

**Commission on Narcotic Drugs****Sixty-first session**

Vienna, 12–16 March 2018

Item 6 of the provisional agenda*

**Implementation of the Political Declaration and
Plan of Action on International Cooperation
towards an Integrated and Balanced Strategy to
Counter the World Drug Problem****Action taken by Member States to implement the Political
Declaration and Plan of Action on International
Cooperation towards an Integrated and Balanced Strategy
to Counter the World Drug Problem****Report of the Executive Director***Summary*

The present report contains information based on the fourth round of responses provided by Member States to parts I and II of the annual report questionnaire, concerning action taken to implement the Political Declaration and Plan of Action on International Cooperation towards an Integrated and Balanced Strategy to Counter the World Drug Problem. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime prepares such a report on a biennial basis, pursuant to Commission on Narcotic Drugs resolution 53/16, entitled “Streamlining of the annual report questionnaire”. The report addresses measures taken by Member States in the areas of drug demand and supply reduction, countering money-laundering and promoting judicial cooperation, and includes related recommendations.

This is the last of the biennial reports before the target date contained in the Political Declaration and Plan of Action for consideration by Member States at the sixty-second session of the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, in 2019. The report contains a comparison of the information provided in the first, second, third and fourth reporting periods and identifies progress and setbacks.

* [E/CN.7/2018/1](#).



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I. Introduction

1. The present report contains an analysis of the answers provided by Member States to parts I and II of the annual report questionnaire, adopted by the Commission on Narcotic Drugs in its resolution 53/16, entitled “Streamlining of the annual report questionnaire”. In that resolution, the Commission requested the Executive Director to prepare and submit to the Commission, on a biennial basis, on the basis of the responses provided by Member States to the questionnaire, a single report on action taken to implement the Political Declaration and Plan of Action on International Cooperation towards an Integrated and Balanced Strategy to Counter the World Drug Problem, adopted during the high-level segment of the fifty-second session of the Commission in 2009 and subsequently by the General Assembly in its resolution 64/182.

2. With a view to supporting Member States in the preparations for the sixty-second session of the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, in 2019, the target date identified in the Political Declaration and Plan of Action, the present report contains the information received from Member States over the last biennium, and describes the challenges identified and progress made since 2009. Member States were requested to submit their replies to the questionnaire for the 2016–2017 reporting cycle no later than 30 September 2017. The present report is to be read in conjunction with the two annual reports of the Secretariat submitted to the Commission on Narcotic Drugs: the report of the Secretariat on the world situation with regard to drug abuse (E/CN.7/2017/4), prepared on the basis of the replies to part III of the annual report questionnaire, on the extent and patterns of and trends in drug use; and the report by the Secretariat on the world situation with regard to drug trafficking (E/CN.7/2017/5), prepared on the basis of the replies to part IV of the annual report questionnaire, on the extent and patterns of and trends in drug crop cultivation and drug manufacture and trafficking. In view of the 2019 target date, the above-mentioned annual reports, prepared for the sixty-first session of the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, will also contain a summary of trends since 2009 regarding drug trafficking and production and drug abuse.

3. The first three biennial reports were prepared in 2012, 2014 and 2016. The same methodology was followed for all of the reports, in the interests of continuity, consistency and comparability of data.

4. After the issuance of the third biennial report of the Executive Director on action taken by Member States to implement the Political Declaration and Plan of Action (E/CN.7/2016/6), the General Assembly held its special session on the world drug problem and adopted an outcome document, entitled “Our joint commitment to effectively addressing and countering the world drug problem”. In its resolution 60/1, entitled “Preparations for the sixty-second session of the Commission on Narcotic Drugs in 2019”, the Commission on Narcotic Drugs recognized that the implementation of that outcome document contributed to the implementation of the Political Declaration and Plan of Action. In addition, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has taken centre stage, with the General Assembly adopting the 17 Sustainable Development Goals in 2015. In the outcome document of the special session of the General Assembly on the world drug problem, Member States noted that the efforts to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals and to effectively address the world drug problem were complementary and mutually reinforcing. References to the provisions of the outcome document and to relevant Sustainable Development Goals have been made in chapter VI of the present report.

II. Methodological considerations

5. The analysis contained in the present document is based on responses by Member States to parts I and II of the annual report questionnaire for the period 2010–2016. Depending on whether a specific subject is addressed in parts I or II of

the annual report questionnaire, the subset of countries used in the analysis may differ. As an example, the set of countries used for the analysis of drug demand reduction matters is different from that used for the analysis of countering money-laundering, since the former is based on responses to part II of the questionnaire, while the latter relies on part I.

6. To ensure comparability over time, the trend analysis of responses in the present document is limited to those Member States that completed the relevant part of the questionnaire in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017. Member States that responded in at least one of the two years within each biennium were included in the analysis. Depending on data availability, that restriction was relaxed for the analysis contained in some sections of the present document. In such cases, data from those Member States that had responded during three out of the four bienniums were also incorporated.

7. For the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013 and 2014–2015, if a Member State reported that something had occurred during at least one of the two years within the biennium, it was considered as a positive occurrence during that biennium. For the biennium 2016–2017, only answers to the 2016 annual report questionnaire were considered, since no information was available for 2017 at the time of writing. That fact should be taken into account when interpreting the results, since it could explain a higher number of countries with negative or missing responses during the biennium 2016–2017.

8. Comparisons of responses across different regions or subregions within a specific biennium, however, incorporate all the responses provided by Member States, regardless of whether they responded to other bienniums. That approach allows for a more robust analysis of what happened in each biennium.

9. One of the main limitations to the analysis contained in the present document is the number of Member States for which data are available. On average, about 105 countries responded to part I of the annual report questionnaire during each of the analysed bienniums, a similar response rate to that for part II. Out of the 94 countries that had responded to part II of the annual report questionnaire at the time of writing, 78 had responded during all four cycles. Therefore, data from about 40 per cent of all Member States were used in the trend analysis of certain subjects that rely on responses to part II of the questionnaire, such as activities related to drug supply reduction. The proportion of responding Member States can vary notably from one region to another.

10. While about 80 per cent of Member States in Europe responded to part I of the annual report questionnaire for three out of the four bienniums analysed, only four countries had the same response record in sub-Saharan Africa. Similarly, 39 out of 45 Member States in Europe responded to part II of the questionnaire in three out of the four bienniums, but the response rate was only 2 out of 15 Member States in Oceania and 5 out of 48 Member States in sub-Saharan Africa.

11. Regions including sub-Saharan Africa, Oceania and the Caribbean are heavily underrepresented in the sample, with only about 10 per cent or less of Member States in those regions responding consistently to parts I and II of the annual report questionnaire. In addition, global trends are disproportionately influenced by European countries, especially those in Western and Central Europe, owing to the relatively high rate of countries in that region that replied consistently to the questionnaire during the period 2010–2016. While the region of Western and Central Europe represents about 15 per cent of all Member States, the region accounts for about one third of all respondents considered in the trend analysis, potentially affecting the applicability on a global scale of the findings and conclusions contained in the present document.

III. Demand reduction and related measures

12. A total of 93 replies to part II of the annual report questionnaire had been received as at 30 September 2017, compared with a total of 96 replies as at 30 September 2015. Answers provided by Member States to questions 1 to 15 were analysed, when possible across reporting cycles.

A. Drug strategy and resources for treatment and prevention

13. Across all reporting cycles, over 90 per cent (91 per cent in the fourth reporting cycle) of Member States indicated that they had adopted a written national drug strategy that included a demand reduction component. The strategies reported on were ongoing and had an average duration of three to seven years. Most strategies covered prevention, treatment, rehabilitation and social reintegration services, services to prevent the health and social consequences of drug use, and drug monitoring and research.

14. Most reporting States entrusted a central coordination body with the implementation of the drug demand reduction component of the strategy. In over 85 per cent of responses in each reporting cycle, Member States indicated that the ministries of health, social affairs, education, law enforcement and justice were represented on the central coordination body. A development noted in the fourth reporting cycle was an increase in participation by non-governmental organizations in those coordination bodies: during that cycle, over 80 per cent of reporting countries indicated that non-governmental organizations were involved in the work of the central coordinating body, compared with an average of less than 60 per cent in previous cycles. Generally speaking, the ministries of labour and employment and the private sector remain, as in previous cycles, not very well represented in the central coordination bodies.

15. Despite the large proportion of Member States reporting on the existence of a national demand reduction strategy, about one third (37 per cent) of those strategies remained unfunded. The situation was particularly serious in Africa, where half of the strategies reported were unfunded.¹

16. During the fourth cycle and among Member States whose strategies were funded, increases in funding for treatment and for prevention were reported by 32 per cent and 26 per cent, respectively. About half of the remaining Member States reported that the budgets for such programmes remained stable (51 per cent for prevention and 42 per cent for treatment).

17. In the Middle East and North Africa, 28 per cent of the Member States responding to the annual report questionnaire reported a budget increase for prevention programmes, while 43 per cent reported an increase for treatment activities. Two thirds of responding countries from Central, South and West Asia reported an increase in funding for both prevention and treatment strategies, compared with almost 90 per cent reporting a stable or decreased budget for such strategies in the preceding cycle.

¹ It should be noted that information was only provided by six countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

B. Prevention and early intervention

Figure 1
Number of countries reporting the existence of various prevention activities in the community with no or limited level of efficacy in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

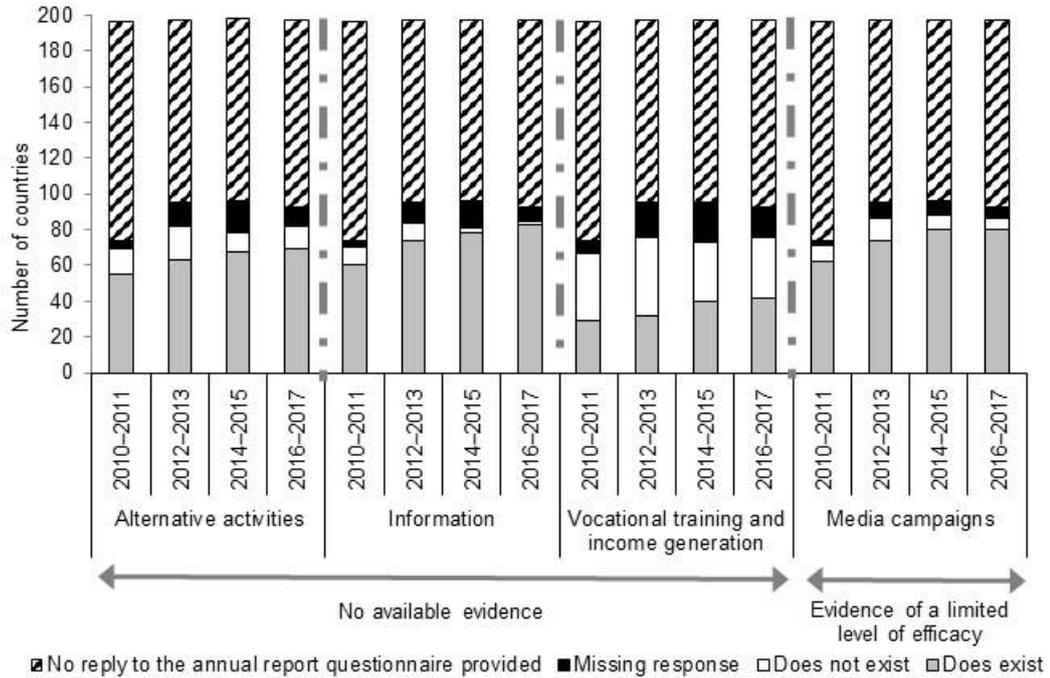


Figure 2
Number of countries reporting the existence of various prevention activities in the community with good or very good level of efficacy in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

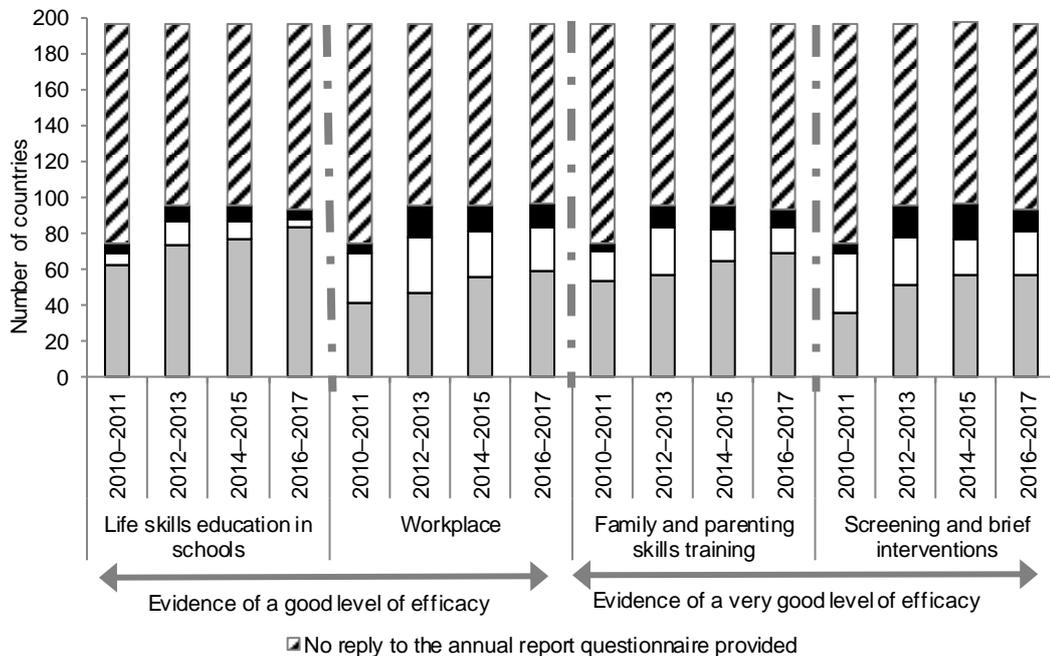


Figure 3
Number of countries reporting the existence of various prevention activities among at-risk groups with no or limited level of efficacy in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

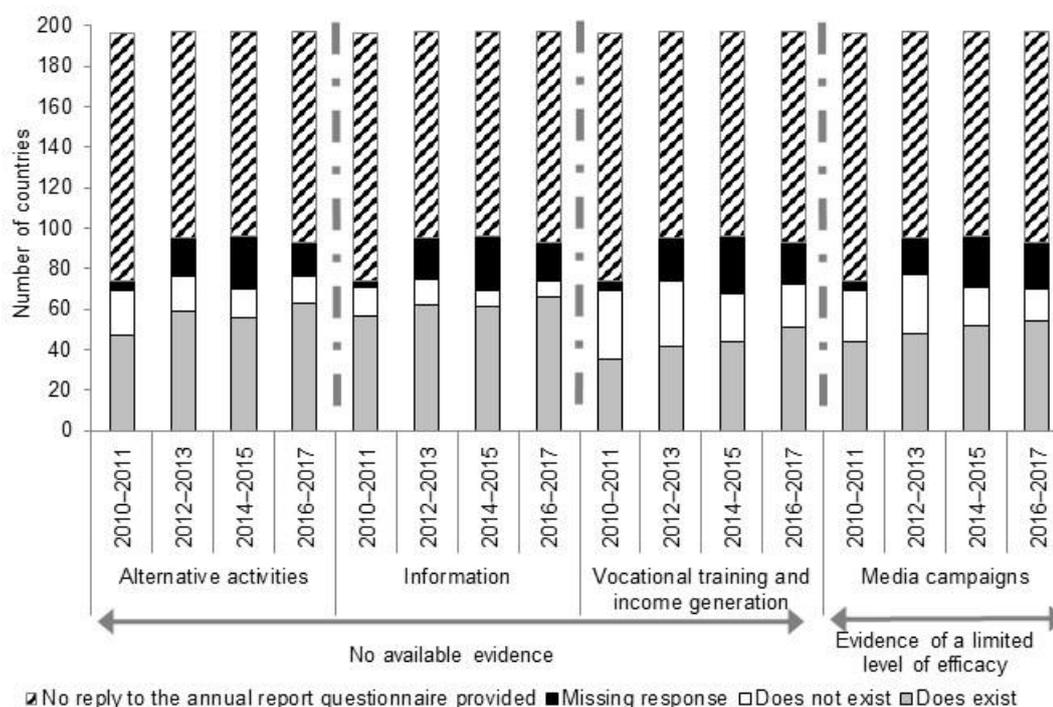
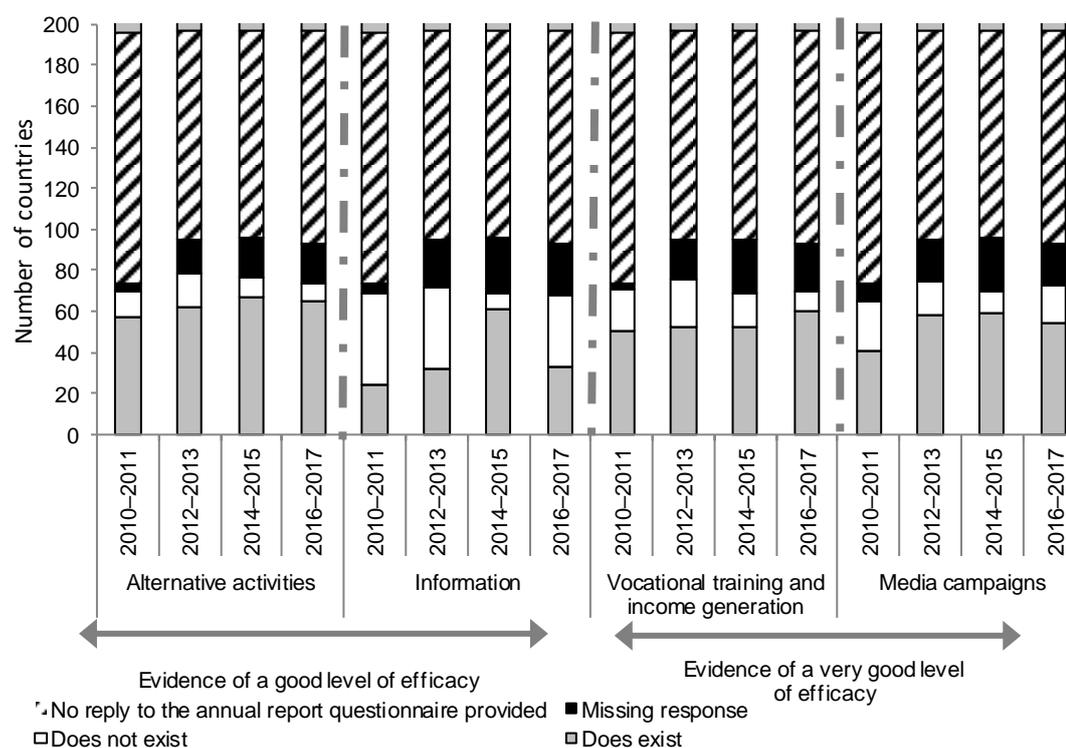


Figure 4
Number of countries reporting the existence of various prevention activities among at-risk groups with good or very good level of efficacy in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

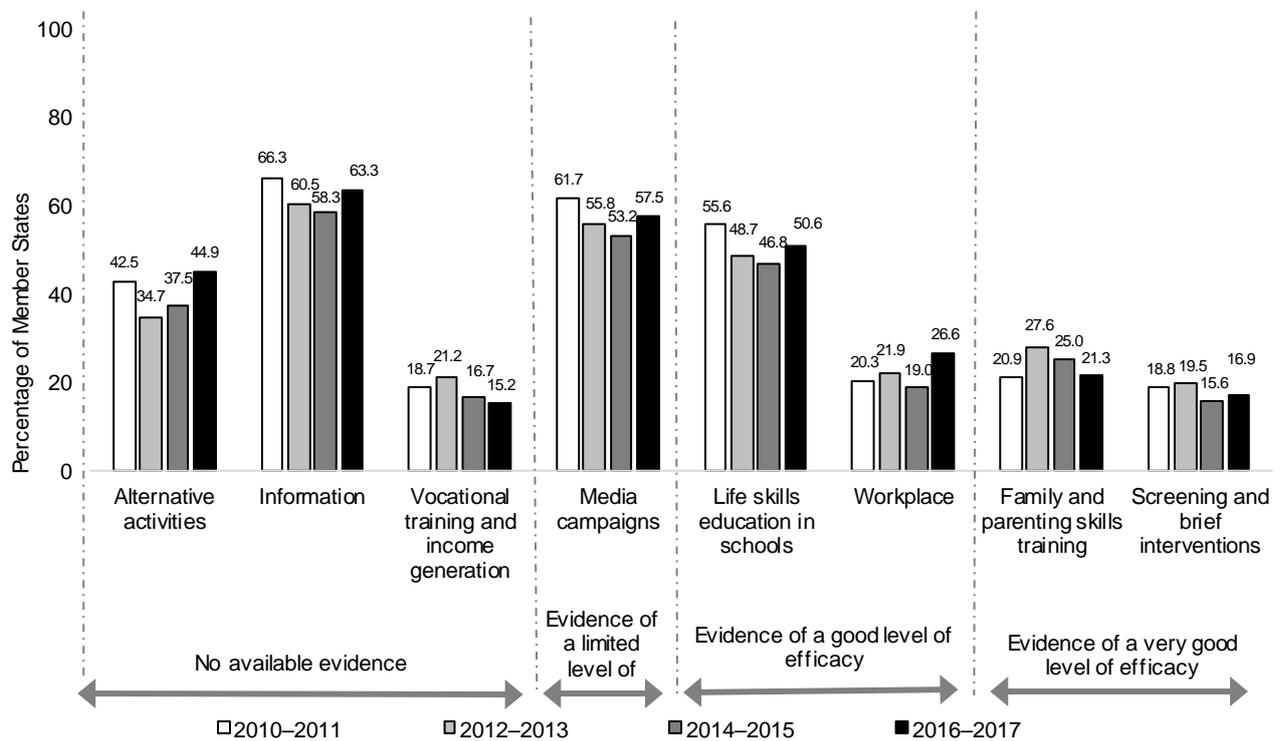


18. Figures 1 to 4 present the responses of Member States regarding the implementation of various prevention activities, both in the general population and

among groups at risk, further categorized by strength of evidence, as set out in the *International Standards on Drug Use Prevention*.

