law no. 12,850 from 2013, etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: Federal Police, CONAD³⁸, SENAD³⁹, SISNAD⁴⁰ (PNAD⁴¹), OBID⁴², UNODC and international cooperation projects implemented in Brazil: AIRCOP,

³² DIRAN - Colombian National Police – Drug Enforcement Directorate

³³ ODC – Colombian Drug Observatory

³⁴ AIRCOP aims to build drug interdiction capacities at selected international airports in West Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean by establishing Joint Airport Interdiction Task Forces (JAITFs)

³⁵ SEACOP - The Seaport Cooperation Project seeks to build capacities and strengthen cooperation against maritime trafficking in countries on the trans-Atlantic cocaine route. The project aims to reinforce capacities in seaports by supporting the setup of Joint Maritime Control Units (JMCUs) in selected countries in West Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean.

³⁶ DEVIDA – National Commission for Development and Drug-free Life

³⁷ ENACO – The National Coca Enterprise

³⁸ CONAD – National Anti-drug Council

³⁹ SENAD - National Drug Policy Secretariat

⁴⁰ SISNAD – National Public Drug Policy System

⁴¹ PNAD – National Drug Policy

⁴² OBID – Brazilian Observatory body of Drug Information

AMERIPOL-EU, CRIMUJST, GAFILAT⁴³/FATF⁴⁴, PRELAC and SEACOP. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.2.5. analyzes and describes the public and cooperative policies adopted by the states of **Nigeria** and **Guinea-Bissau**. For Nigeria, the following are presented: the Dangerous Drugs Ordinance of 1935, Decree no. 20 of 1984 and the National Drug Control Master Plans from 1999 to date, the main institutions involved in combating such crimes as: NPF⁴⁵, NDLEA⁴⁶, ECOWAS⁴⁷ ENACO⁴⁸, UNODC, WACD⁴⁹, EU and international cooperation projects implemented in that state : AIRCOP, CRIME and EFCC⁵⁰. In Guinea-Bissau, the public and international cooperation policies listed and described do not refer to combating drug trafficking but to strengthening the state, including: UNOGBIS - Guinea-Bissau Peacebuilding Bureau of 1999, EUSSRGB – Sector Security Reform - EU's mission of peace making in 2008, Operational Strategic Plan 2015 and PNDS - National Sectoral Health Plans, the main institutions involved in state consolidation such as: ECOWAS, CPLP⁵¹, UN/UNODC, EU, and the international cooperation projects implemented in this state: UNOGBIS, WACI (TCU)⁵², AIRCOP and SEACUP. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter, the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

In **Chapter 3.2.2.6.** the United Kingdom's public and cooperative policies are listed and analyzed, such as the Dangerous Drugs Document of 1928, the Erosion Drug Use of 1971, the Drug Abuse Strategy of 1985, the Common Drug Approach: a Strategy for England 1995- 1998 of 1995, Drugs Approach to Building a Better Britain of 1998, Updated Drug Strategy of 2002, Drug: Life Changes of 2004, Drugs: Protecting Families and Communities of 2008, Drugs Strategy of 2010, Decrease in demand, reducing the supply, strengthening recovery: supporting the population for a drug-free life, etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: UK Police, Department of Health, NCA - National Crime Agency, ACMD - Consultative Committee for Drug Use and international cooperation

⁴³ GAFILAT - Financial Action Task Force of Latin America, ex GAFISUD

⁴⁴ FATF - Financial Action Task Force

⁴⁵ NPF – Nigerian Police Force

⁴⁶ NDLEA – National Drug Law Enforcement Agency

⁴⁷ ECOWAS – Economic Community of Western African Countries

⁴⁸ ENACO - National Coca Enterprise

⁴⁹ WACD – West Africa Commission on Drugs

⁵⁰ EFCC – Economic and Financial Crime Commission

⁵¹ CPLP – Portuguese Language Community

⁵² WACI (TCU) – West Africa Coast Initiative (Transnational Organized Crime Unit)

projects: FATF, G8 TOC⁵³, EMCDDA⁵⁴ and REITOX⁵⁵. Quantitative data are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.2.7. lists and analyzes the public and cooperative policies adopted in **the Netherlands**, such as: DDP - Dutch Drug Policy of 1960, Narcotics Act of 1976, AOJG rules for coffee shops (no advertisement; nuisance; no youth inside; consumer amounts only, no alcohol) of 1994, etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: the Dutch Police, the Ministry of Justice and the international cooperation projects: FATF, EMCDDA and REITOX. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