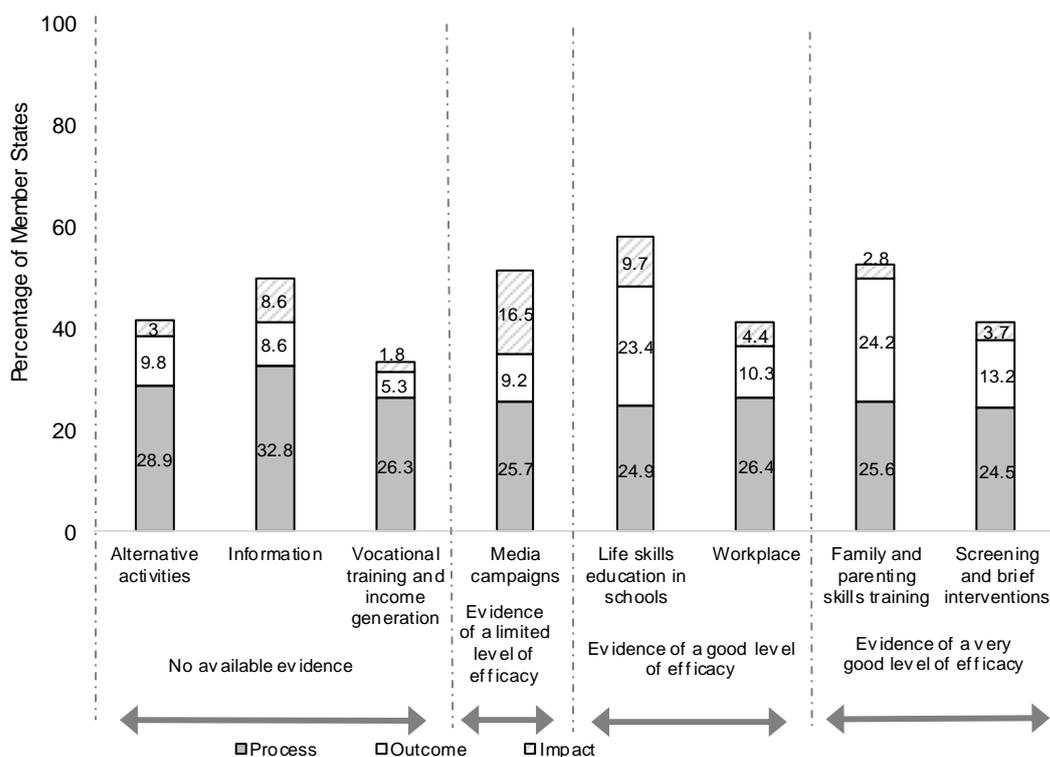
19. As with previous cycles, fewer prevention activities targeted at-risk groups than targeted the general population. Across cycles, there is a slight increase with regard to the availability of prevention responses at the community level, with a smaller increase for at-risk populations. Although there is an increase in the number of prevention interventions whose efficacy is considered good or very good, as measured by the *International Standards on Drug Use Prevention*, it should be noted that there is also an increase in services that are rated as having no or limited efficacy. Moreover, it seems that interventions of the latter type are still more prevalent than those with higher levels of efficacy. For example, media campaigns and the provision of information about drugs both continue to rank as the most prevalent activities implemented for the general population. Evidence-based interventions, life skills education in schools and families and parenting skills training were reported by a smaller number of Member States.

Figure 5
Proportion of Member States reporting high coverage of various prevention activities, categorized by level of efficacy according to the *International Standards on Drug Use Prevention*, in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017



20. Across all reporting cycles, the level of coverage of activities with a very good efficacy rating remains concerning. As can be seen in figure 5, the most common interventions have no or a limited level of efficacy according to the *International Standards on Drug Use Prevention* (three of the top four interventions reported have no or a limited level of evidence of efficacy). Providing information about drugs and conducting media campaigns remain the interventions most frequently reported. Of the interventions with a good or very good level of efficacy, life skills education in school settings is more frequently reported than activities in the family or workplace settings, in which universal and selective preventive interventions can be effectively applied. Screening and brief interventions are also very effective compared with life skills education in school settings; nevertheless, they seem to be much less frequently reported.

Figure 6
Proportion of Member States reporting evaluation of prevention activities during the fourth cycle (2016–2017)



21. A considerable number of countries did not take any measures to evaluate implemented interventions, a trend that remains unchanged across reporting cycles (see figure 6). Evaluation was most frequently reported for information and interventions of alternative activities. Across all reporting cycles and regardless of the specific intervention evaluated, the majority of the evaluations focused on process, with a smaller number focused on outcomes and even fewer on impact. The evaluation of the impact of preventive interventions requires much more attention in order to make prevention strategies truly effective.

C. Treatment

22. In the fourth cycle, more than 90 per cent of Member States reported the availability of residential and outpatient drug treatment facilities (94 per cent and 93 per cent, respectively). A breakdown of the ratio of inpatient and outpatient treatment units was difficult to ascertain from the provided responses because the sum exceeded 100 per cent. Among the 26 Member States correctly responding to the question in the fourth cycle, the ratio was 27.4 per cent, down from 28 per cent in the third cycle and from 42 per cent in the first cycle. In the fourth cycle, the decrease in availability of inpatient beds coincided with an increase in the units available for outpatient services, with outpatient facilities accounting for an average of 70 per cent of treatment facilities. Among Member States that provided a valid response, the average percentages for the two types of treatment facilities varied widely: from 3 per cent and 86 per cent for inpatient and from 9 per cent and 97 per cent for outpatient, furthermore complicating a conclusive reading of the trend. A decrease in the ratio of residential to outpatient beds can predominantly be attributed to reports from Europe and the Americas, whereas reports from Africa and Asia continue to reflect a 50/50 distribution between inpatient and outpatient units.

23. As in previous cycles, it is difficult to draw an overall picture with regard to the existence of specific treatment services, given that a large number of countries did not respond to questions relating to the issue. Treatment services were categorized, as

they were previously, into three different types: pharmacological, psychosocial, and services for social rehabilitation and aftercare. Those were assessed both at the community level and in prison settings. A recovery-oriented continuum of care includes and integrates the full range of these services, both at the community level and in prisons.

Figure 7
Reports of the existence of pharmacological treatment in the community in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

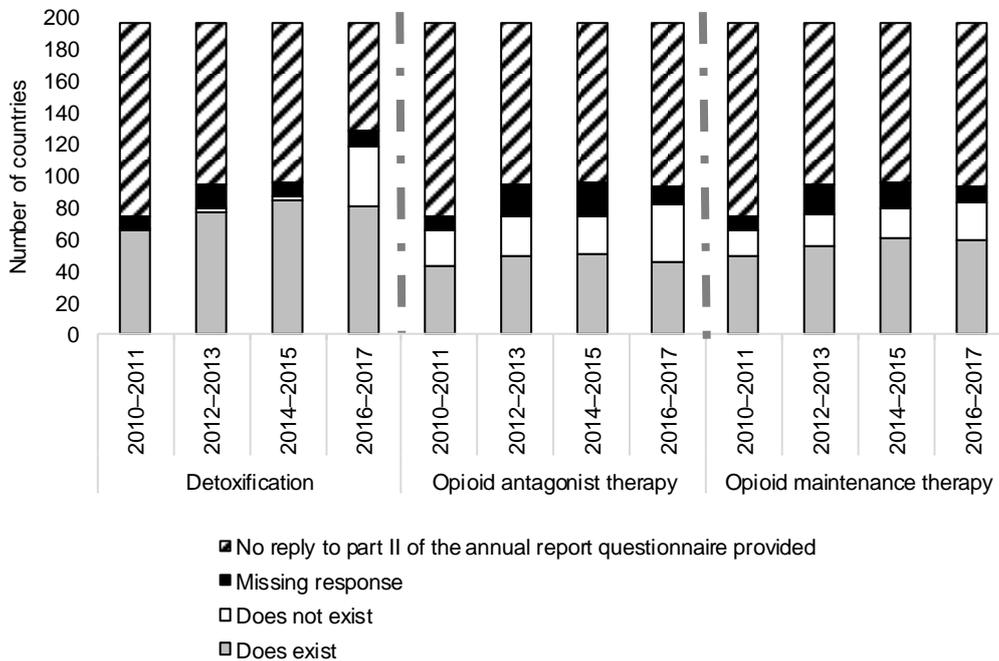


Figure 8
Reports of the existence of pharmacological treatment in prison settings in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

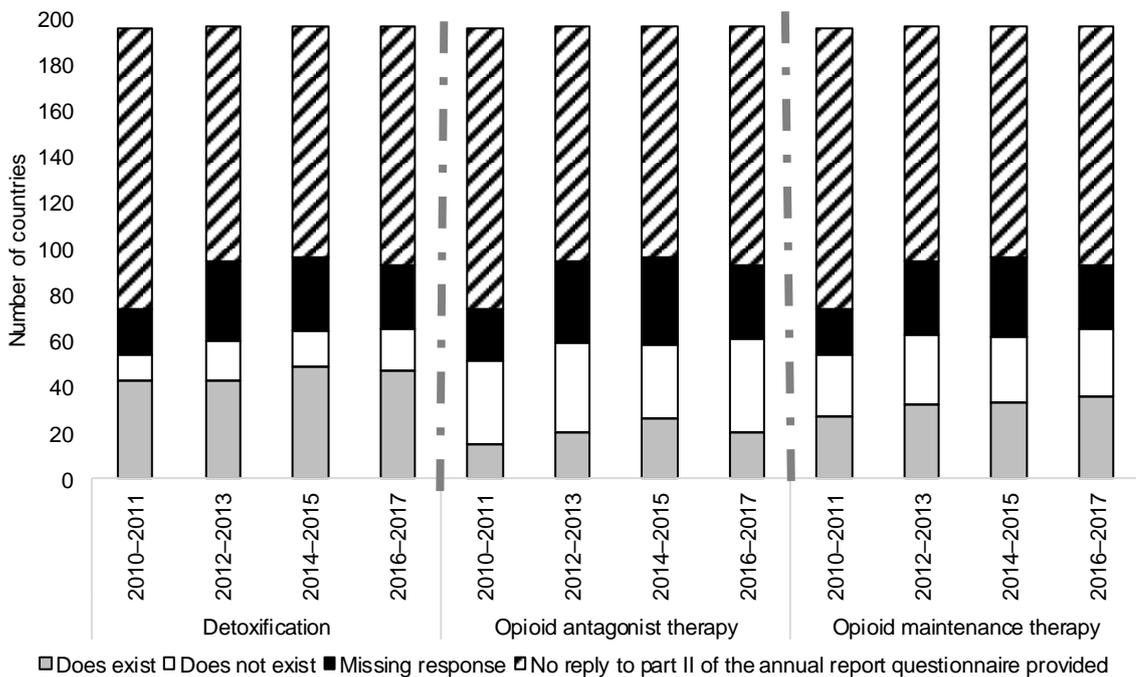


Figure 9
Reports of the existence of social rehabilitation and aftercare treatment services in the community in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

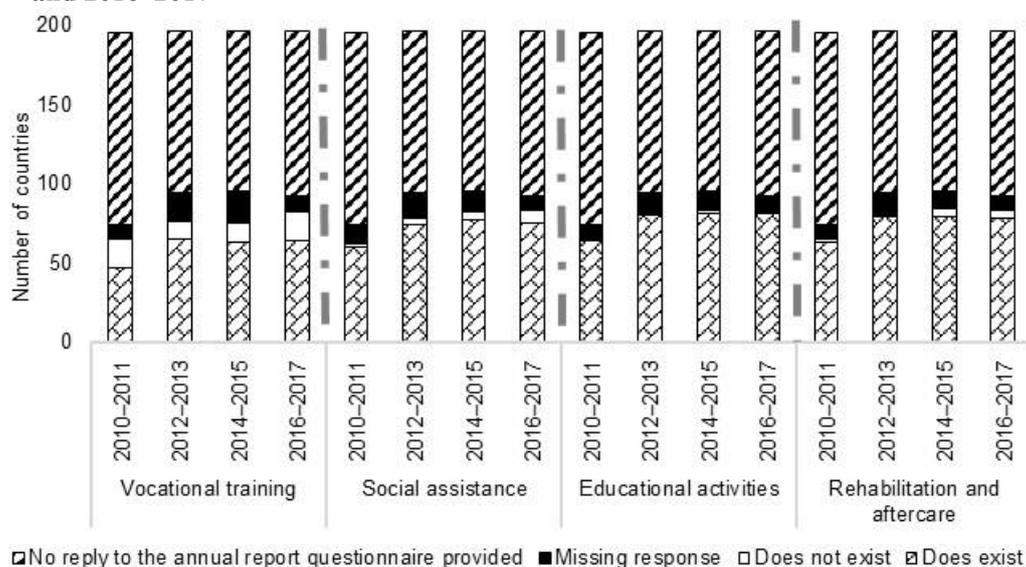


Figure 10
Reports of the existence of social rehabilitation and aftercare treatment services in prison settings in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

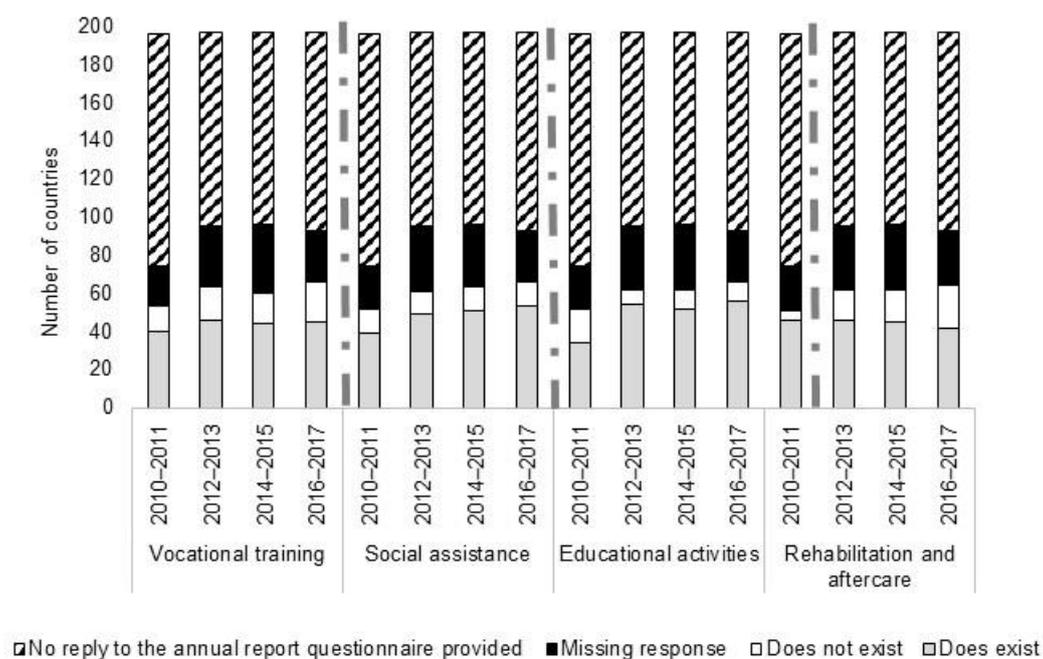


Figure 11
Reports of the existence of psychosocial treatment services in the community in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

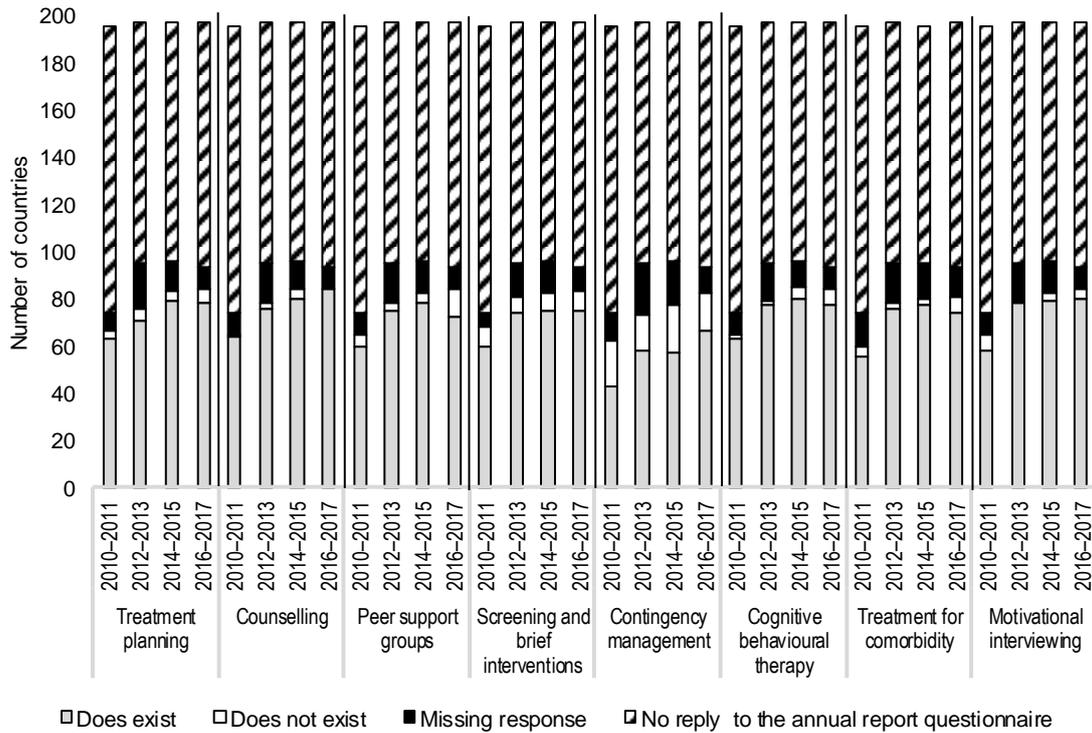
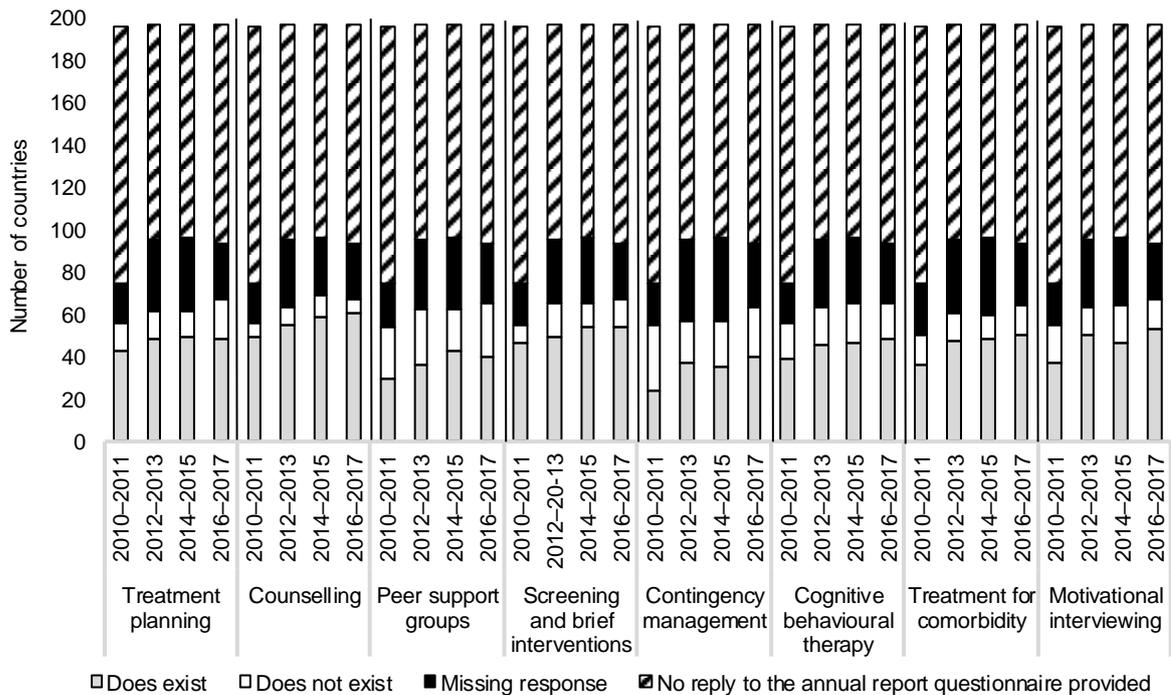


Figure 12
Reports of the existence of psychosocial treatment services in prison settings in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017



24. The availability of services remained relatively stable across the four reporting cycles, except for a slight increase in psychosocial services both at the community level and in prison settings (see figures 7 to 12). In the fourth reporting cycle, the provision of services remained much less frequent in prisons compared with community settings. Pharmacological treatment, in particular opioid antagonist

therapy and opioid maintenance therapy, remained the least-provided service, particularly among services available in prison settings.

25. No significant difference was noted within subregions with regard to services at the community level. Despite that, a notable difference between subregions for services in prison settings was reported by countries in the Middle East and North Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, sub-Saharan Africa and Central and South-West Asia, which reported the availability of fewer than 10 of the 15 services assessed, on average.

Figure 13

Percentage of countries reporting a high degree of coverage of treatment services in the community in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

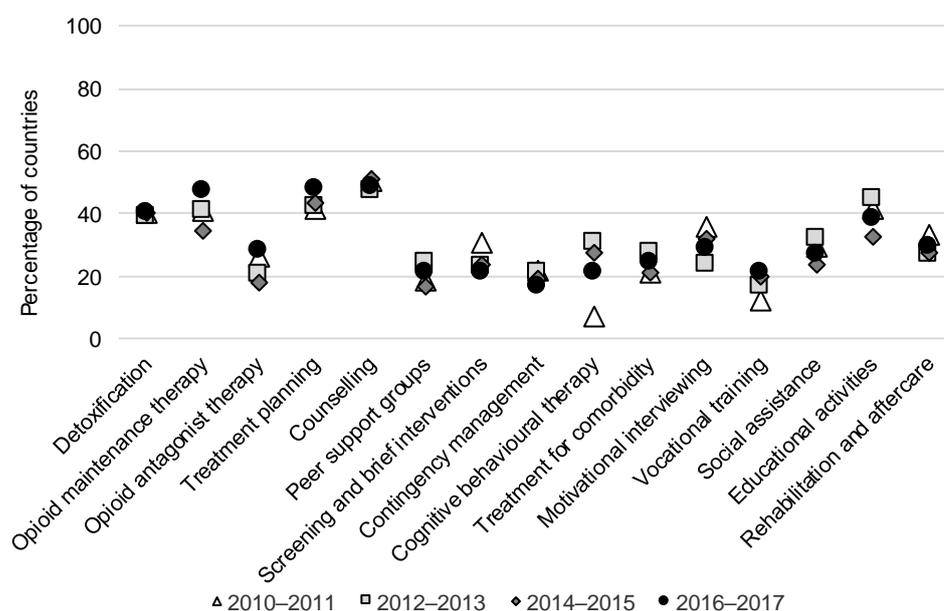
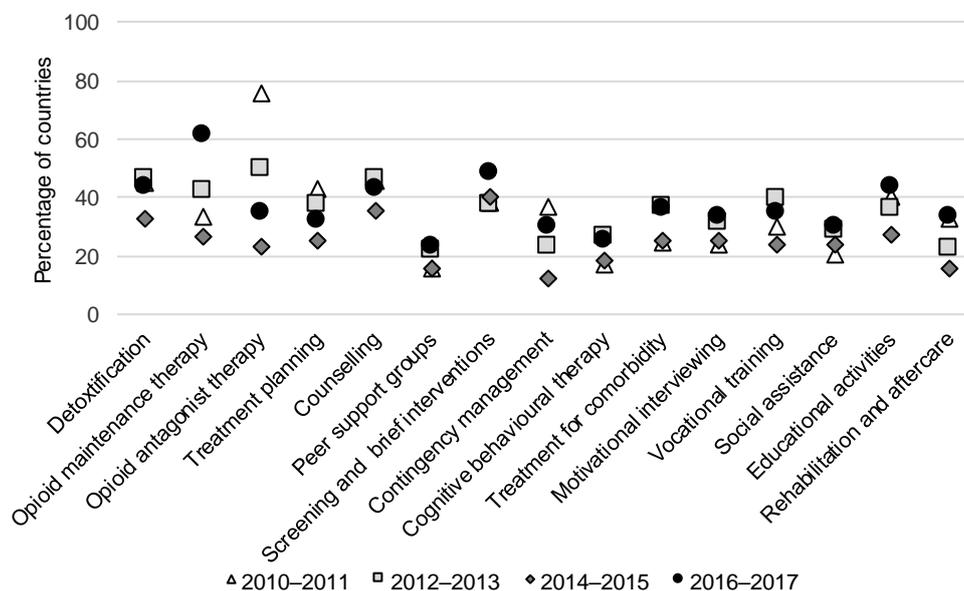


Figure 14

Percentage of countries reporting a high degree of coverage of drug treatment services in prison settings in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

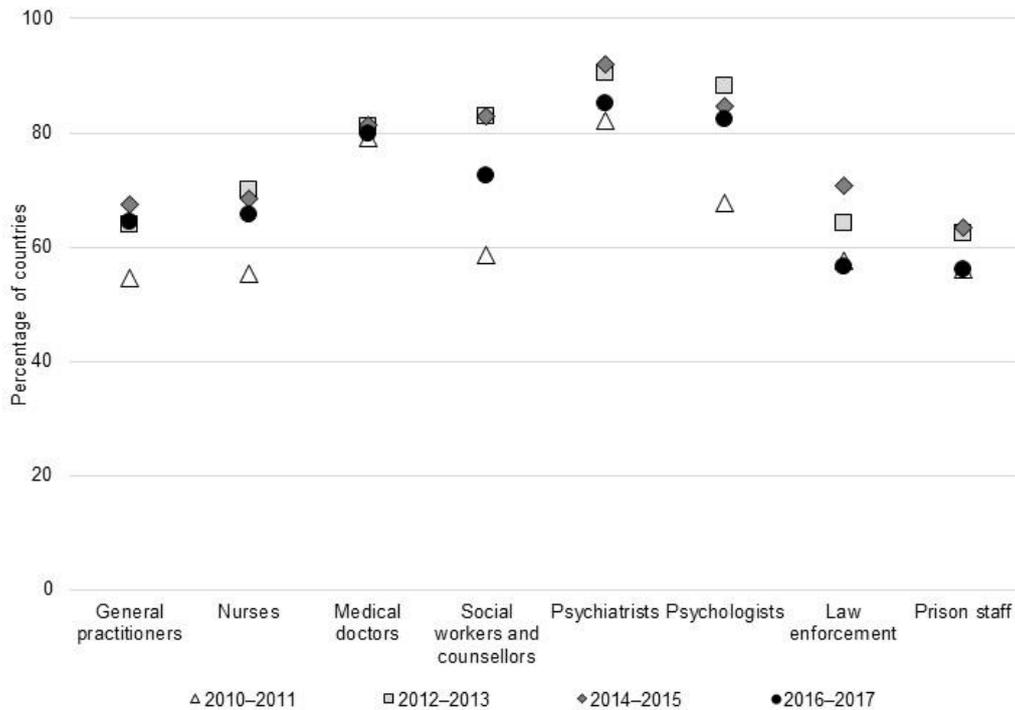


26. In the fourth cycle, the percentage of Member States reporting a high coverage of services at the community level and in prison settings remained lower than expected. Of the 15 assessed services, only counselling and treatment planning were consistently reported as having high coverage by over 40 per cent of the reporting Member States. Across cycles, the coverage rate for most other services remained relatively low, albeit stable (see figures 13 and 14).

D. Quality standards and training of staff

Figure 15

Availability of drug demand reduction interventions for professionals as part of their training in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017

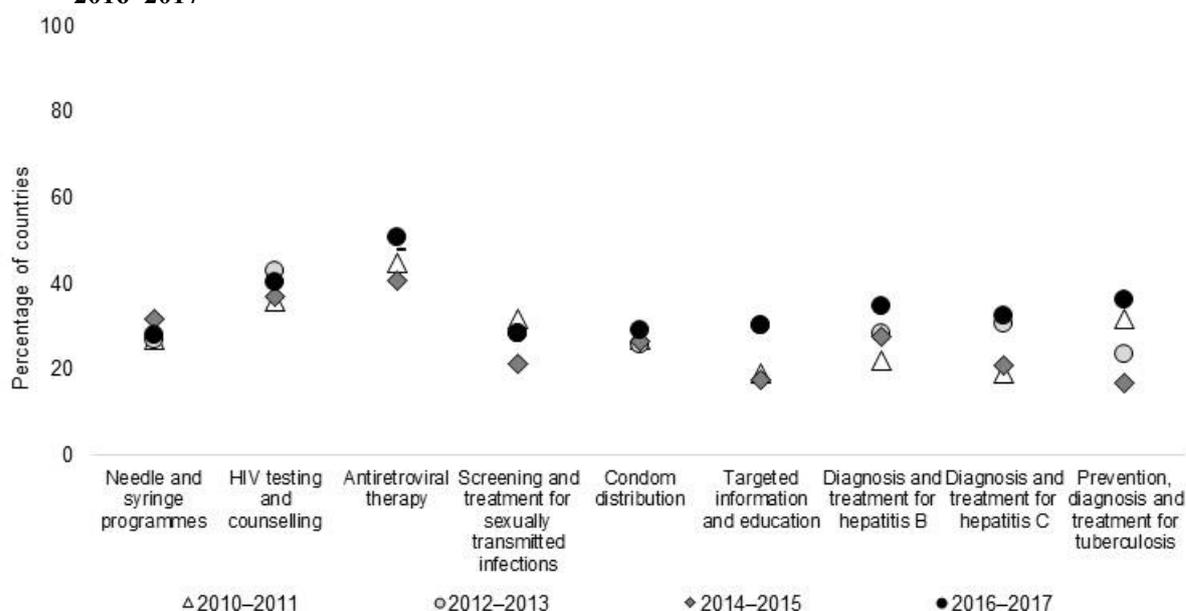


27. The availability of training for professionals on drug demand reduction interventions appear to have decreased in the fourth cycle after increasing in the previous two cycles. That decrease was most noticeable in the cases of social workers/counsellors, psychiatrists and, in particular, law enforcement and prison staff, for which the availability of training fell to its lowest recorded level (see figure 15). Across other professions, the amount of training provided remained largely stable. Such training is key to further strengthening and improving quality standards, given that such professionals play a crucial role in providing effective treatment and support to drug users.

E. Prevention of diseases, including infectious diseases

28. Across reporting cycles, information on services for the prevention of diseases, including infectious diseases, was not provided by roughly half of all Member States. Between 41 per cent and 47 per cent of submissions contained no such information at the community level, while between 51 per cent and 55 per cent lacked such information with regard to prison settings. It is therefore important to emphasize that the conclusions contained herein are based on the few responses provided.

Figure 16
Percentage of countries reporting a high degree of coverage of various services for the prevention, treatment and care of HIV and other infectious diseases in the community in the bienniums 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016–2017



29. At the community level, among the nine evidence-based interventions monitored, Member States have consistently reported that needle and syringe programmes and condom distribution programmes for people who use drugs and their partners were not available at the recommended level of coverage, and that the level of coverage was even lower in prison settings. Antiretroviral therapy and HIV testing and counselling were the only two services for people who use drugs that were reported to be consistently available with high coverage at the community level. Compared with previous cycles, an increase was observed in the fourth cycle in the coverage for the following services at the community level: (a) antiretroviral therapy; (b) condom distribution; (c) targeted information and education; (d) diagnosis and treatment for hepatitis B and C and prevention; and (e) prevention, diagnosis and treatment for tuberculosis (see figure 16).

30. Antiretroviral therapy and HIV testing and counselling were also the only two services for people who use drugs that were consistently reported to be available with high coverage in prison settings. In the last two reporting cycles (2014–2015 and 2016–2017), there was an increase in the coverage of services for the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of tuberculosis among people who use drugs. In the most recent cycle (2016–2017), those services were reported to be the third most commonly available services, with high coverage in prison settings.

IV. Drug supply reduction and related measures

31. Approximately half of part II of the annual report questionnaire is devoted to questions related to reducing the supply of illicit drugs. Questions 16 to 37 ask about domestic supply reduction activities, cross-border and international cooperation, international technical cooperation and the control of precursors.

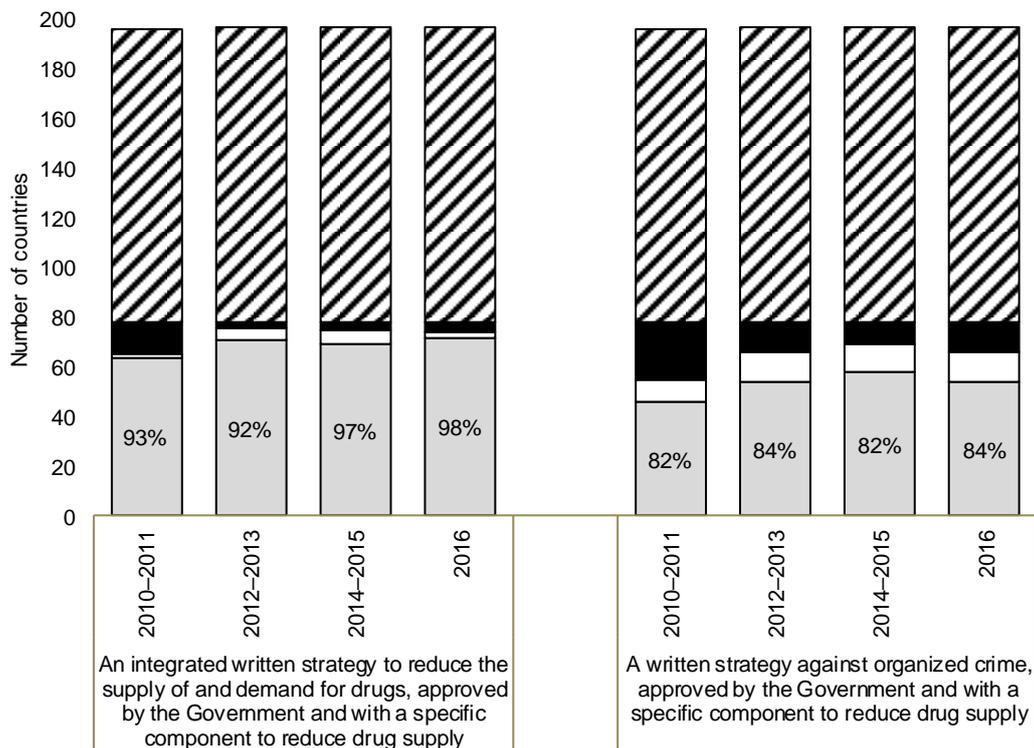
A. Domestic supply reduction activities

32. The number of responding Member States with approved strategies on combating organized crime has remained stable across the periods of analysis, and a

slightly increased number of Member States reported having approved strategies on reducing the supply of drugs (see figure 17).

Figure 17

Number of countries utilizing various measures to reduce drug supply



□ Yes □ No ■ No response to question □ Part II of questionnaire not submitted for all bienniums

Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

33. For each of the four bienniums, over 90 per cent of responding Member States indicated that they had an integrated written strategy on reducing the supply of and demand for illicit drugs, with a specific component on reducing drug supply. Only one country reported not having such a strategy in place in 2016.

34. The percentage of Member States with approved written strategies on combating organized crime with a specific component on reducing drug supply remained stable throughout the period — about 80–85 per cent — but differences were observed at the regional level. In Europe, Africa and the Middle East, 70–80 per cent of Member States reported having such a strategy in place. Those regions seem to rely more on integrated strategies on reducing both the demand for and the supply of illicit drugs, than they do on strategies focused on combating organized crime. In Europe, there was an increase in the period 2010–2016 in the proportion of Member States with a strategy in place on combating organized crime that included a specific component on reducing drug supply. Several countries that did not have such strategies in place in the period 2010–2011 subsequently reported having them in place in 2016.

35. Responses indicate that the monitoring of precursor chemicals remains at the core of drug supply reduction activities, with almost all responding Member States being engaged in it for all four bienniums (see figure 18). Similarly, monitoring of amphetamine-type stimulants was undertaken in between 92 and 98 per cent of responding Member States throughout the period.

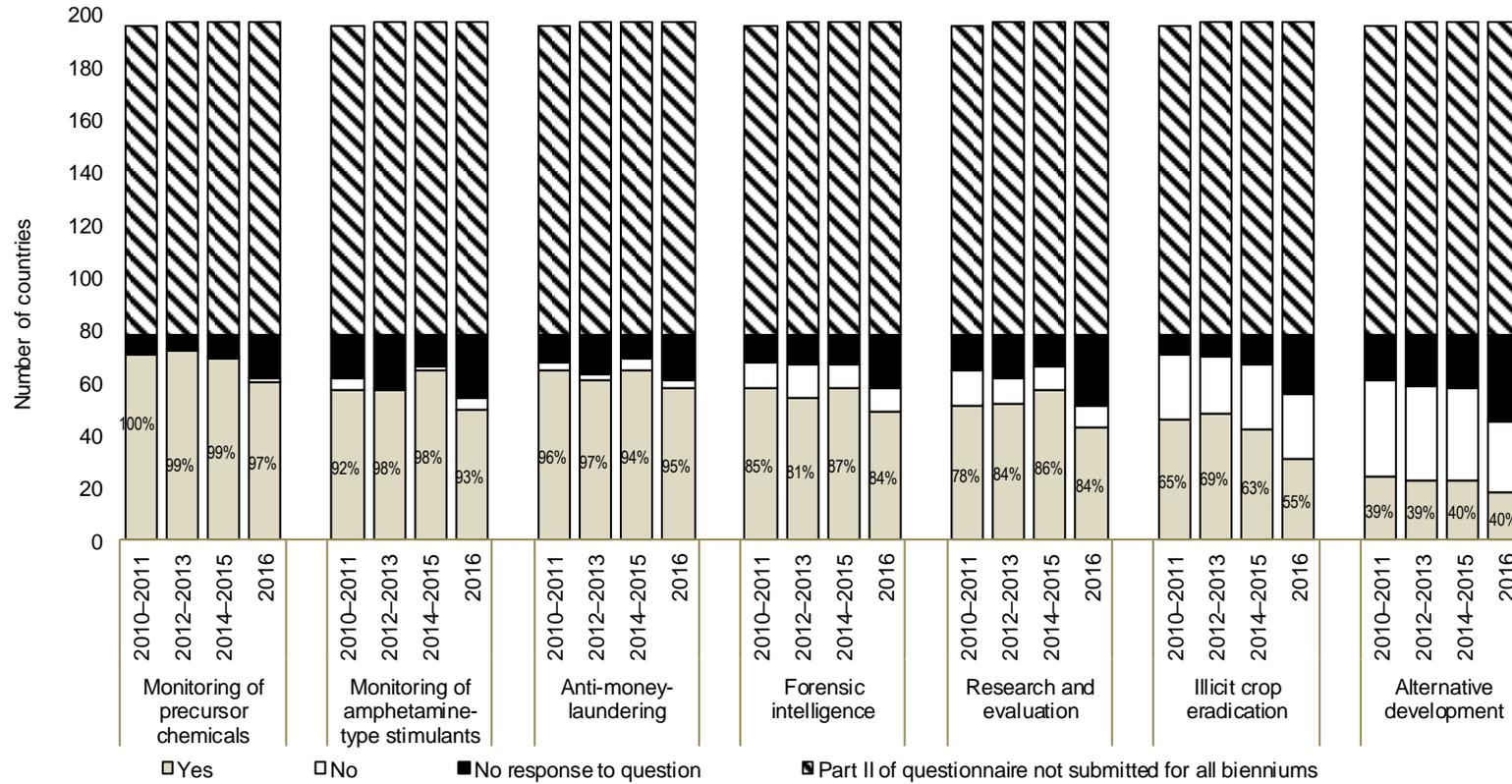
36. A total of 95 per cent of responding Member States reported actively engaging in activities to counter money-laundering in 2016, a proportion that has remained stable since 2010.