In **Chapter 3.2.2.8.** the public and cooperation policies adopted in **Spain** are illustrated and analyzed, such as the Ledesma Reform and the NDP - National Drug Plans of 1982 to the present, the creation of the UNAD - the Spanish Union of Drug Addicted Care associations and Bodies of 1985 and the Supreme Council for Anti-Drug Trafficking Fighting and Capital Cities Purification, and the Consultative and Assistance Group for Drug Trafficking Combat Operations and capital Cities Purification of 1994, the main institutions involved in combating this kind of crime such as: the Spanish Police, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Health and International Cooperation Projects: FATF, EMCDDA and REITOX. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.2.9. lists and analyzes the public and cooperative policies adopted in **Portugal**, such as: Decree-Law no. 15 of 1993, Law no. 30 of 2000, creation of DIT - Institute of Drugs and Addiction and of SICAD - Hospitalization Service for Addicted Behaviors and Addictions by Decree-Law no. 269-A of 2002, the Portuguese Drug Strategy of 1999, the National Plan for Reducing Addicted Behaviors and Addictions of 2013, etc., the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: the Portuguese Police, Ministry of Health, SICAD and CDT⁵⁶ and international cooperation projects: AIRCOP, FATF, EMCDDA, EUROHrn⁵⁷, ERANID⁵⁸ and REITOX. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

⁵³ TOC – Transnational Organized Crime

⁵⁴ EMCDDA – European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction

⁵⁵ REITOX – European Network on Drugs and Drug Addiction

⁵⁶ CDT – Drug Abuse Discouragement Commission

⁵⁷ EUROHrn - European Harm Reduction Network: <http://eurohrn.eu/index.php/aboutus>

⁵⁸ ERANID - European Research Area Network on Illicit Drugs, accessed on January 31st, 2017 at: <http://www.eranid.eu/about/>

In **Chapter 3.2.2.10**, the public and cooperation policies adopted in **Romania** are illustrated and analyzed, such as: **Law 79 of 1969, Art. 321 of the Penal Code, Law no. 143 of 2000, the National Anti-Drug Strategies for 2005 - 2012 and 2013 - 2020**, the main institutions involved in combating this type of crime such as: the Romanian Police, ANA⁵⁹ and DIICOT⁶⁰ and international cooperation projects: MONEYVAL⁶¹, EMCDDA and REITOX. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter; the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.3 presents an analysis of public and cooperation policies at cluster (regional) level. Firstly, **chapter 3.2.3.1** defines **clusters** – of **supplying states** (Bolivia, Colombia, Peru), **transit states** (Brazil, Nigeria, Guinea-Bissau) and the **consuming states** (the Great Britain, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and Spain). The analysis is made in **Chapter 3.2.3.2** by the qualitative and quantitative methods described above, presenting the cooperation policies embodied in international cooperation projects at the level of the cluster, taken from the individual (state) tables. **Tables of quantitative indicators** at the cluster level are created. **The horizontal axis** of the tables contain the main international cooperation projects and the period of their implementation (AMERIPOL, CRIMJUST etc.). **The vertical axis** contain the names of the states in the cluster and the total resulting by adding the number of participant states in the cluster to international cooperation projects. Based on the three tables, **cluster-level conclusions** are drawn.

Chapter 3.2.3.2.1 deals with the Supplying States Cluster (Bolivia, Colombia, Peru) where there are identified and analyzed as regional cooperation policies and projects: ACI - Andean Anti-drug Initiative of 2001, Regional Strategy Document for 2007 - 2013, The Andean - US Dialogue Forum, AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL -EU, UN ICMP⁶², CRIMJUST, GAFILAT (formerly GAFISUD), PRELAC, AIRCOP, SEACOP. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter, following the method presented in the previous paragraph, the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.3.2.2 deals with the Transiting States Cluster (Brazil, Nigeria, Guinea-Bissau) in which they are identified and analyzed as regional cooperation policies and projects implemented: AIRCOP and SEACOP implemented in all three states, CRIMJUST implemented in 2 of them, Brazil and Nigeria, and other international projects from the states

⁵⁹ ANA – National Anti-drugs Agency

⁶⁰ DIICOT – Directorate for the Investigation of Organized Crime and Terrorism

⁶¹ MONEYVAL - Committee of Experts on the Evaluation of Anti-Money Laundering Measures and the Financing of Terrorism

⁶² ICMP – Illicit Crops Monitoring Programme

analyzed in this chapter such as AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL-EU, GAFILAT, PRELAC that only include Brazil, AML-WA⁶³ only Nigeria and WACI⁶⁴ only in Guinea-Bissau. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter, following the method presented in the previous paragraph, the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.3.2.3 deals with the User States Cluster (the UK, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal and Romania) where they are identified and analyzed as regional cooperation policies and projects: EU Action Plan on Drugs for 1995 - 1999, Action Plan for 2000-2004, creation of the EMCDDA in 1993 and REITOX, EUROPOL, G8 TOC and MONEYVAL. The quantitative data collected are summarized in the table in the same chapter, following the method presented in the previous paragraph, the conclusions are presented in Chapter 4.