37. About 85 per cent of Member States actively engaged in research and evaluation during the periods 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016, an increase over the period 2010–2011. In Europe, the proportion of Member States reporting being actively engaged in such activities has been lower than in other regions throughout the period 2010–2016.

38. About 84 per cent of responding Member States reported having engaged in forensic intelligence activities related to drug supply reduction in 2016 (see figure 18). That percentage remained relatively stable throughout the period 2010–2016. Despite the fact that a high proportion of Member States considers forensic science and evidence an important pillar in the fight against drug trafficking and production, that proportion did not increase over the period 2010–2016, based on the responses received.

39. Activities addressing illicit crops, including eradication and alternative development programmes, have been reported by a smaller proportion of Member States, because countries are affected by illicit cultivation to varying degrees. In 2016, about 55 per cent of Member States reported actively engaging in the eradication of illicit crops, a decrease from between 65 per cent and 70 per cent during the periods 2010–2011 and 2012–2013. About 40 per cent of responding Member States reported being engaged in the implementation of alternative development programmes during the period 2010–2016. Alternative development programmes have been reported predominantly by Member States in the Americas, Asia and North Africa and the Middle East, with over 50 per cent of responding Member States in those regions reporting such activities during the period. However, the few responding countries in sub-Saharan Africa rely more heavily on activities for the eradication of illicit crops in order to control cultivation. Western and Central Europe and Oceania show lower proportions of Member States engaged in such activities, being less affected by the cultivation of opium poppy and coca bush or the production of cannabis resin.

Figure 18
Number of countries reporting that they had actively engaged in various drug supply reduction activities

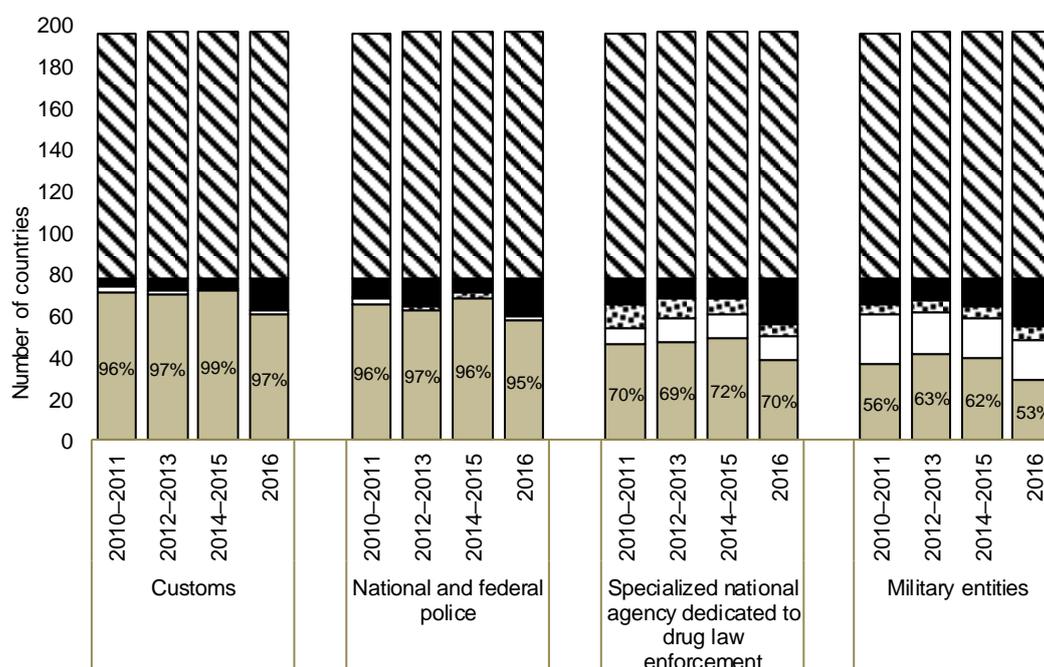


Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

40. During 2016, over 95 per cent of responding Member States indicated that customs and national or federal police were mandated to reduce drug supply, with that proportion remaining between 95 per cent and 99 per cent throughout the four cycles (see figure 19). In 2016, a total of 70 per cent of responding Member States had established specialized national agencies dedicated to drug law enforcement with mandates to reduce drug supply, a percentage that has remained stable at the global level. However, in Europe, this percentage is notably lower, with about half of responding Member States reporting not having a specialized national agency with a mandate to reduce drug supply.

Figure 19

Number of countries reporting that they had mandated various law enforcement agencies to reduce drug supply



■ Part II of questionnaire not submitted for all bienniums ■ No response to question ▣ Not applicable □ No □ Yes

Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

41. In the Americas, all responding Member States reported having such an agency in 2016. In Asia and Oceania, the proportion of Member States with a specialized national agency with a mandate to reduce drug supply decreased from 94 per cent in the periods 2010–2011 and 2012–2013, to 73 per cent in 2016. A few countries reported having such agencies in place during the first two periods, but not having them in 2016.

42. In 2016, 53 per cent of responding Member States had military entities mandated to reduce drug supply, but that institutional set-up varies among the different regions. Although that percentage is notably higher in Africa, the Middle East and the Americas, varying mostly between 70 per cent and 90 per cent throughout the period, only about 40 per cent of Member States in Europe rely on military entities to combat drug supply. All regions showed a decrease in the proportion of countries in which entities are mandated to reduce drug supply in 2016, compared with the previous three cycles. The types of coordinating agencies reported by Member States varied and can be grouped in four broad categories: specialized national drug agencies and committees, police and military services, public ministries and organized crime bureaux.

43. In 2016, about 84 per cent of responding Member States reported having an entity responsible for coordinating the activities of agencies mandated to reduce drug supply. That proportion remained relatively stable throughout the period 2010–2016.

In Europe, almost 30 per cent of responding Member States reported not having a coordinating agency during each of the analysed cycles.

44. As regards anti-corruption measures, all six types are increasingly being applied by Member States, with the percentage of responding countries that implement each measure rising in all cases compared with the period 2010–2011.

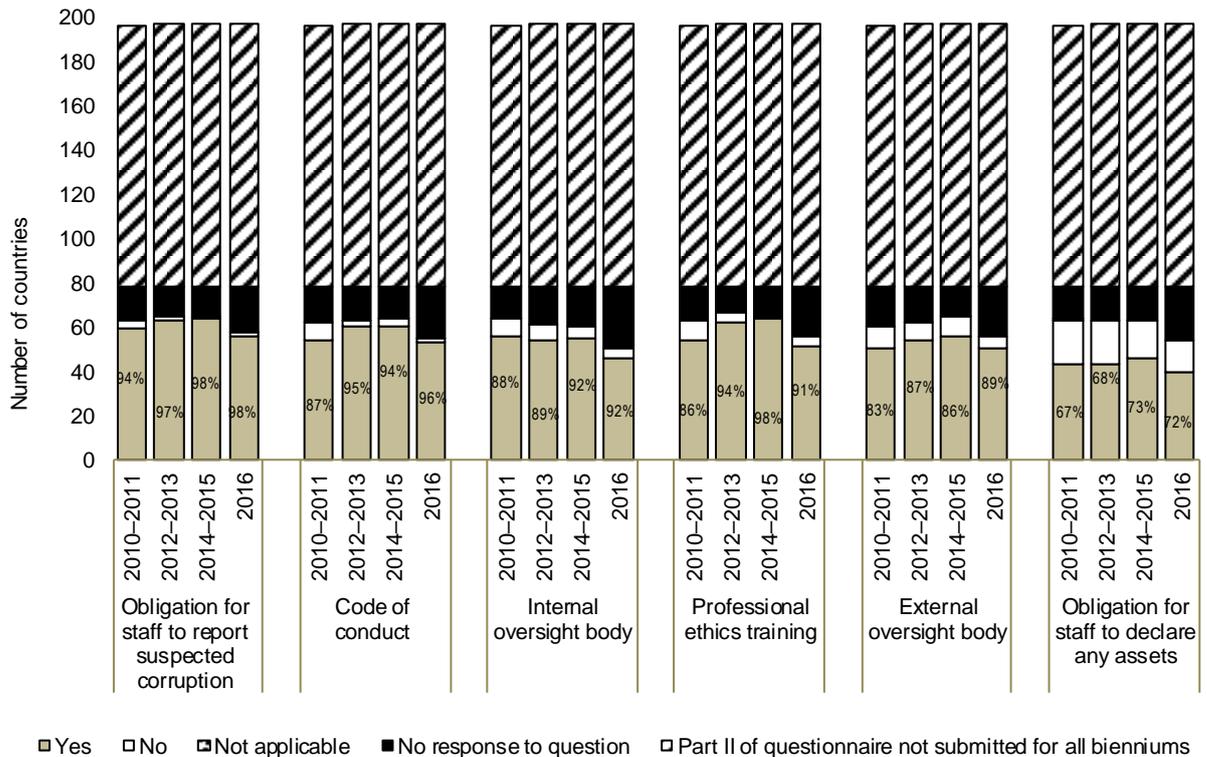
45. In 2016, all responding Member States had some set of measures in place to address the threat posed by corruption within domestic law enforcement agencies with a mandate to reduce drug supply (see figure 20).

46. The most common measures, seen in about 90 per cent of reporting countries, included the obligation for staff to report suspected incidents of corruption, the existence of a code of conduct, professional ethics training and the existence of an internal or external oversight body. While professional ethics and training of staff is a very common practice, virtually all Member States that reported not having such initiatives in place throughout the four cycles are located in Europe. The use of internal oversight bodies is equally widespread across the globe, with about 90 per cent of Member States reporting such measures in all regions. European countries seem to rely less on external oversight bodies than other regions. The proportion of Member States in that region that reported such bodies increased from under 75 per cent in the period 2010–2011 to about 80 per cent in recent years.

47. In addition, over 70 per cent of Member States reported having in place an obligation for staff to declare any assets. That obligation is more often reported by Member States in the Americas, Asia and Oceania (85–100 per cent of countries in those regions) than in Europe, Africa and the Middle East (about 60 per cent).

Figure 20

Measures adopted and institutions established to address the threat of corruption within domestic law enforcement agencies mandated to reduce drug supply



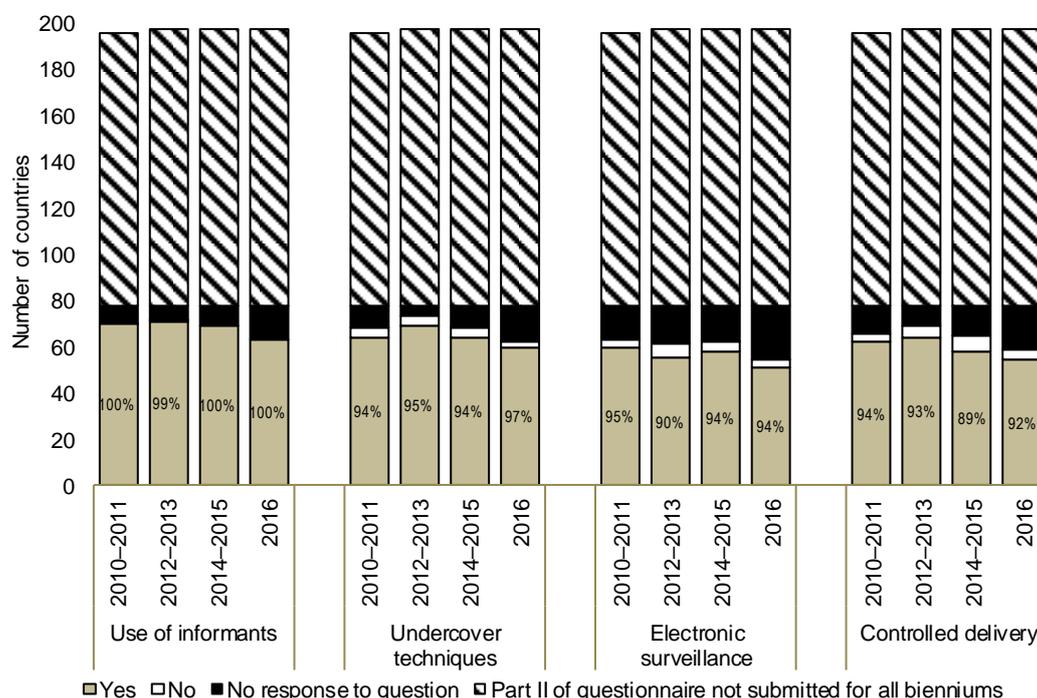
Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

48. Across all four cycles, all responding Member States allowed for the use of special investigative techniques by law enforcement agencies (see figure 21). Over 90 per cent reported that law enforcement agencies used informants, undercover techniques, electronic surveillance and controlled delivery in the periods 2010–2011,

2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016. Some Member States reported employing other methods, such as witness protection, financial or asset tracing, interception of telecommunications and establishing open telephone lines for the general public to report suspicious behaviour.

Figure 21

Investigative techniques used by law enforcement agencies to gather evidence



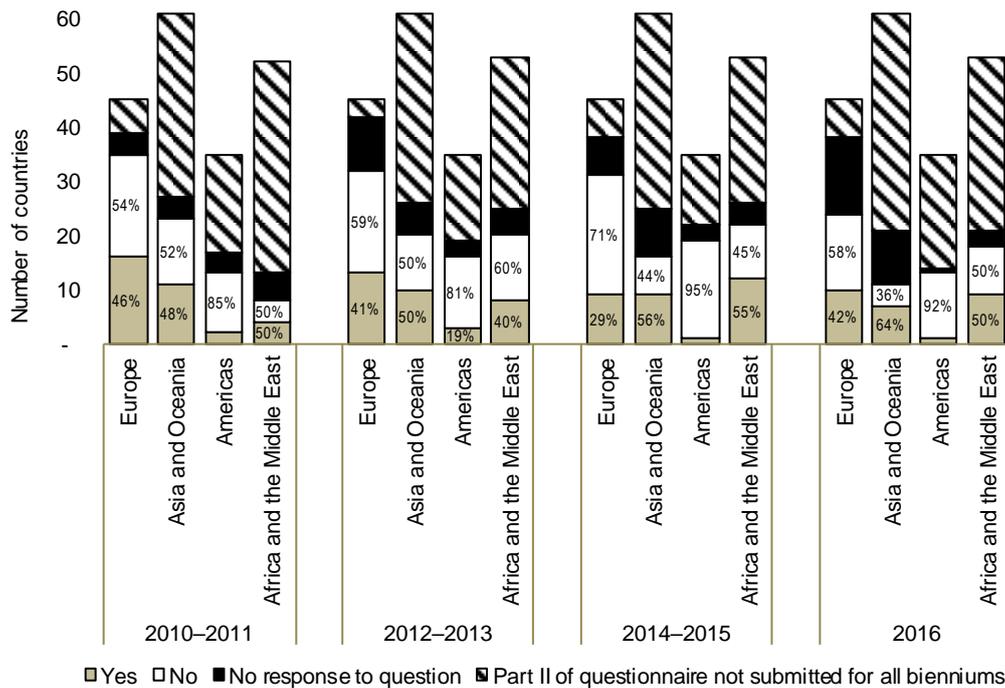
Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

49. Approximately 42 per cent of responding Member States reported having a system in place to monitor the sale over the Internet of pharmaceutical preparations containing narcotic drugs or psychotropic substances that are under international control across the cycles, with the exception of the period 2014–2015, when that proportion dropped to 34 per cent. That decrease was mainly a consequence of a decrease in European countries. However, data suggest that, in 2016, that proportion increased both in Europe and globally to the levels previously observed.

50. The proportion of Member States in Africa, Asia, Europe, the Middle East and Oceania that reported having such systems remained for the most part between 40 per cent and 60 per cent across all four cycles (see figure 22). Such systems are significantly less common in the Americas, where only 5–20 per cent of responding countries reported having them throughout the period 2010–2016.

Figure 22

Existence or absence of systems to monitor the sale over the Internet of pharmaceutical preparations containing narcotic drugs or psychotropic substances that are under international control, by region



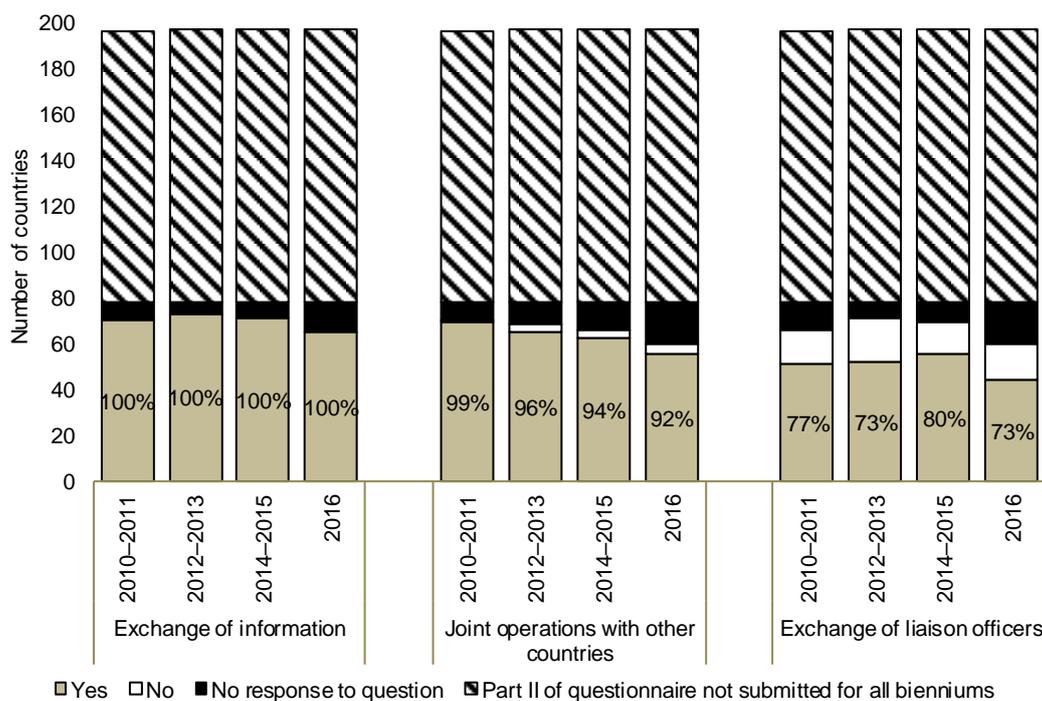
Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question. All countries that responded in a specific biennium are counted, regardless of whether they responded in the other bienniums.

B. Cross-border and international cooperation

51. Member States continued to engage in a wide range of cross-border activities and international cooperation to reduce the supply of illicit drugs (see figure 23). Across all four periods, all responding Member States reported that their law enforcement agencies exchanged information with their counterparts in other countries. In 2016, the vast majority (92 per cent) of responding Member States engaged in joint operations, with only five reporting not doing so. While 100 per cent of source and transit countries reported carrying out joint operations in the period 2010–2011, that proportion decreased to less than 90 per cent in 2016. About three quarters of responding Member States reported exchanging liaison officers during that period. At the global level, between 70–80 per cent of countries reported exchanging liaison officers; however, that proportion was between 80 and 90 per cent among source and transit countries. That practice, however, varies from region to region, being less common in Africa and the Middle East (from 55 to 70 per cent of Member States) than it is elsewhere. Countries also reported having organized study visits, joint operational meetings, joint controlled deliveries, joint border surveillance and joint training activities.

52. The results of such cooperation included the recovery of large amounts of heroin, cocaine, amphetamine-type stimulants and assets from organized criminal groups; closer cross-border cooperation between Member States, including successful bilateral operations and the efficient exchange of information, in combating drug trafficking; the training of staff; the establishment of joint operation and investigation teams; better executed controlled deliveries; and the dismantling of trafficking syndicates. The majority of examples of joint operations involved neighbouring countries. However, examples of interregional cooperation were also provided.

Figure 23
**Activities to support cross-border cooperation between law enforcement agencies
 in different countries**



Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

53. A specific result of international judicial cooperation, both bilateral and multilateral, is the extradition of drug offenders. The proportion of responding Member States that reported extraditing drug offenders decreased from over 60 per cent in the period 2010–2011 to 51 per cent and 53 per cent in the periods 2014–2015 and 2016, respectively. At the regional level, that type of cooperation is most commonly reported by countries in the Americas, where between 70 per cent and 90 per cent of Member States reported putting the measure into place throughout the period 2010–2016. In Asia and Oceania, the proportion of Member States reporting the extradition of drug offenders was the lowest among all regions, decreasing from about 30 per cent in the period 2010–2011 to 0 per cent in 2016, with no countries in the region reporting such activities.

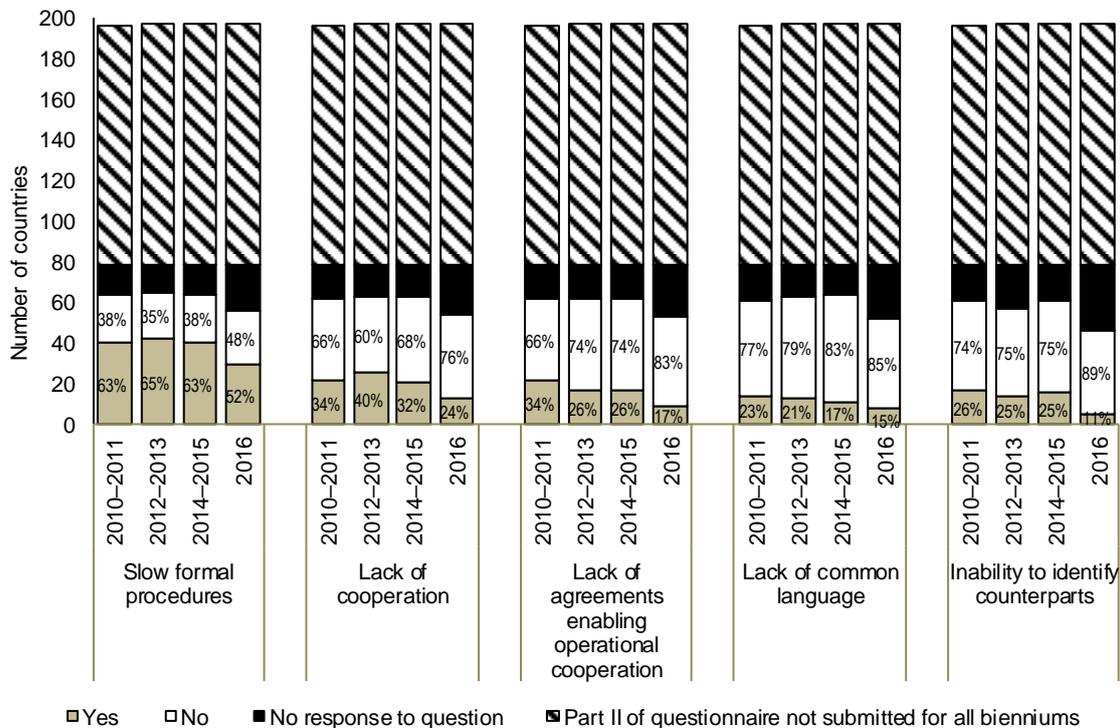
54. While cross-border cooperation between law enforcement agencies occurred in all responding Member States, many still faced challenges in cooperating with their counterparts in other countries (see figure 24). The most commonly encountered problem was the existence of lengthy formal procedures, an issue that was identified by more than half of the countries reporting on such issues across all four cycles (52 per cent in 2016). In 2016, about one quarter of Member States reported encountering a lack of cooperation. Between 10 and 20 per cent of countries highlighted the lack of agreements enabling operational cooperation, the lack of a common language to communicate efficiently and the inability to identify counterparts as the most pressing problems faced when cooperating with other Member States. It is important to note that for each of the five types of difficulties measured, the proportion of Member States reporting them decreased in 2016 with respect to the previous three periods, which suggests that the efforts made by countries have facilitated international cooperation over the period 2010–2016.²

² Caution should be taken when interpreting this result since responses from only one year (2016) are available for the biennium 2016–2017, making these data less reliable. The lack of data for both years of the biennium can also explain the high number of both questions to which no responses or negative answers were provided.

55. Regarding challenges found in cooperating with counterparts, countries in the Americas and in Europe were more likely than countries in other regions to report finding legal procedures too slow. Member States in the Americas, Asia and Oceania were more likely to report a lack of cooperation among countries. A lack of agreements on operational cooperation and inability to identify the corresponding counterparts were less often reported by Member States in Africa and the Middle East than in other regions. Finally, the lack of a common language in which to communicate was found to be an important issue, especially in countries in Asia and Oceania.

Figure 24

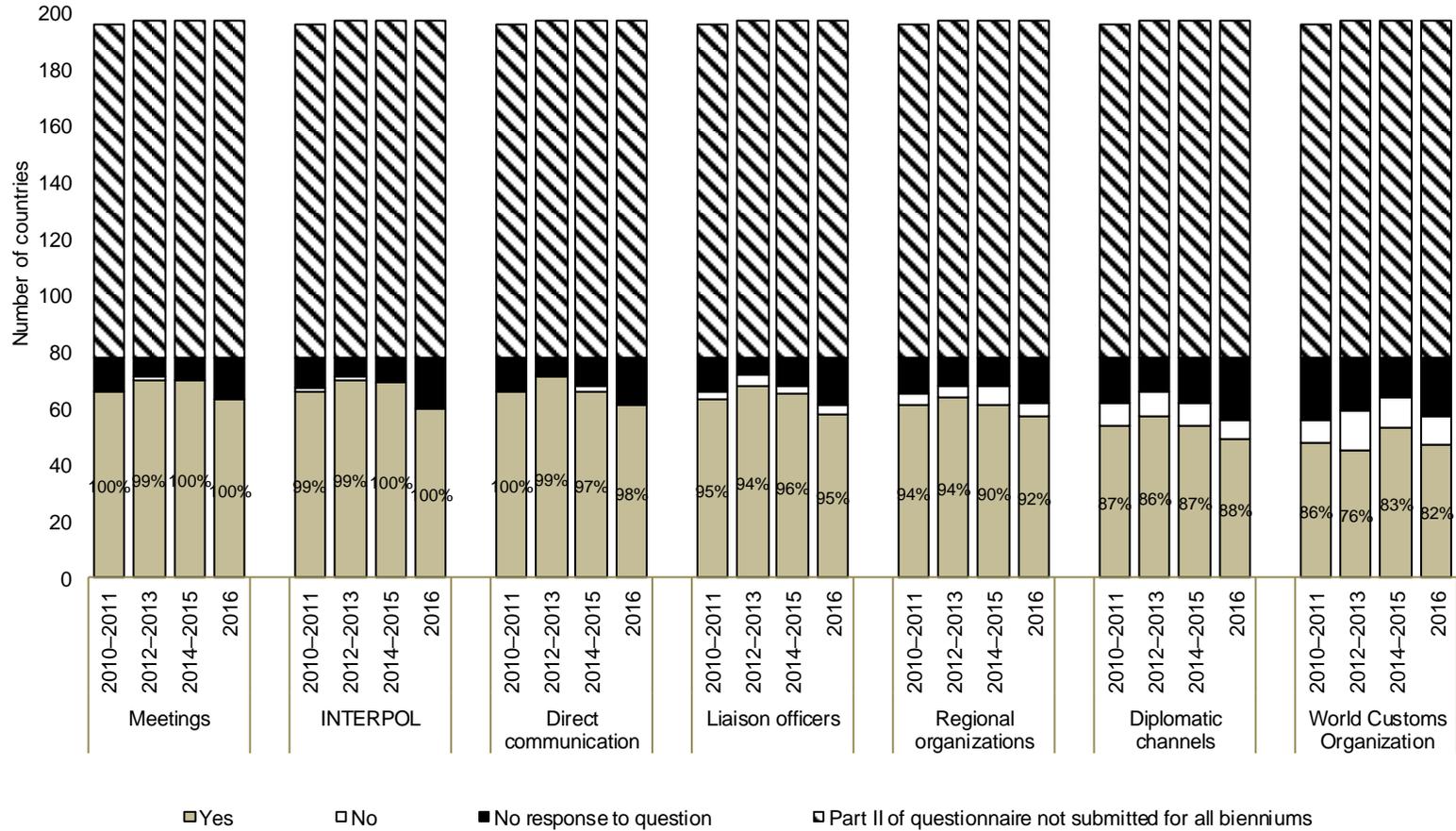
Problems encountered by judicial or law enforcement agencies in cooperating with counterparts in other countries



Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

56. A range of communication platforms continued to be used extensively to exchange information between law enforcement agencies (see figure 25). The vast majority of responding Member States use multiple communication platforms, including both formal and informal channels. The most common ones included regional and international meetings, direct communication between law enforcement agencies, the International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL), liaison officers, regional organizations, the World Customs Organization and diplomatic channels. The level of usage of most of those channels remained relatively stable between 2010 and 2016. A total of 80–100 per cent of responding Member States reported having used them. The use of regional organizations as a channel for communication seems to have decreased slightly over the period 2010–2016, with a higher number of responding Member States reporting not using such channels in the periods 2014–2015 and 2016, compared with the periods 2010–2011 and 2012–2013. Other channels reported by Member States included the European Police Office (Europol), the Mediterranean Area Anti-Drug Enforcement Coordination Centre (Centre de Coordination de la Lutte Anti-Drogue), the International Narcotics Control Board and the Regional Intelligence Liaison Office.

Figure 25
Entities or channels used by law enforcement agencies to exchange information with counterparts in other countries



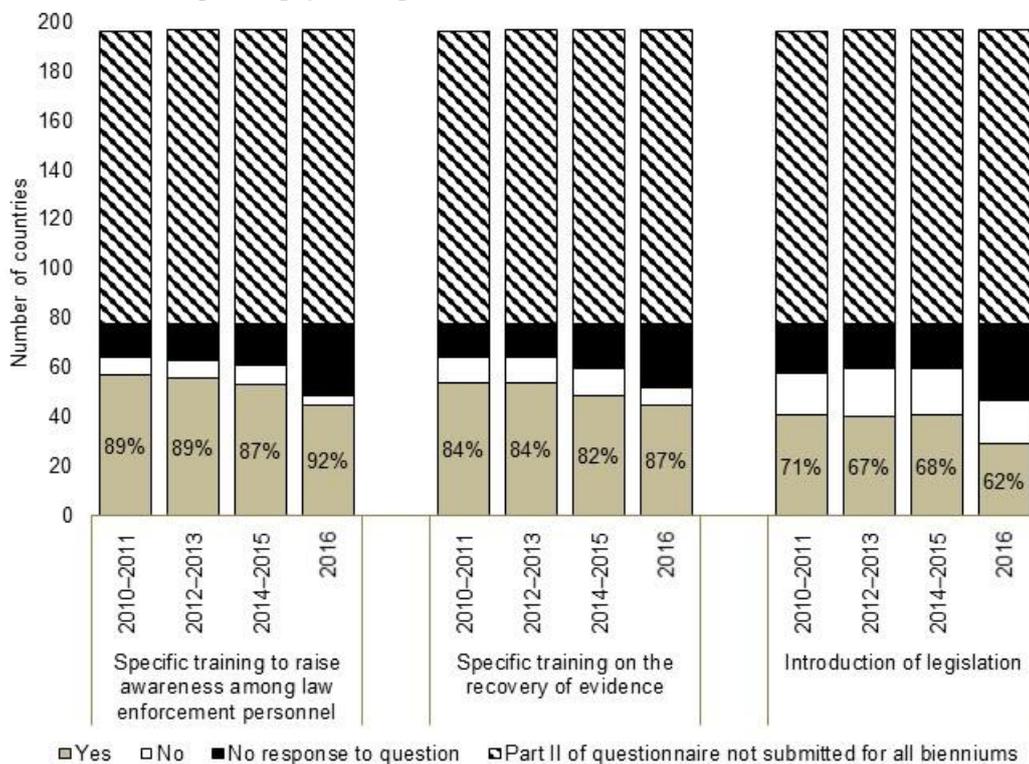
Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

57. The vast majority of responding Member States indicated that steps had been taken to meet the challenges in combating trafficking in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances arising from new technologies, including computers, mobile telephones, the Internet and the dark web. In 2016, those steps included organizing specific training sessions to raise awareness among law enforcement personnel (reported by 92 per cent of Member States) and specific training on the recovery of evidence (87 per cent) (see figure 26). Less frequently reported was the introduction of legislation to deal with those challenges (62 per cent of countries in 2016). Member States in Asia and Oceania were more prone to introducing new legislation than Member States in other regions, with about 85–95 per cent of countries in those regions having taken such steps during the period 2010–2016.

58. While the high non-response rate to this question among Member States in 2016 indicated that caution should be taken when interpreting the results, data suggest that, over the analysed period (2010–2016), Member States have focused increasingly on training initiatives in order to face the challenges arising from such technologies.

Figure 26

Steps taken to meet challenges arising from new technologies in combating traffic in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances



Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

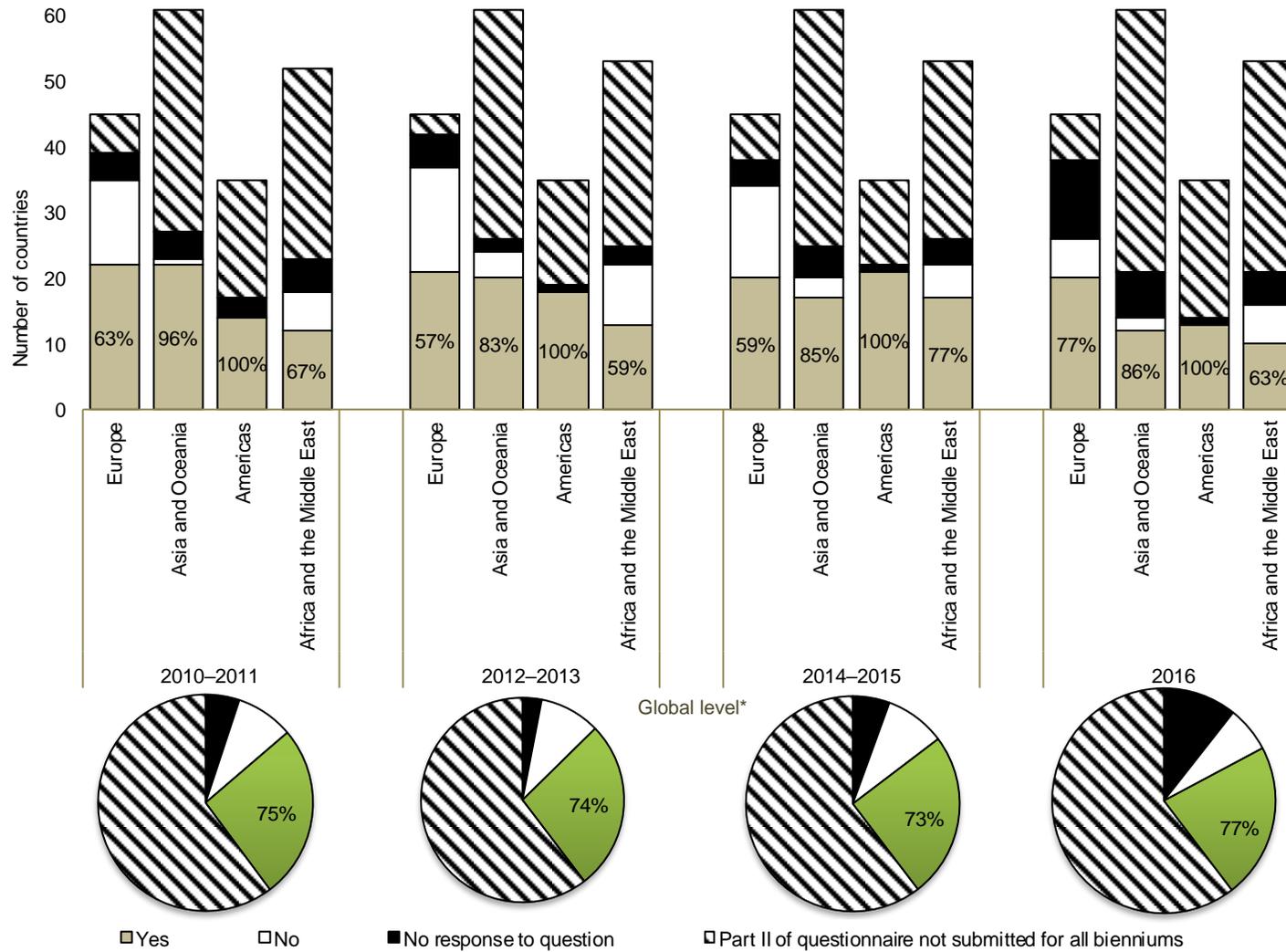
C. International technical cooperation

59. Nearly three quarters of responding Member States reported receiving technical assistance in the area of drug supply reduction from another country or from an international organization during the period 2010–2016, with the proportion remaining stable since 2010 (see figure 27). While all responding countries in the Americas reported receiving technical assistance across all four cycles, the proportion of countries reporting such activities in Africa, Europe and the Middle East varied between 57 and 77 per cent.

60. Member States in the Americas, Asia and Oceania reported having received such assistance to a greater extent than their counterparts in Africa, Europe and the Middle East.

61. The most common forms of assistance reported to have been received by Member States in 2016 were training (95 per cent) and data-sharing (83 per cent) (see figure 28). Although the proportion of Member States that reported having received training and financial support increased across all four cycles, the provision of data-sharing, equipment and software assistance has remained relatively stable. Resource-based assistance was less common, with Member States reporting the provision of equipment (62 per cent), financial support (53 per cent) and software (37 per cent) in 2016. About 30 per cent of Member States in Africa and the Middle East reported receiving assistance in the form of software or financial support across all four cycles, and less than 60 per cent reported receiving equipment.

Figure 27
Member States that received technical assistance in the area of drug supply reduction, by region



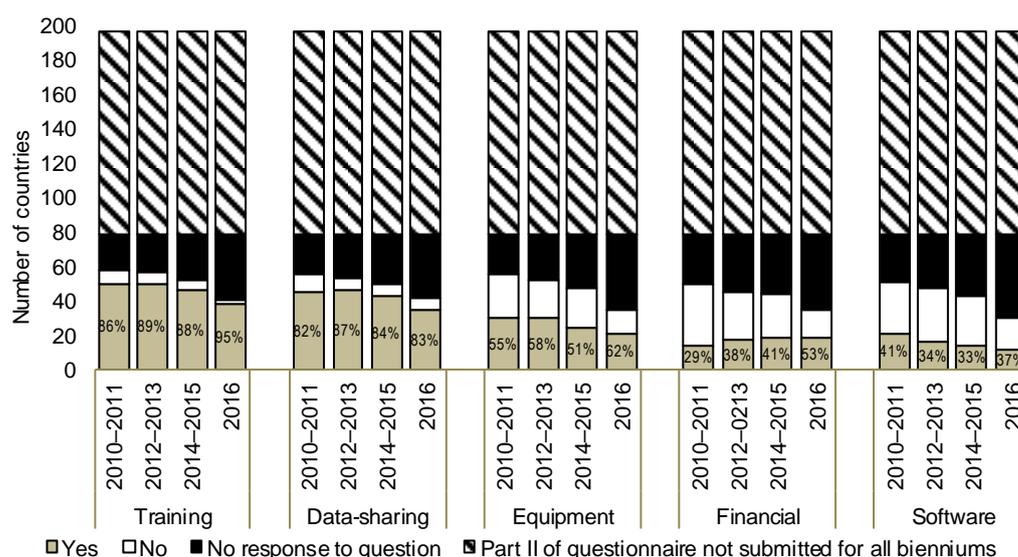
Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

* Figures at the global level are calculated using only the Member States that responded to the annual report questionnaire for all four periods. The regional disaggregation, however, includes all Member States that responded to part II of the questionnaire for a specific period, regardless of whether they responded to the others.

62. At the global level, responses indicated that other countries were the most common source of assistance, followed by international organizations, including the United Nations. In Europe, international organizations excluding the United Nations were the most common source of assistance, with about three quarters of Member States from that region reporting assistance in the period 2014–2016. Only one in four countries in that region reported receiving assistance from the United Nations in the last three bienniums. The United Nations was the most commonly cited source of assistance in Africa and the Middle East. Three quarters of Member States reported such activities in 2016, while 58 per cent reported other countries as a source, and 44 per cent identified other international organizations. In the Americas, assistance was mainly reported to be bilateral assistance from other countries, even though there was also a high rate of reporting on assistance by the United Nations and other international organizations.