There are also multi-cluster states such as Colombia, Peru, Brazil and Nigeria. The analysis of their public policies and their international cooperation is made in **Chapter 3.2.3.2.4**, in which the multi-cluster policies are synthesized by producing a table whose **horizontal axis** lists the four states mentioned above, the three existing clusters and the heading total and **the vertical axis** presents the common international projects. Summing up the number of projects that every state participates to within another cluster indicates its higher level of cohesion as compared to the others, the conclusions being presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3.2.4. presents the analysis at interregional level. At inter-cluster (interregional) level, cooperation projects are selected involving more than three states on the Route, every cluster (region) having at least 3 states. A number of participants greater than three denote the interregional character of the project. These projects are selected and the quantitative method is followed by a consolidated table setting out the situation at interregional level. On **the horizontal axis** of the table, there are mentioned the three clusters and the total number of states that belong to every of them: Providing Cluster (3), Transiting Cluster (3) and user Cluster (5) followed up by their total. **The vertical axis** contains the names of the cooperation projects implemented in at least two of the clusters analyzed, such as: AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL-EU, CRIMJUST, GAFILAT, PRELAC, AIRCOP and SEACOP. Based on the table, conclusions are drawn up at the inter-cluster level, which will be presented in Chapter 4.

At global level, the international treaties regarding drugs and the situation of the analysed 11 states' signature and ratification are listed and described in **Chapter 3.2.5**. From

⁶³ AML-WA – Anti Money Laundry West Africa

⁶⁴ WACI – West Africa Coast Initiative

a **quantitative** point of view, a table containing on **the horizontal axis** the five UNO treaties on the fight against international drug trafficking and on **the vertical axis** of the 11 states. International treaties are the Route level (global) cooperation between the States concerned, namely: the United Nations Convention on Drugs of 1961, the Psychotropic Substance Convention of 1971, the United Nations Convention against Illicit Trafficking of Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988, the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime of 2000 and the United Nations Convention against Corruption of 2003. The table will be supplemented by a - accession, R - ratification. Based on the table, the degree of global cohesion is measured and the overall conclusions presented in Chapter 4 are outlined.

In **Chapter 4** there are presented the results of the research on levels of analysis. Chapter 4.1. shows the results of the analysis at individual level, on each analyzed state separately. Thus, the conclusions of the qualitative analysis on public and cooperation policies at individual level in the year 2016 are presented in a descriptive manner, describing the approach of the states on combating drug trafficking. From a quantitative point of view, each State is assigned with a **cooperation score** resulted from the analysis of the tables in Chapter 3.

BOLIVIA. At the level of year 2016, public policies are more adapted to local characteristics than those imposed from the external sources and are based on respecting human rights and gender equality, cultivation legal areas are established at national level, large amounts of financial aids are invested in structural and development projects, the external control is transferred to internal institutions and the paradigm approached is that of criminalization. From the cooperation point of view, following the analysis can be observed that Bolivia is part of 6 international projects of the 8 implemented in the Andean area, the maritime one not being applicable to the state, plus one implemented in the Transit States Cluster. Bolivia is also a signatory to 3 of the 5 UN Conventions with reservation only in terms of the definition of coca leaf, to those of 1961 and 1971 being at the accession stage. As a result of this analysis, Bolivia obtained a cooperation score of **6/8 + 1 + 3/5R**, ranked **4 out of 6 on the entire route and 3/3 in its cluster.**

Colombia. As of 2016, public policies are more adapted to local characteristics than those imposed from the external sources and are based on respecting the human rights, prevention of consumption and the treatment of the users. Moreover, large sums of money are invested into structural projects and for development of small and medium-sized enterprises, the external control is transferred to the internal institutions and the approached paradigm is

the criminalization and medication. From the cooperation point of view, following this analysis, we see that the state of Colombia is part of all the 8 international projects implemented in the Andean area, plus one implemented in the Transit States Cluster. Colombia is also signatory to 4 of the 5 UN conventions, with reservation only in terms of the definition of coca leaf and airspace surveillance, in the 1971 Convention being in accession stage. As a result of this analysis, Columbia obtained a cooperation score of **8/8 + 1 + 4/5R**, **ranked 2 out of 6 on the entire route and 1/3 in its cluster.**

Colombia's public and international cooperation policies will undergo transformation in the coming years, one of the chapters of the 2016 Peace Agreement being "Solutions to the Illegal Drugs Problem" addressing the topic of drug phenomena through the social development approach.