Figure 28

Member States that received technical assistance in the area of drug supply reduction, by type

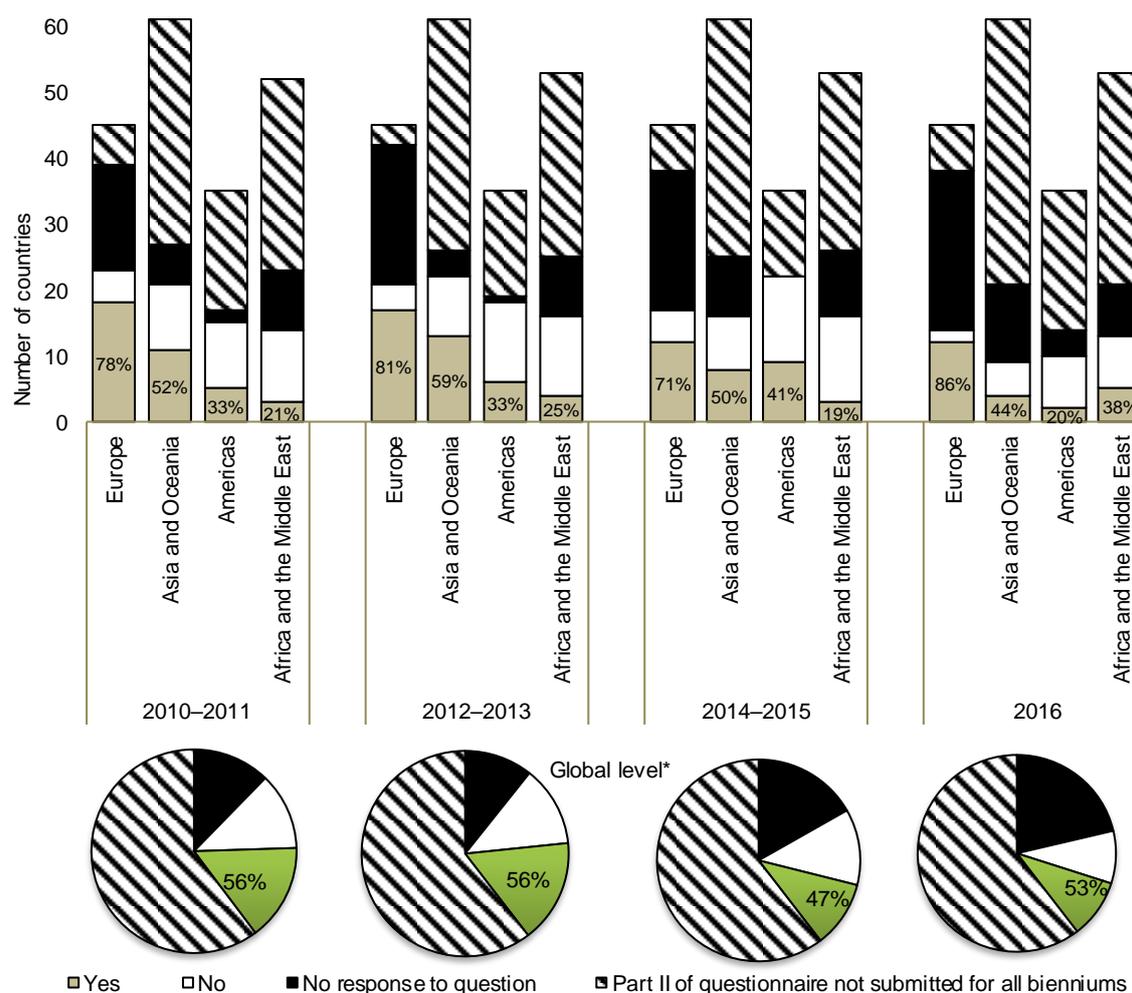


Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

63. In 2016, about 53 per cent of Member States reported that the assistance received was sufficient for their needs, a proportion that remained stable across all four cycles (see figure 29); nearly 50 per cent of technical assistance needs were still not being met. At the regional level, only about one third of responding countries in the Americas reported that the assistance provided met their needs, while in Asia and Oceania, that proportion varied between roughly 45 and 60 per cent.

64. Africa, Europe and the Middle East were the regions that reported the lowest levels of technical assistance received. However, although about 80 per cent of Member States in Europe indicated that the assistance received was sufficient for their needs, that proportion was notably low in Africa and the Middle East, varying between 19 and 38 per cent during the period 2010–2016.

Figure 29
Member States that received assistance that was sufficient for their needs, by region



Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

* Figures at the global level are calculated using only the Member States that responded to the annual report questionnaire for all four periods. The regional disaggregation, however, includes all Member States that responded to part II of the questionnaire for a specific period, regardless of whether they responded to the others.

D. Control of precursor chemicals

65. During the period 2010–2016, 90 per cent of responding Member States consistently reported that they had compiled a list of national companies authorized to manufacture, distribute and trade in precursors. In terms of cooperating with those companies, about 25 per cent of Member States reported adopting new measures with the collaboration of relevant industries in the field in 2016, a proportion that declined from 35 per cent during the first two periods. Measures adopted in 2016 included the following: the dissemination of lists of controlled substances to companies; the establishment of a code of conduct and development of guidelines for operators; and the establishment of legislation requiring companies to report the transactions of controlled substances.

66. While the vast majority of responding Member States reported engaging in monitoring precursor chemicals, that proportion decreased slightly across the

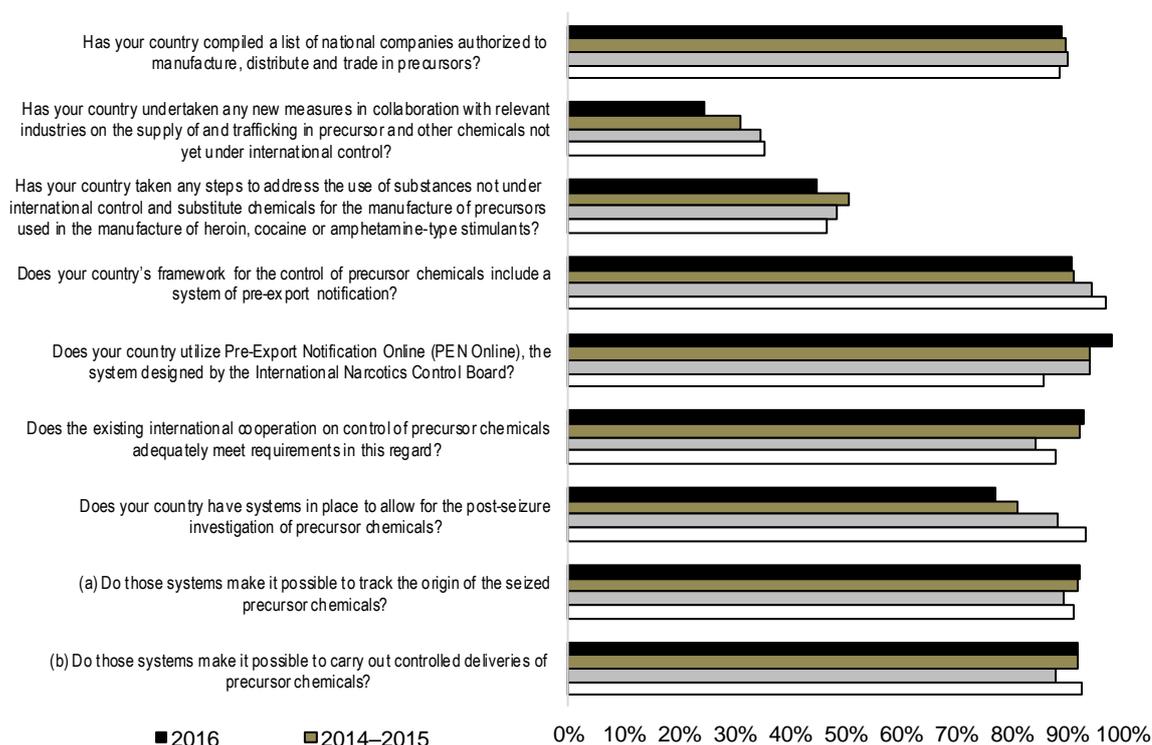
four cycles, from 100 per cent of countries reporting such activities in the period 2010–2011 to 97 per cent in 2016 (see figure 18). Only one in four responding Member States reported having undertaken new measures in collaboration with relevant industries on the supply of and trafficking in precursor chemicals in 2016, a proportion that decreased from 36 per cent in the period 2010–2011 (see figure 30). That proportion is even lower among responding countries in Africa, Europe and the Middle East. Similarly, a decreasing proportion of responding Member States reported having systems in place to allow for post-seizure investigations into precursor chemicals. While 94 per cent of responding countries reported having such systems in place in the period 2010–2011, that proportion declined to 81 per cent in the period 2014–2015 and then to 77 per cent in 2016. Responses indicated that over 90 per cent of those systems made it possible to track the origin and carry out controlled deliveries of precursor chemicals.

67. The proportion of countries reporting that existing international cooperation in the control of precursor chemicals adequately met requirements increased from 85 per cent in the period 2010–2011 to 88 per cent in the period 2012–2013, and then to 93 per cent in the period 2014–2016. An increasing proportion of Member States have been utilizing Pre-Export Notification Online (PEN Online). While it seems that an increasing effort is being undertaken to support the monitoring of precursor chemicals at the international level, there are still opportunities for further enhancements at the domestic level.

68. In line with the noted decrease in collaboration between national authorities and relevant industry partners, the proportion of Member States that reported including a system of pre-export notification in their frameworks for the control of precursor chemicals decreased to about 90 per cent in the period 2014–2017, compared with over 95 per cent in the period 2010–2013. About 98 per cent of responding countries reported using PEN Online, an increase from the 86 per cent who reported doing so in the period 2010–2011.

69. Between 45 and 50 per cent of responding Member States reported having taken steps to address the use of both substances not under international control and substitute chemicals for the manufacture of precursors that are used in the manufacture of heroin, cocaine or amphetamine-type stimulants in the period 2010–2016. In 2016, those steps primarily included adding new psychoactive substances and other substances to the list of controlled substances, and coordinated actions with the chemical industry.

Figure 30
Percentage of Member States that submitted part II of the annual report questionnaire in the periods 2010–2011, 2012–2013, 2014–2015 and 2016, and answered “yes” to the following questions regarding control of precursor chemicals



Note: Percentages are calculated on the basis of the number of countries responding to the question.

E. Alternative development

70. Across all four cycles, an estimated 40 per cent of responding Member States consistently reported their involvement in the implementation of alternative development programmes, either on a domestic level or by providing support to other countries affected by illicit crop cultivation. The majority of Member States with such programmes reported that they had also assessed the impact of those programmes in relation to the Millennium Development Goals, in particular those dealing with the eradication of extreme poverty (Goal 1), access to primary education (Goal 2), gender equality and the empowerment of women (Goal 3), reduction of child mortality (Goal 4), improvement of maternal health (Goal 5) and environmental sustainability (Goal 7).

71. According to the responding Member States, alternative development programmes are predominantly implemented in the Americas, Asia, the Middle East and North Africa, with over 50 per cent of Member States in those regions reporting such activities across all four cycles.

72. Countries in Western and Central Europe reported supporting alternative development initiatives in other countries.

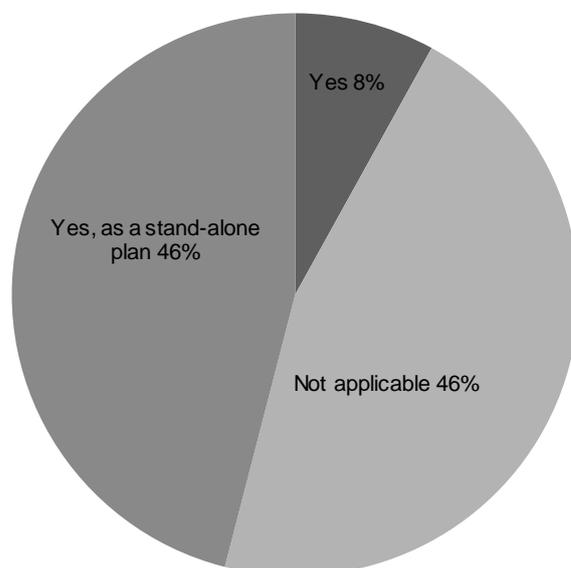
73. A number of responding Member States, although seriously affected by illicit crop cultivation, did not report on the implementation of alternative development programmes or submitted incomplete or missing information. As a result, it is difficult to have a clear picture of the efforts made in the implementation of such programmes on a global scale.

74. Most of the Member States that reported having national alternative development plans and programmes indicated that they were stand-alone plans

(see figure 31) and that more than one ministry was involved in the national coordinating body. Ministries of agriculture, education, social affairs, the interior, justice and economic affairs were frequently cited. Member States consistently reported during the reporting cycles that measures were being taken to involve relevant stakeholders at all stages of alternative development programmes, highlighting in particular the involvement of the beneficiary farmer communities.

Figure 31

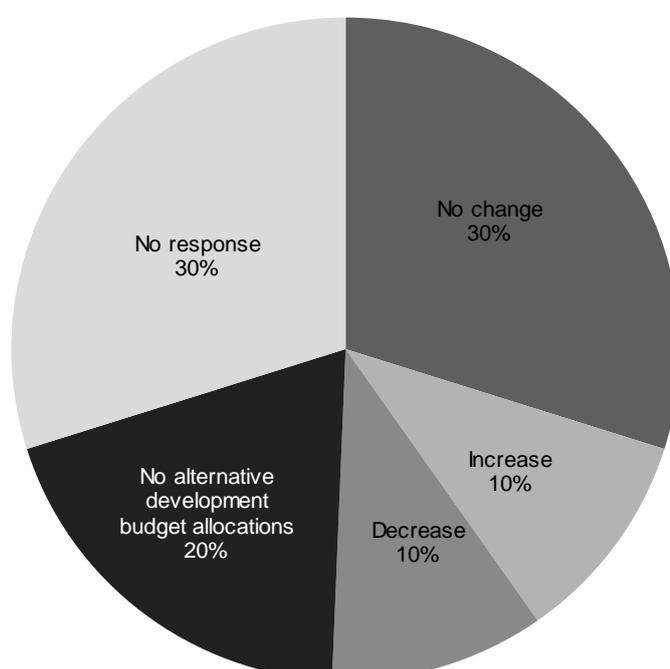
Member States' responses to the question on the presence of national alternative development strategies to address the illicit cultivation of coca bush, opium poppy or cannabis plant



75. Of the Member States that provided a response to the question on the budgetary allocations for such programmes, most reported no change in the allocation of national budgets. The information was similar across all four cycles (see figure 32).

Figure 32

Member States' responses to changes in budgetary allocations



76. Across all four cycles, most of the responding Member States reported that a gender aspect was included in their alternative development strategies and/or programmes and that the participation of women in such programmes was central to their successful implementation. Some Member States reported that national strategies included the promotion of equal access to and ownership of land, financing options and the provision of technical services to both men and women. Some reported that projects promoted and strengthened women's organizations to support decision-making and to deliver training on income-generating activities, in line with national alternative development strategies.

77. Several Member States reported that alternative development projects helped in the reduction of illicit crop cultivation and/or the chances of illicit crops being sown in project implementation sites.

78. Some Member States reported that they had undertaken impact evaluation studies of the programmes to better understand the impact of implemented activities, while others reported using human development indicators to review the impact of the programmes. Some Member States reported that the effectiveness of alternative development programmes on domestic illicit crop cultivation levels could not be fully assessed because the incidence of such cultivation was low in areas where the programmes were implemented.

79. In the period 2016–2017, for the first time, alternative development was reported as an important component of national peacebuilding processes.

80. Compared with the previous cycles, in which few Member States reported on the inclusion of environmental conservation components in alternative development programmes, many Member States provided extensive replies on environmental considerations, in the current cycle, with a particularly strong focus on environmental sustainability and sustainable rural economies. Measures reported during the current biennium included reforestation practices, soil restoration practices, the use of biofertilizers, diversification of crops, organic production and, to a lesser extent, the promotion of ecotourism.

81. Member States reiterated the key role of the private sector in promoting and gaining access to national and international markets for alternative development products. Several Member States reported selling alternative development products, with some doing so on the domestic market and others on international markets.

82. Some Member States reported on ongoing cooperation initiatives in the area of alternative development with neighbouring countries or countries from other regions and highlighted programmes fostering the exchange of experiences and information.

83. Some Member States reported that, as long as infrastructure and other necessary conditions were in place, the marketing of alternative development products was not as big a challenge as the competitiveness of the market and the availability of adequate packaging to ensure quality and consistency for buyers.

84. To gain access to markets for alternative development products, some Member States reported undertaking negotiations with neighbouring countries to ease import quotas and introduce special quotas for such products, including VAT reduction and other relevant exemptions.

V. Countering money-laundering and promoting judicial cooperation to enhance international cooperation

A. Countering money-laundering

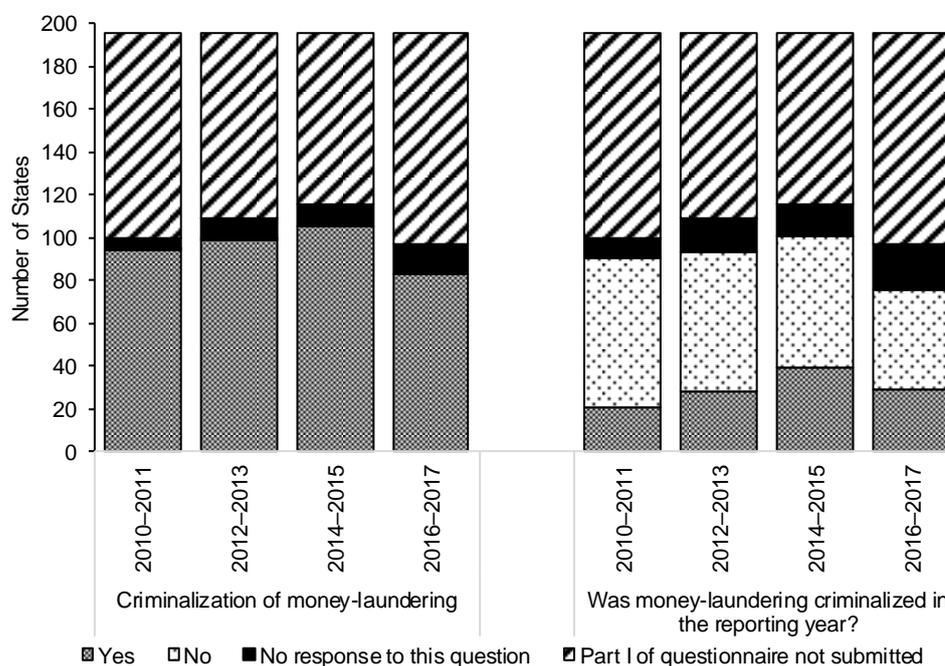
1. Legislative framework and criminalization

85. The international community has developed international standards to combat money-laundering and Member States are called upon to criminalize

money-laundering by establishing robust and comprehensive legal regimes. Some Member States limit the predicate offences to drug trafficking and perhaps a few other crimes. Other Member States have an exhaustive list of predicate offences set forth in their legislation. Still others define predicate offences generically to include all crimes, all serious crimes or all crimes subject to a defined penalty threshold.

Figure 33

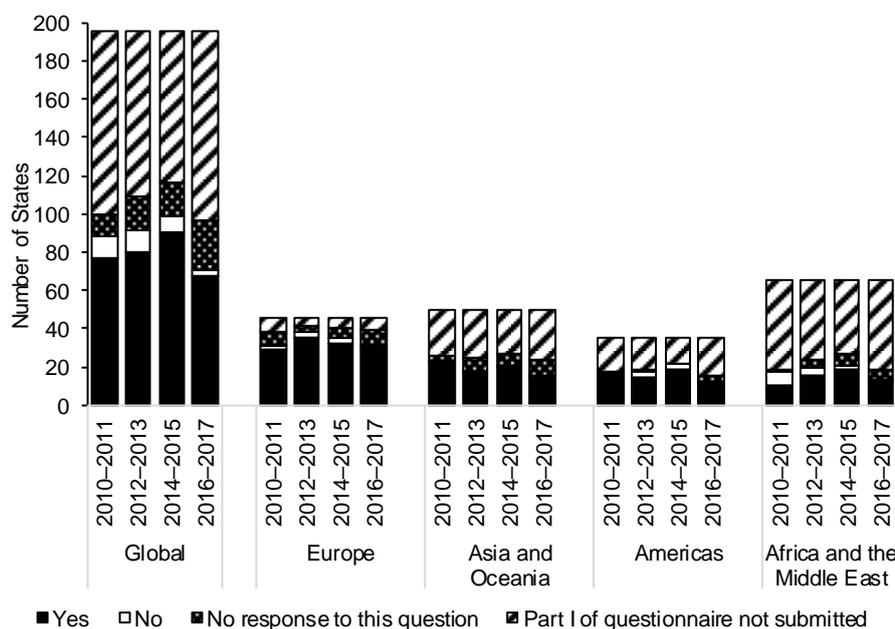
Member States that criminalize money-laundering in general and in the reporting year



86. Since 2009, many Member States have criminalized money-laundering and the number is steadily increasing. According to the data, more than 90 per cent of responding Member States have criminalized money-laundering. Although there appears to be a decrease in the current cycle, only data for 2016 were available and therefore the situation cannot be accurately assessed (see figure 33).