PERU. As of year 2016, public policies are more adapted to local characteristics and not imposed by external powers and aim the respect of human rights, involving major investments in the development of tourism and alternative crops of palm oil, palm hearts, eucalyptus, cocoa and coffee, for the development of small sustainable economies in poor and non-industrial regions such as Apurimac-Ene, Pichis Palcazu, Aguaytia and Huallaga, dominated in the past by small Colombian cartels, and external control is transferred to the national institutions. From the cooperation point of view, we can observe that the state of Peru is part of 7 of the 8 international projects implemented in the Andean area, plus one implemented in the Transit States Cluster and is a signatory of 4 out of 5 un conventions, with reservation only as regards the definition of the coca leaf, at the 1971 Convention being in accession stage. As a result of this analysis, Peru obtained a cooperation score of **7/8 + 1 + 4/5R**, ranked **3 out of 6 on the entire route and 2/3 in its cluster.**

BRAZIL. At the level of year 2016, public policies are similar to those in the Andean cluster states, which are strongly militarized, armed and violent, actions that generate a large number of victims especially among black youths in the *favelas* and police officers. The international cooperation projects implemented aim to strengthen state institutions, border surveillance, investigation of money laundering schemes, corruption, youth integration in the labor market, prevention of drug use, treatment of addicts and prevention of the dissemination of diseases associated with drug use such as HIV/AIDS, Hepatitis B and C and Tuberculosis. Common regional and international operations register increasing numbers of cocaine captures, which shows their efficiency and of the monitoring programmes implemented, but some of them involve names of state officials, which denotes a high degree of corruption. Although it is a country with resources, the GINI index indicates a high degree of inequality

in the wealth distribution. From the cooperation point of view, following the analysis, we see that Brazil has the best cooperation score on the entire route, being part of 7/9 projects in its cluster and 4 more of the Andean Cluster and ratifying all UN conventions, so **7/9 + 4 + R**, being on **1st place both on the entire route and in its cluster**.

NIGERIA. At of year 2016, given the political instability in Nigeria, organized crime often involves the political class which is not monitored or investigated. At international level, there is identified that Nigerian traffickers are generally responsible for the creation of drug distribution networks, *mules* recruitment and their monitoring in numerous points around the globe. Cocaine prices in Nigeria are very high, but they have quick transport methods to the EU, both by land through the Sahel region and by sea and air, sometimes with the support of the forces of order. Thus, implemented national and international cooperation projects are heavily funded by UNODC, EU and USA, and aims to strengthen state institutions, equip and train personnel, monitor and supervise borders, investigate money laundering schemes, fight against corruption, implementation of local research projects to collect field data, the existing ones being very scarce, integration of young people into the labor market, prevention of drug use and treatment of the addicts and of individuals infected with drug use associated diseases such as HIV/AIDS and Hepatitis B and C, but also to prevent their dissemination. From the cooperation point of view, following the analysis, we observe that Nigeria participates in 4 of the 9 co-operation projects in its cluster and another one in the Andean Cluster, and ratifies 3/5 treaties, its score being of **4/9 + 1 + 3/5R**, being **5th at the route level and 2/3 in its cluster**.

GUINEA-BISSAU. Given the political instability in Guinea-Bissau, organized crime often involves state agencies and political class, which cannot be monitored or investigated by state institutions. At international level, it is identified that Nigerian traffickers do not have access to Guinea-Bissau, the networks in this region being independent. There is no data regarding estimates of trafficked drug quantities, price/kg or seizures. Public policies on drugs implemented in Guinea-Bissau are developed by international bodies in cooperation with the new national institutions financed by UNODC, EU and USA, aimed to train, equip and consolidate the state's institutions, equipping and train personnel, conduct local research projects to collect field data, which is non-existent, integrate young people into the labor market and border monitoring. Cooperation policies and programmes are also implemented, which are fundamental for reforming and consolidating the state. From the cooperation point of view, following the analysis we observe that the state of Guinea-Bissau participates in 3 of

the 9 cooperation projects in its cluster, and ratifies 2 (1971, 2000) of the 5 UN treaties, in the others being at the accession stage, its **score being the lowest of route, 3/9 + 0 + 2/5R**.

The **5 states in the Users Cluster will not be classified**, these having a high degree of development and cohesion guaranteed by the status of Member States of the European Union.

UNITED KINGDOM. Great Britain is a stable and consolidated democracy, so that drug-tackling programmes are thorough developed and implemented, showing no issues with regard to corruption at national level and the inefficiency of institutions. From the drug paradigm point of view, Britain still finds itself in the medication one, although this is the very initial approach of this state. The acceptance paradigm is still not addressed in the UK, although there are discussions about this at high levels. The following years will bring many changes in the public and international cooperation policies of Great Britain, with its exit from the EU, through the BREXIT procedure. From the cooperation point of view, as a result of the analysis, we see that Britain is a partner in 5 international cooperation projects, finances all projects in the Supplier and User Clusters and is a signatory to 4 of the 5 UN Conventions (in adherence stage for the 1971 one), with a score of **5/5 + T + 4/5R**.

THE NETHERLANDS. Since the beginning of the 1950, the Netherlands has been addressing drug use through the medication and acceptance paradigms, with the constant elaboration of public health policies addressed to users and even to those convicted of drug-related crimes. Furthermore, damage prevention tools are implemented for registered chronic drug users, instruments that do not in any way imply their prohibition to use drugs. The Netherlands is a state with a strengthened and coherent approach to drugs, but also innovative, always taking harmonized dynamic measures in terms of drug use and traffic and avoiding the criminalization of drug use. The fact that the Netherlands is avoiding the criminalization method since the '70s brings many criticisms from other states, but the results are positive and the liberal policies maintained over time are becoming increasingly liberal from year to year. The institutions in The Netherlands are consolidated and there are many experts both in the medical field as of the eradication of organized crime groups. From an international point of view, the Netherlands shows a constant opening for cooperation with international bodies such as UN and EMCDDA. The Netherlands is a stable and consolidated democracy, so that drug-tackling programmes are thorough developed and implemented, without any problems with regard to corruption at national level or inefficiency of institutions. From the cooperation point of view, following the analysis we observe that the Netherlands is partner in 4 international cooperation projects, finances all projects in the Supplier and User Clusters and

is signatory to 3 of the 5 UN Conventions (at the stage of accession to the one in 1971 and acceptance to that of 2003), with a score of **4/4 + T + 3/5R**.

SPAIN. Since the early 1980, Spain has been addressing consumption through the medication and acceptance paradigms, with the constant elaboration of public health policies addressed to drug users and even to those convicted of drug-related crimes. Furthermore, damage prevention tools are implemented for registered chronic drug users, instruments that do not in any way imply their quitting of drug use, but even supply prescription-based substances. From an international point of view, Spain shows a constant opening to cooperation with international bodies such as UN and EMCDDA. Spain is a stable and consolidated democracy, but drug programmes and policies are subject to political debate, which makes them hardly approved and implemented. The situation of autonomous regions is another impediment to the development of implementable public policies at national level. From the cooperation point of view, as a result of the analysis, we observe that Spain is a partner in 4 international cooperation projects, finances all projects in the Supplier and User Clusters and is a signatory to 4 of the 5 UN Conventions (in accession stage for the 1971 one), with a score of **4/4 + T + 4/5R**.

PORTUGAL. As of 1990, Portugal is addressing drug use through the medication and acceptance paradigms, with the constant elaboration of public health policies addressed to drug users and even to those convicted of drug-related crimes. The institutions in Portugal are consolidated and there are many experts in the field, both in the medical field and in the eradication of organized crime groups area. From an international point of view, Portugal shows a constant opening of cooperation with international bodies such as UN and EMCDDA, and is an active actor in cooperation programmes in particular in the CPLP states. Portugal is a stable and consolidated democracy, so that drug-tackling programmes are thorough developed and implemented, without any problems with regard to corruption at national level and the inefficiency of institutions. Thus, Portugal is a state with a consolidated and coherent approach to drugs, but also innovative, always taking harmonized dynamic measures in terms of drug use and traffic and avoiding the criminalization of drug use. The positive results achieved by Portugal over time make this country an example of best practices at a global level. From the cooperation point of view of, as a result of the analysis, we see that Portugal is a partner in 6 international cooperation projects, finances all projects in the Supplier and User Clusters and is a signatory to 4 of the 5 UN Conventions (at adherence stage for the 1971 one), with a score of **6/6 + T + 4/5R**.