Figure 34

Measures to manage seized assets

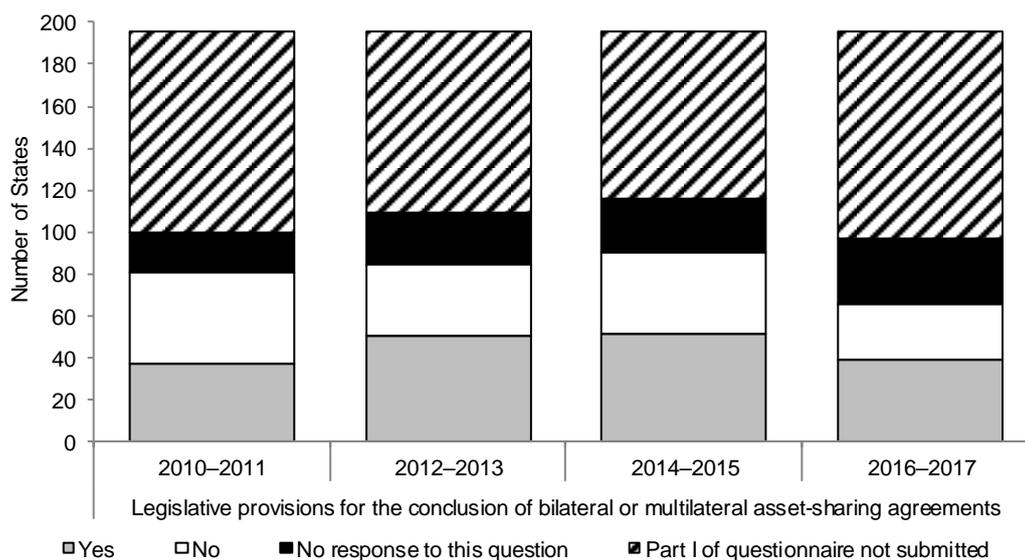


87. Globally over the four reporting cycles, a relatively stable and large percentage of Member States have indicated that they have measures in place to manage seized assets (see figure 34). In the period 2010–2011, 77 out of 100 reporting Member States (77 per cent) had indicated having such measures in place, compared with 80 out of 109 (73 per cent) in the period 2012–2013, 90 out of 116 (78 per cent) in the period 2014–2015, and 68 out of 97 (70 per cent) in the period 2016–2017.³

88. The management of assets is a very important part of any effective money-laundering regime, as called for in international money-laundering standards. Without quick freezing and/or seizure action, criminal assets will dissipate and nothing will be left to forfeit or confiscate. If a Government does not manage the seized assets appropriately and the suspected money launderer is not convicted, the State concerned would be obligated to return the seized assets in their original state.

Figure 35

Legislative provisions for the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral asset-sharing agreements



89. At the global level, in the period 2010–2011, 44 out of 100 reporting Member States (44 per cent) indicated that their legislation did not provide for the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral asset-sharing agreements (see figure 35). That number was 35 out of 109 (32 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 39 out of 116 (33 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 27 out of 97 (28 per cent) in the period 2016–2017.

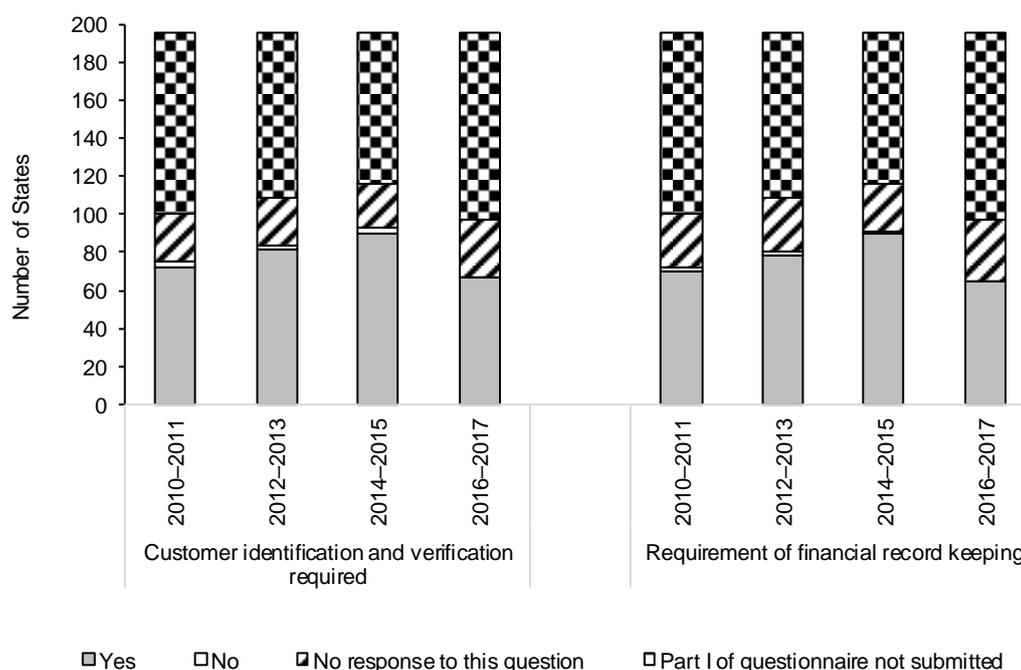
90. With regard to legislation providing for the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral asset-sharing agreements, the percentage of Member States with such legislation remains low: 37 per cent in the first cycle, 46 per cent in the second, 44 per cent in the third and 40 per cent in the fourth. Member States are therefore strongly encouraged to consider including in their national legislation the provisions necessary to conclude bilateral or multilateral asset-sharing agreements with other Member States.

³ When examining the regional data, it is clear from figure 2 above that Europe had the highest response rate to this question across all four cycles, with the lowest response rate from Africa and the Middle East. In Europe in the period 2010–2011, 29 out of 46 countries (63 per cent) had indicated that they had measures in place to manage seized assets. In the period 2012–2013, that figure was 35 out of 46 (76 per cent); in the period 2014–2015, 32 out of 46 (70 per cent); and in the period 2016–2017, 31 out of 46 (67 per cent). In Africa and the Middle East in the period 2010–2011, 10 out of 65 countries (15 per cent) indicated that they had measures in place to manage seized assets. In the period 2012–2013, that figure was 15 out of 65 (23 per cent) in the period 2014–2015, 19 out of 65 (29 per cent); and in the period 2016–2017, 12 out of 65 countries (18 per cent).

2. Financial and regulatory regimes for banks and other financial institutions

Figure 36

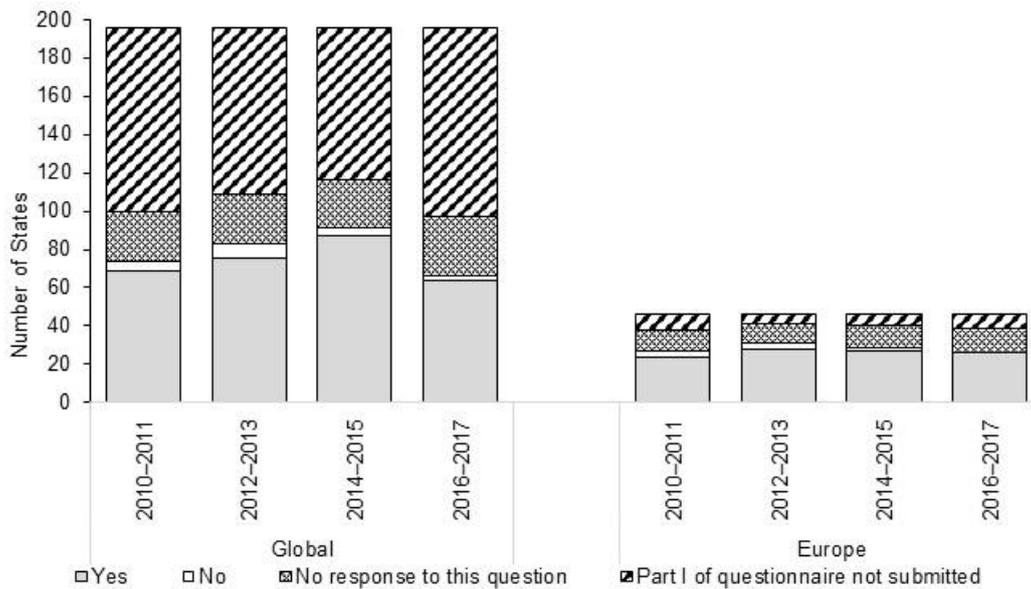
Measures by banks and other financial institutions in relation to customer identification and verification requirements, and financial record-keeping



91. When identifying and tracing proceeds of crime, banks and other financial institutions play a key role and are often described as the gatekeepers of the system. As to whether measures have been adopted by banks and other financial institutions to identify customers and to verify customer information, in the period 2010–2011, 72 out of 100 reporting Member States (72 per cent) indicated that their banks and other financial institutions had such measures in place. That number was 82 out of 109 (75 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 90 out of 116 (76 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 67 out of 97 (69 per cent) in the period 2016–2017 (see figure 36).

92. In order to comply swiftly with information requests from competent authorities, financial institutions are sometimes required to maintain, for at least five years, all necessary records on both domestic and international transactions. In the period 2010–2011, 70 out of 100 reporting Member States (70 per cent) indicated that their banks and other financial institutions were required to keep such records. That number was 78 out of 109 (72 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 90 out of 116 (76 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 65 out of 97 (67 per cent) in the period 2016–2017. Analysis of the data indicates slow progress in this field.

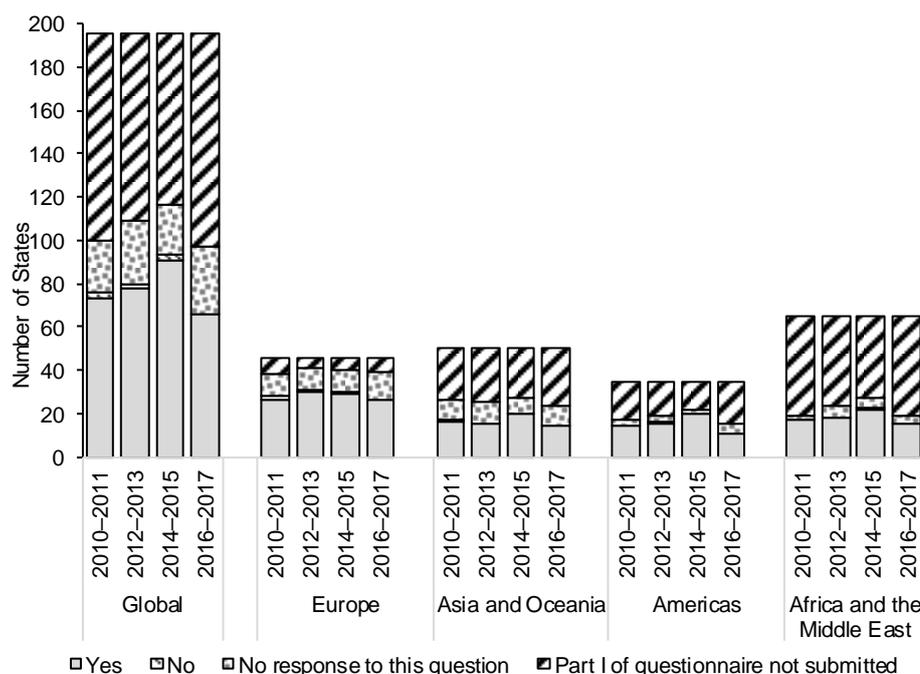
Figure 37
Identification of beneficial ownership information for legal persons



93. One problem encountered by financial investigators is the complexity of financial transactions and the fact that legal persons often hide behind the corporate veil. The global analysis has shown some fluctuations across the four reporting cycles in relation to measures adopted by banks and other financial institutions to identify beneficial ownership information for legal persons (see figure 37). In the period 2010–2011, 69 out of 100 reporting Member States (69 per cent) indicated measures to identify such information. That number was 75 out of 109 (69 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 87 out of 116 (75 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 64 out of 97 (66 per cent) in the period 2016–2017.

94. At the regional level in the period 2010–2011, 24 out of 38 reporting countries in Europe (63 per cent) indicated that measures had been adopted by banks and other financial institutions to identify beneficial ownership information for legal persons. That figure was 28 out of 41 (68 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 27 out of 40 (68 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 26 out of 39 (67 per cent) in the period 2016–2017, demonstrating only a slight increase across all four cycles.

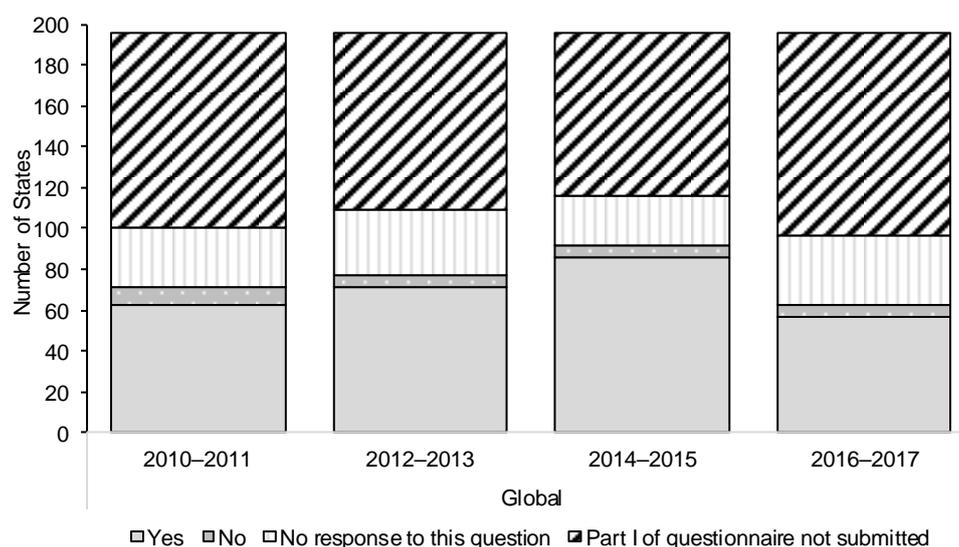
Figure 38
Mandatory reporting of suspicious transactions



95. In the period 2010–2011 at the global level, 77 out of 100 reporting Member States (77 per cent) indicated that it was mandatory to report suspicious transactions (see figure 38). That figure was 80 out of 109 (73 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 90 out of 116 (78 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 68 out of 97 (70 per cent) in the period 2016–2017.

96. At the regional level, in the period 2010–2011, 16 out of 26 reporting countries in Asia and Oceania (62 per cent) indicated that it was mandatory to report such transactions. That figure was 15 out of 25 (60 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 20 out of 27 (74 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 14 out of 24 (58 per cent) in the period 2016–2017. In the Americas, that figure was 14 out of 17 reporting countries (82 per cent) in the period 2010–2011; 15 out of 19 (79 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 20 out of 22 (91 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 11 out of 15 (73 per cent) in the period 2016–2017.

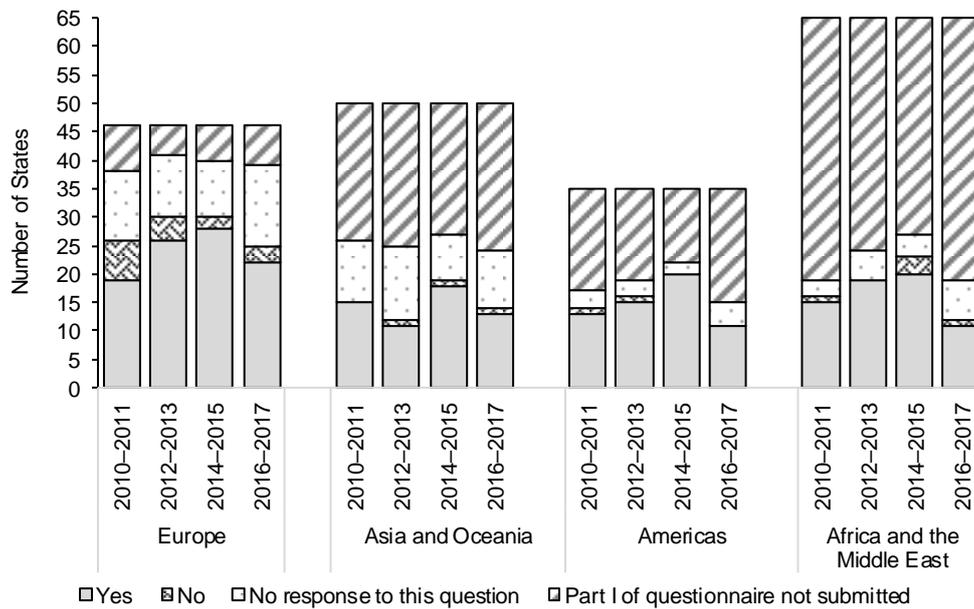
Figure 39
Mechanisms to detect and monitor the cross-border transport of cash and bearer negotiable instruments at the global level



97. In the period 2010–2011 at the global level, 62 out of 100 reporting Member States (62 per cent) indicated that they had mechanisms in place to detect and monitor the cross-border transport of cash and bearer negotiable instruments (see figure 39). That figure was 71 out of 109 (65 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 86 out of 116 (74 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 57 out of 97 (59 per cent) in the period 2016–2017, representing an increase of 12 per cent between the first and third reporting cycle. As only data for 2016 were available at the time of the drafting of the present report, an accurate comparison between the third and fourth reporting cycles is not possible.

Figure 40

Mechanisms to detect and monitor the cross-border transport of cash and bearer negotiable instruments at the regional level

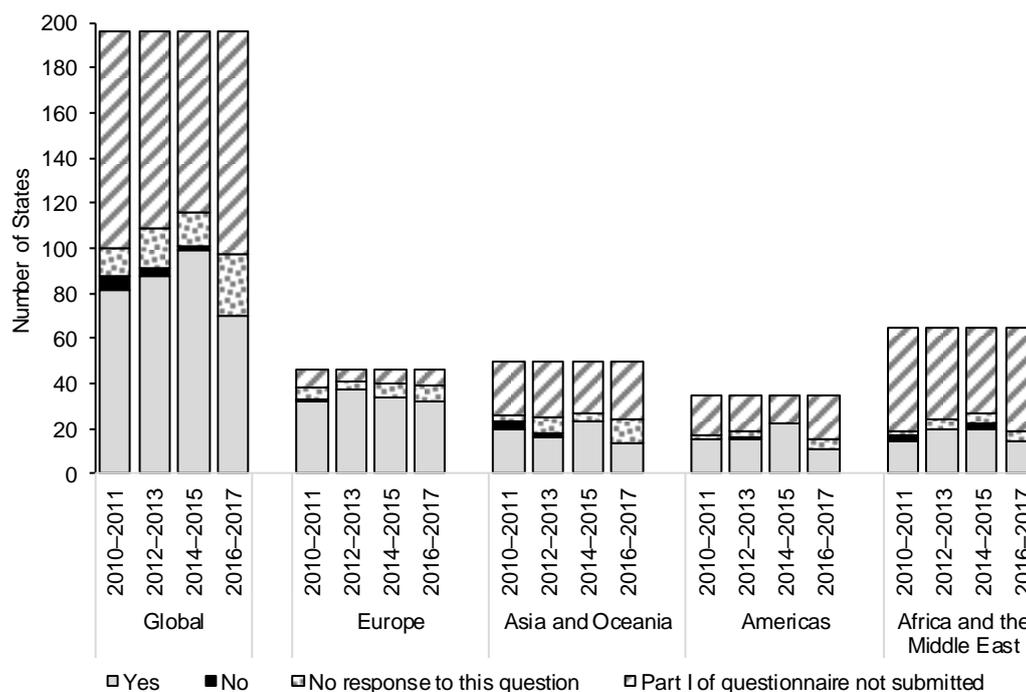


98. According to responses to the questionnaire, mechanisms to detect and monitor the cross-border transport of cash and bearer negotiable instruments are most prevalent in Europe (see figure 40). In the period 2010–2011, 19 out of 38 reporting countries (50 per cent) indicated that mechanisms to detect and monitor the cross-border transport of cash and bearer negotiable instruments were in place. In the period 2012–2013, that figure was 26 out of 41 (63 per cent); in the period 2014–2015, 28 out of 40 (70 per cent); and in the period 2016–2017, 22 out of 39 (56 per cent), representing an increase of 20 per cent between the first and third reporting cycles in this region. As only data for 2016 were available at the time of the drafting of the present report, an accurate comparison between the third and fourth reporting cycles is not possible.