ROMANIA. Although an EU member since 2007, Romania is a new democracy, with institutions still on the way to consolidation and with a young approach to drug use and drug trafficking. Given the long communist period and the absence of connection with Western trends during this period, in Romania drugs are a taboo subject whose existence is denied both at social and political level. The approached paradigm in Romania is that of criminalization with slight tendencies to the medication one. The paradigm of acceptance is not an approach that the traditional Romanian society will take into account at this moment of time. The institutions of Romania are still at the stage of establishing effective directions, suited to the society, trying to learn from and align to those in the EU countries, so that policies and programmes to tackle drugs are developed and implemented by taking on the models of other states, while at the same time trying to strengthen both cooperation and the efficiency of national public institutions. From the international cooperation point of view, Romania shows a great openness to cooperation with international bodies such as the UN and EMCDDA and is participatory in terms of international projects as a debutante actor. Following the analysis from previous chapters, we see that Romania is a partner in 4 international cooperation projects and is a signatory to 3 of the 5 UN Conventions (at the stage of accession to those of 1971 and 1988), with a score of **4/4 + T + 3/5R**.

The results obtained at the cluster level are analyzed in **Chapter 4.2**. There are 8 regional cooperation projects in the **Suppliers Cluster** in combating cocaine trafficking, implemented by UNODC or the EU. According to Table 12, the degree of cohesion in 6 of them is maximum, with all 3 states in the region taking part of these projects, and in the case of SEACOP we can consider the same as Bolivia cannot participate, being the only state in the cluster without access to ocean. As far as the AIRCOP project is concerned, it is not implemented in Bolivia, given the authorities' refusal to participate in any project requiring air surveillance of its territory. We can say that with regard to the cooperation degree, Columbia is part of most of the projects, Peru and Bolivia presenting the same cohesion degree. Following the analysis of the same Table 12, we can say that the level of cohesion in the Andean Cluster is of 22/24 or **91.6%**, which shows a high level of cooperation at regional level between the three analyzed states. The only way to maximize the current outcome is to negotiate with Bolivia in terms of airspace surveillance and, implicitly, Bolivia's participation in the AIRCOP project.

There are 9 regional cooperation projects in the **Transit Cluster** with regard to combating cocaine trafficking, implemented by UNODC, EU or INTERPOL. According to Table 13, the degree of cohesion in only 2 of these is maxim, SEACOP and AIRCOP, with all

three states in the region taking part to them. There is only one regional cooperation project in this cluster of which two states of the 3 are part, which is CRIMJUST, in Brazil and Nigeria. With regard to the other 6 projects, they are developed between only one country in this cluster and other regions. We can conclude that, from the cooperation degree point of view at regional level, Brazil is in most projects - 6, followed by Nigeria – 4 and Guinea-Bissau – 3. According to the calculation methodology, the **degree of cohesion** in this cluster is 14/27 or **51.85%**. We can therefore conclude that, although there are no regional initiatives of this cluster in combating cocaine trafficking, the US and EU are constantly implementing programmes, both at national and regional levels, by injecting large sums of money for strengthening both the states themselves and the cooperation between them. It is observed, as in the Supplier States Cluster that, with the careful monitoring of international bodies such as UNODC, CRP, INTERPOL, etc., African states begin to form their specialists and integrate into the global scenario. Strengthening these states is fundamental to a global response to this transnational problem posed by cocaine trafficking, the filling of the legislative and institutional void in these spaces, creating a barrier for organized crime networks and can considerably reduce the numbers of this type of criminal offence.

The **User States Cluster** is considered as having a maximum degree of cohesion. Following the analysis of the tables at individual/state level, the common international programmes in the Cluster of User States are **EMCDDA** and **REITOX**. All EU member states are cooperating with regard to combating drug trafficking and preventing consumption, which can be easily seen by analyzing the reports of European surveys and the annihilation of numerous transnational networks.

As regarding the **multi-cluster states**, following the evaluation of the data in Table 15, is noted a very high degree of cooperation of **Brazil** with the Andean Cluster, being part of 7 of the 8 projects present in it (see Table 13). The only project to which Brazil is not a participant is the Illicit Crop Coca Monitoring, inapplicable to the Brazilian territory. **Nigeria**, alongside cooperating with the Andean Cluster in the SEACOP and AIRCOP projects implemented also in the Transit Cluster, is also part of the CRIMJUST project for cooperation on justice and investigations with the Andean States. **Colombia** cooperates with the Transit States in the two marine and air surveillance projects AIRCOP and SEACOP, and **Peru** only in AIRCOP. This is how we can conclude that there is intense cooperation, at several levels between the states in the Supplier and Transit Clusters, all of which are implemented through projects financed by the User Cluster. From the point of view of opening to other regions, we

can say that Brazil shows the highest degree of openness being followed by Colombia, Peru and Nigeria, Guinea-Bissau having no cooperation whatsoever outside its cluster.

The results at interregional level are presented in **Chapter 4.3**. Thus, following the evaluation of the consolidated results of Table 16 it follows that at the interregional level, the most implemented projects are CRIMJUST, AIRCOP and SEACOP, which are present in all clusters and in all the analyzed states in the present thesis, followed closely by AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL-EU, GAFILAT and PRELAC. Following this analysis, we can observe that together with the implementation of international projects financed by the strong states in the User Cluster affected by criminal actions from the Supplier and Transit Clusters, cohesion and cooperation between all the states on the route is growing, which brings results not only from the point of view of reducing this kind of crime, but also from the perspective of strengthening new and fragile democracies. The best cohesion exists between the Supplier and the User Cluster, but the result is also due to the longer period for which the Supplier States have been exposed to projects implemented from external sources and their higher degree of development than that of the African states, which are only just at the beginning of their road. We can affirm that the cooperation projects implemented in the 2 clusters, Supplier and Transit, have closer degrees of efficiency, CRIMJUST, AIRCOP and SEACOP being implemented in 10 states of 11 and AMERIPOL, AMERIPOL-EU, GAFILAT and PRELAC in 9 out of 11.

The results of the global analysis, presented in **Chapter 4.4.**, that is, at the level of the entire African Route, are drawn up following the corroboration of the data obtained from analyzing the maps of Chapter 2 and the analysis at global level.

We can observe, following the specific analysis of the maps, that by the beginning of the years **1980**, the only international body in charge of the global study of cocaine trafficking is **DEA**, office of the United States of America, which investigates the branching of the international traffic networks and implements prohibitive drug policies in regions of interest to the US. Most of the routes are from the **Andean States** and **Venezuela** to the **USA**, crossing **Central America**, mainly **Nicaragua**, **Guatemala** and **El Salvador**. The routes to **Europe** during this period are little documented, organized by the Italian mafia through direct delivery to **Italy** and **Spain**, through luxury or cargo craft, generally from **Venezuela**. In the '80s West Africa is not involved in traffic routes, as a result the US and Europe do not turn their attention to this space.

The years **2000**, according to the studied maps, show us a spread of drug trafficking networks in both Brazilian and African territory. The west coast is studded by the cocaine

trafficking networks and the east coast of the opioids/heroin ones. The central and northwest part becomes the terrestrial transit area of both networks. With the spread of the networks and transit regions, a concentration of major seizures is observed in **Brazil**, especially in the cities of **São Paulo** – the largest city in South America, **Rio de Janeiro** and **Recife**. On the African territory, new states enter the game, including **Ivory Coast**, **Liberia**, **Sierra Leone**, **Mali**, **Guinea**, **Guinea-Bissau**, **Senegal** and **Mauritania**. Nigeria and Brazil are also becoming new drug users markets, especially of *crack*. Drug use in the European Union also increases in other Central and Western European states such as **Belgium**, **Germany**, **Poland**, and **Sweden**. Maps become an important decision-making tool for national and international bodies participating in combating international drug trafficking.

After the year **2010**, we see a **stagnation** in the spread of networks on the African Route in the transit space because the entire geographic region is already involved in this kind of crime, but we see a spread of cocaine consumption in the **Eastern Europe** region, in the newly entered states of the European Union, such as **Bulgaria** and **Romania**. Maps are a traditional decision-making tool for national and international bodies, which are continuously updated.

The latest maps developed by the main international institutions, during the implementation of the present research, are those of UNODC and EMCDDA at the level of the years 2016 and 2017 (Chapter 2) and are made in interactive format, separating the routes according to the type of trafficking: on air, maritime and terrestrial, or presenting studies carried out following the analysis of the presence of traces of cocaine in the waste water in the studied cities. We can observe, at the level of 2017, the prevalence of cocaine in all the European Union member states.

With the branching of the route, the United Nations launches global conventions in response to this transnational crime. From the United Nations Conventions point of view, the results obtained are as follows: the **1961 Convention** seeks to define drugs, with different meaning at national level; the adoption score of the Convention is **9/11** (0.82), Bolivia and Nigeria being still in the accession stage; the **Convention of 1971** aims to extend organized crime activities and wants to subject international control; the Convention is difficult to adopt, conflicting with the sovereignty of states, the degree of accession to that being very low, among the analyzed states only Brazil ratifying it, the rest of the countries being at the accession stage, with a score of **1/11** (0.09); the **Convention of 1988** includes in question precursors, money laundering and traffic on maritime routes, with a degree of adoption of **9/11** (0.82) - only new democracies such as Guinea-Bissau and Romania are still at the stage

of accession; the **Convention of the year 2000** mentions, alongside drug trafficking, its specific related areas, such as trafficking in human beings, terrestrial, marine and air trafficking in persons and arms trafficking, with a maximum degree of cohesion of **11/11** (1); the **Convention of 2003** is aimed at combating corruption, facilitating phenomenon of organized crime and trafficking, with a degree of adoption of **9/11** (0.82), as well as the conventions of 1961 and 1988, the only unratifying states being Guinea-Bissau at the stage of accession and the Netherlands at the acceptance stage.

The degree of adoption of conventions at the level of the analyzed countries is calculated based on the data entered in Table 17, which centralizes the position of each analyzed country in respect of international conventions.

We can conclude that, at global level, drug conventions are being adopted by more and more states and are becoming more complex, with the states having a cooperative attitude in controlling global problems.

On the countries researched on the African Route, we can say that, at a global level, they are very different from a social, economic, political, geographic and cultural point of view. While finding a unique solution to global cocaine trafficking is almost impossible, they are more and more willing to cooperate on all levels.

International conventions are an important instrument of cooperation whereby transnational organized crime organizations are subject to global control, which hinders this kind of activity, discourages the involvement of individuals in them, and diminishes the phenomenon. Although there is no immediate solution or rapid response to this type of crime, the study of network dynamics and their stable monitoring can bring local, regional or global market stabilization and demand mitigation solutions.

As a result of these analyses, we note that both the maps and the studies, the public and the international cooperation policies adopted, fit in the transformationalist paradigm, all of them being dynamic and constantly changing, adapting to local, regional and global trends.

The African Route of cocaine is an extensive subject of study of political sciences and international relations, with new trends being analyzed and studied once identified in the internal and international environment.

Chapter 5 contains the conclusions of the research and new directions of analysis with regard to combating drug trafficking. Within the chapter there are presented the concepts of the last years in this field, which fundamentally influence this route such as the new communication tools like *Skype* and *Messenger*, *WhatsApp*, social networks such as *HIS*, *Facebook* and *Instagram*, new online financial systems such as *PayPal*, *Western Union*,

MoneyGram, new terminology and multidisciplinary study fields such as *cyberspace*, *cybersecurity*, *cybercrime*, *cryptocurrency*, *Dark net*, *TOR – The Onion Router*, *bitcoin* but also *think tanks* that activate in the multidisciplinary field of international drug trafficking of which we can mention: **IDPC – International Drug Policy Consortium**, **Drug Policy Alliance**, **RAND Drug Policy Research Center, Australia 21**, **IDPU – International Drug Policy Unit**, **London School of Economics**, **Beckley Foundation's Global Initiative for Drug Policy Reform**, **GCD – Global Commission on Drugs** etc.

As a result of this research, we observe that the illegal cocaine markets are in constant transformation, adapting to new tendencies, but continuing to exist, although the fight against them is based on increasingly levels of cooperation. Therefore, many states adopt the acceptance approach, cocaine use becoming legal, criminalizing only its commercialization in quantities greater than the regulated doses for personal use.

The intention to carry on this research has started also due to the scarcity of scientific work on the on drug trafficking theme in the Romanian academic environment. The innovation of research is the adoption of the State Cluster analysis and the measurement of the cohesion degree from the cooperation policies point of view adopted at national, regional, interregional and global level. The studied states are representative for the international cocaine trafficking African Route and the analysis is carried out based on the analysis of the implementation of public policies in these countries and the evolution of the implementation of international projects at various levels.

The written papers on this theme in the academic literature are diverse and is noted an increase in the interest in conducting multidisciplinary research in this area.

The present research can be continued in the coming years by comparing the results achieved in 2016 with the ones in the future, taking into account the new directions for the development of cocaine markets and future public policies and cooperation to be implemented.

It is of great interest also the further research of the the development of public policies implemented in the two clusters consisting of developing countries, the Supplier and Transit ones, and future cooperation at interregional level between America Latin and West Africa.

In order for the establishment and development of public policies to be an effective and positive process, it is necessary for specialists in the field to be consulted and therefore the cooperation between national and international institutions and Academy it is fundamental.

Cooperation is the key to successful policies, and that is why it must be implemented at all levels, including in the field of research. It is necessary for policy makers at all levels to collaborate continuously with the academy in order to harmonize public policies and instruments with the current trends. This factor could bring new perspectives on current themes, but also contribute to the adoption of effective and positive policies at all levels.

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