3. Domestic and international cooperation

99. Measures contributing to an effective regime to counter money-laundering include domestic cooperation, the exchange of information on a national level, conducting joint operations and international cooperation.

Figure 41
Money-laundering as an extraditable offence

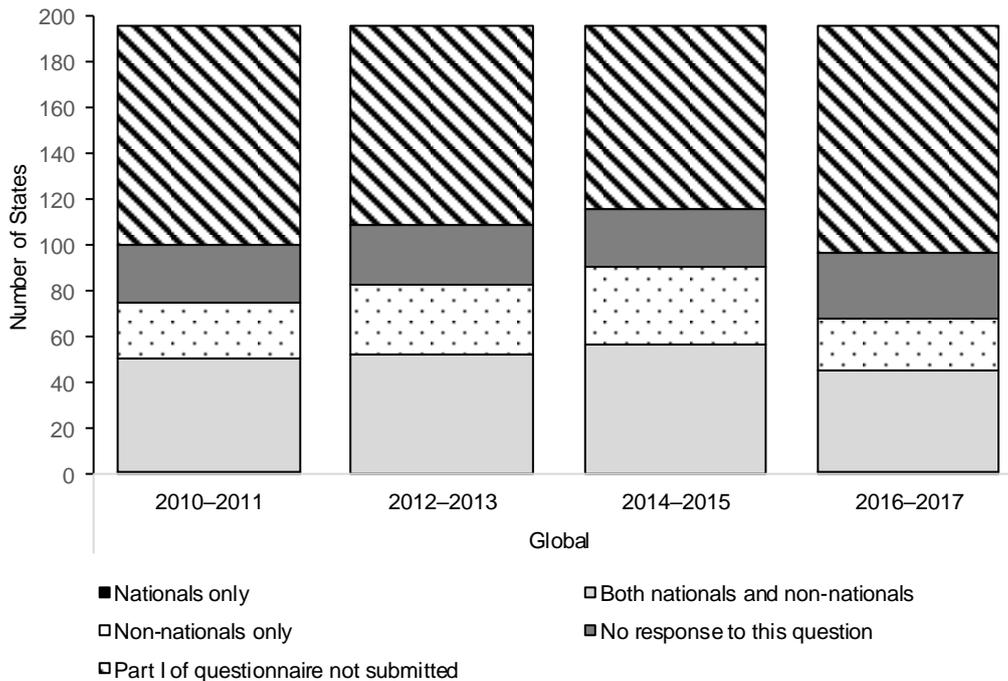


100. Global data indicate that in the period 2010–2011, 81 out of 100 responding Member States (81 per cent) had reported that money-laundering was an extraditable offence (see figure 41). That figure was 88 out of 109 (81 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 99 out of 116 (85 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 70 out of 97 (72 per cent) in the period 2016–2017, demonstrating an increase from the first to third reporting periods. As only data for 2016 were available at the time of the drafting of the present report, an accurate comparison between the third and fourth reporting cycles is not possible.

101. Regional data indicate that, in Asia and Oceania in the period 2010–2011, 20 out of 26 reporting countries (77 per cent) reported that money-laundering was an extraditable offence. That figure was 16 out of 25 (64 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 23 out of 27 (85 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 13 out of 24 (54 per cent) in the period 2016–2017. Significant fluctuations between the first, second and third reporting cycles can be observed. It is difficult to explain those fluctuations, since the number of reporting countries are similar in all three cycles. One explanation is that, in the second reporting cycle, 7 out of 25 reporting countries did not reply to this question in the questionnaire.

102. In the Americas in the period 2010–2011, 15 out of 17 reporting countries (88 per cent) reported that money-laundering was an extraditable offence. That figure was 15 out of 19 (79 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 22 out of 22 (100 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 11 out of 15 (73 per cent) in the period 2016–2017. Even without taking the period 2016–2017 into consideration, the 21 per cent regional difference between the second and third cycles cannot be clearly explained.

Figure 42
Individuals who can be extradited for money-laundering



103. In the period 2010–2011, 50 out of 100 reporting Member States (50 per cent) indicated that both nationals and non-nationals could be extradited for money-laundering (see figure 42). That figure was 53 out of 109 (49 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 57 out of 116 (49 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 45 out of 97 (46 per cent) in the period 2016–2017. In the period 2010–2011, 24 out of 100 reporting Member States (24 per cent) indicated that only non-nationals could be extradited for money-laundering. That figure was 30 out of 109 (28 per cent) in the period 2012–2013; 34 out of 116 (29 per cent) in the period 2014–2015; and 22 out of 97 (23 per cent) in the period 2016–2017. Analysis showed that the response rate to this question in all reporting cycles was very low and that the majority of Member States either did not complete part I of the questionnaire or did not reply to this question.

B. Judicial cooperation

104. The present section contains an analysis of the responses provided by Member States during the fourth reporting cycle to part I of the annual report questionnaire, in relation to judicial cooperation for the purposes of mutual legal assistance, extradition, illicit traffic by sea and the protection of witnesses and victims. As in previous cycles, the present section provides statistics in an effort to map, in quantitative terms, actions taken by Member States in the fields covered in part I of the questionnaire. Moreover, to the extent applicable and possible, the present section links the findings of the fourth cycle with comparative statistical outcomes of the previous cycles within the overall reporting period. In doing so, figures cited below aim to reflect (on a regular two-year basis within the entire reporting period) intermediate “snapshots” to map national trends. In addition to recommendations emerging from the fourth cycle, the present section also contains an analysis of implementation trends relating to some of the common recommendations of the previous cycles.

105. Progress has been achieved in recent years with regard to the adoption of bilateral, regional and international agreements on extradition, mutual legal assistance and, to a lesser extent, illicit traffic by sea. However, as reflected by the data provided

over the period 2010–2016, there has only been a marginal increase in the number of Member States reporting the conclusion of such agreements. Overall, most agreements have been concluded by States in Europe and in Latin America and the Caribbean. In addition, multilateral arrangements of a regional and subregional scope were widely utilized in those regions to facilitate, in particular, extradition proceedings or procedures for the surrender of fugitives and proceedings to facilitate mutual legal assistance.

106. A total of seven countries in 2016 did not reply to any of the questions related to judicial cooperation. Hence, 7.6 per cent of the reporting Member States could not be analysed in the trends and findings illustrated below with regard to judicial cooperation.

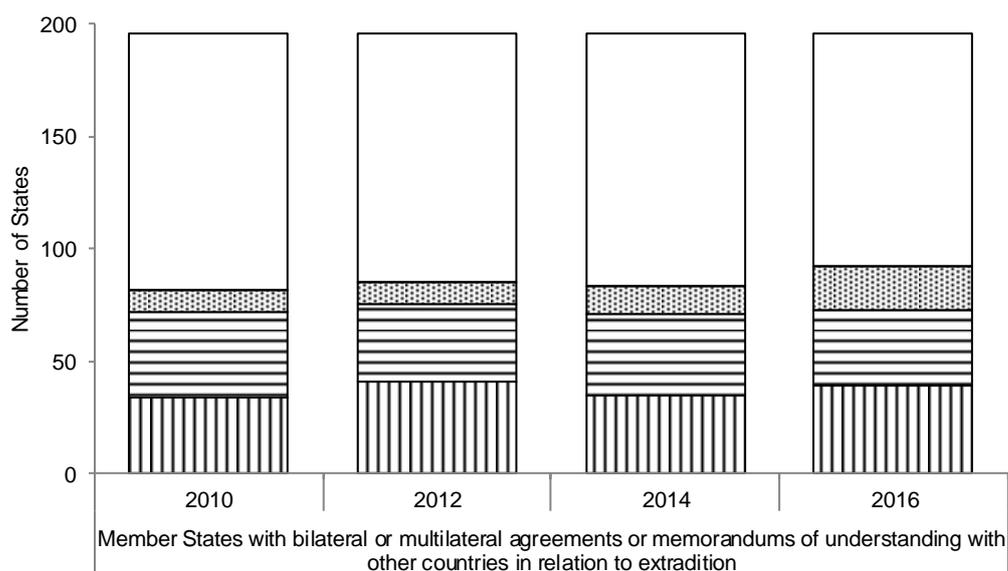
1. Extradition

107. According to the data provided in response to question 14 of the annual report questionnaire, approximately 42 per cent of the Member States have concluded bilateral or multilateral agreements or memorandums of understanding with other countries. In 2010, 34 Member States reported having such agreements in place. That number increased to 41 in 2012, decreased to 35 in 2014 and then rose to 39 in 2016. Over the entire reporting period, such agreements were confirmed to be in place in a total of between 17 and 21 per cent of Member States (see figure 43).

108. According to the responses provided over the entire reporting period, the level of action to give practical effect to extradition agreements remained generally stable, with a small increase in 2016. Moreover, within the period 2014–2016, there was a significant increase in the reported number of countries with which actions were taken pursuant to agreements on mutual legal assistance.

Figure 43

Member States with bilateral or multilateral agreements or memorandums of understanding with other countries in relation to extradition



Yes
 No
 No response to this question
 Part I of questionnaire not submitted

109. According to the data provided, the responding Member States concluded extradition agreements with a number of other States. The number of agreements reported by each Member State ranged from 3 to 74 in the period 2010–2011, from 2 to 95 in the period 2012–2013, from 1 to 130 in the period 2014–2015 and from 1 to 175 in 2016. In addition, an increased proportion of States (20.5 per cent), notably in Eastern and Western Europe and in Latin America and the Caribbean, reported

being parties to multilateral extradition agreements that were regional and/or subregional in scope. Only five of those countries reported the ratification of or accession to multilateral conventions containing provisions on extradition, such as the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988 and the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.

110. The data provided for the fourth reporting cycle confirmed slower progress in the conclusion of new agreements related to extradition: only 10 countries, mainly in Latin America and the Caribbean, indicated the conclusion of such agreements, with an average number of two to three agreements per country. In contrast, 23 countries stated that they had not concluded any agreements, and the majority did not report any activity in that regard.

111. Almost half of responding States that reported having bilateral and/or multilateral agreements on extradition in place also reported having taken action pursuant to those agreements. According to the responses provided over the entire reporting period, the level of action to give practical effect to such agreements remained generally stable. The only exception was in 2016, when a small increase resulted in the highest reported rate: 17 countries, representing 18.4 per cent of reporting States, confirmed having taken action. The data provided for the fourth cycle show that Central Europe and Latin America and the Caribbean were the regions with the highest number of cooperating countries on the basis of bilateral or multilateral agreements on extradition.

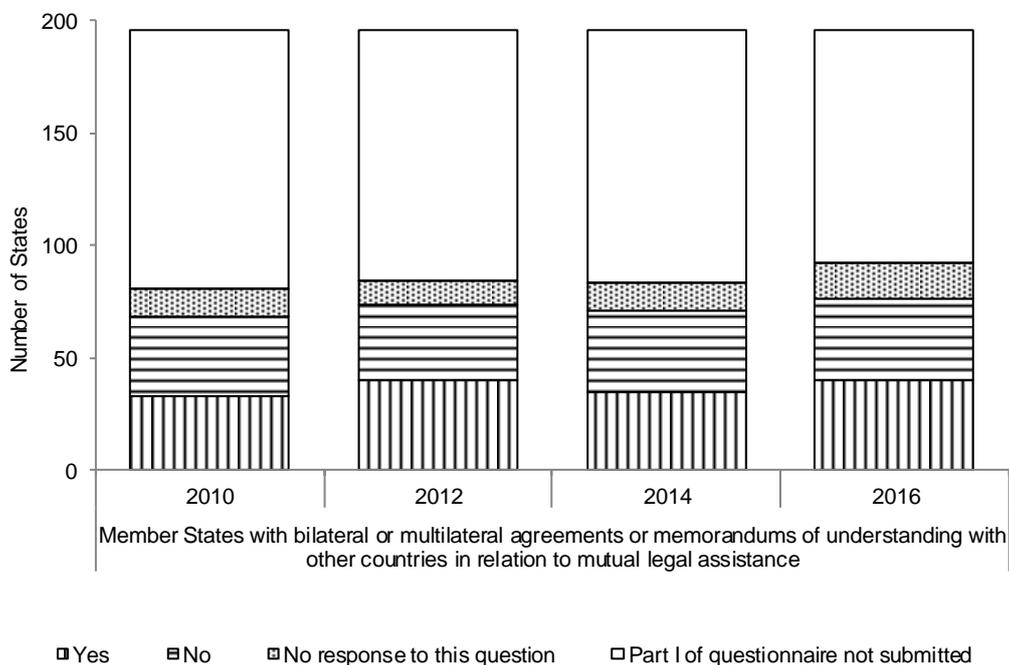
112. Some States were unable to provide information related to their extradition activities because the relevant data were not available or had not been collected by their competent authorities.

2. Mutual legal assistance

113. In 2016, 40 Member States stated that they had in place bilateral or multilateral agreements or memorandums of understanding with other countries in relation to mutual legal assistance (see figure 44). That number was equivalent to 20.4 per cent of all Member States, and 43.5 per cent of those who responded.

Figure 44

Member States with bilateral or multilateral agreements or memorandums of understanding with other countries in relation to mutual legal assistance



114. Of the 40 Member States that responded, 70 per cent reported the existence of agreements with up to 50 countries, and 20 per cent reported that they had agreements with between 51 and 82 countries.

115. Similar to extradition, several countries referred to the existence of multilateral agreements, of both international and regional scope, as a basis for mutual legal assistance. In particular, four countries explicitly referred to the 1988 Convention and the Organized Crime Convention.

116. Over the entire reporting period, the number of Member States that reported entering into new agreements on mutual legal assistance fluctuated, but increased slightly overall. In 2010, a total of 5 countries reported entering into such agreements. That number was 8 in 2011; 5 in 2012; 8 in 2014; and 11 in 2016. The 11 countries reporting new agreements in 2016, equivalent to 12 per cent of responding States, indicated a range between one and five agreements per year.

117. Responses from Member States in 2016 indicated that only 16 per cent of those countries took actions pursuant to mutual legal assistance agreements. According to the responses, the number of countries with which such reporting countries have taken action ranged from 2 to 77 for the period 2010–2013 and from 3 to 207 in the period 2014–2016, representing a significant increase.

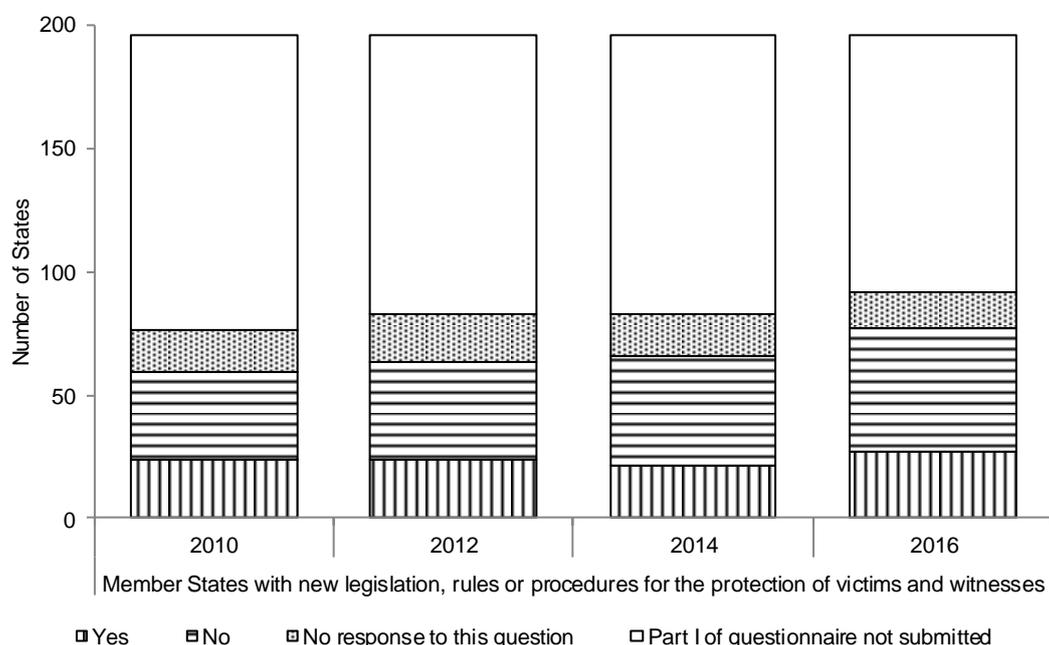
3. Witness and victim protection

118. In the period 2010–2013, responses consistently reflected that an approximate average of 25 per cent of responding States had in place new legislation, rules or procedures for the protection of victims and witnesses. Since 2014, however, there has been an increase in that figure. In the period 2014–2015, 37 per cent of reporting Member States implemented new measures in that regard. Of the 92 Member States reporting in 2016, 29 per cent reported new measures.

119. In contrast, the percentage of countries that responded negatively to the question has remained stable during the past years: approximately 55 per cent in 2010, 58 per cent in 2012 and 54 per cent in the period 2014–2015, and 54 per cent in 2016. Approximately 16 per cent have not provided information in that regard (see figure 45).

Figure 45

Member States with new legislation, rules or procedures for the protection of victims and witnesses



120. Figure 45 illustrates that there was a slight increase in responses to the question over the entire reporting period. However, information is lacking with regard to both the scope of the newly adopted laws and the procedures to enhance the protection afforded to victims and witnesses.

4. Complementary measures

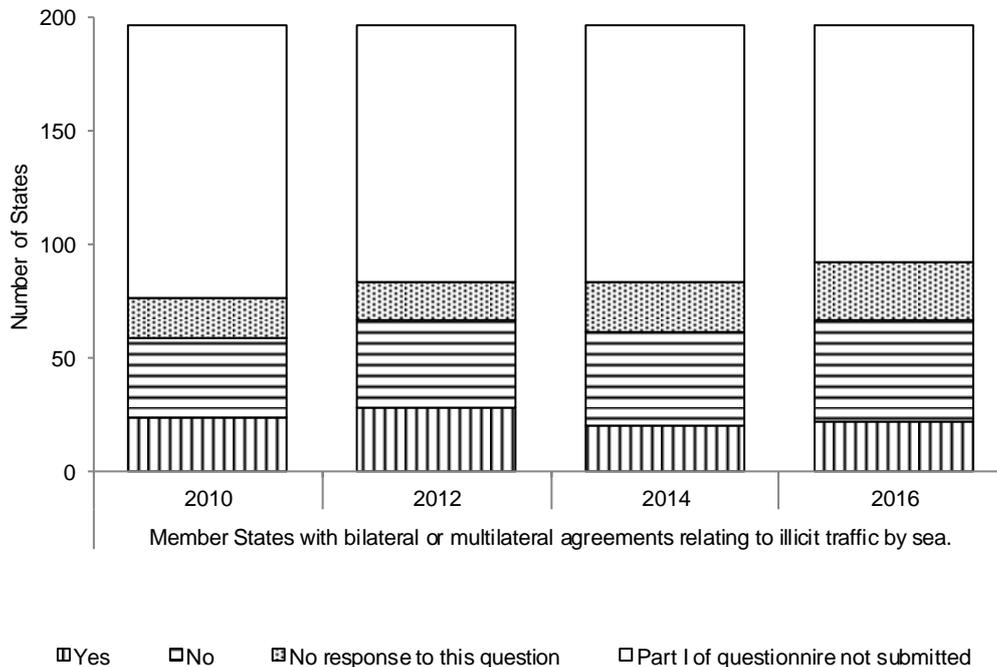
Illicit traffic by sea

121. Since 2010, an average of 25 per cent of responding States have indicated the existence of bilateral or multilateral agreements or memorandums of understanding with other countries relating to illicit traffic by sea (see figure 46). The largest number of responses in 2016 came from States in Europe and Latin America and the Caribbean, reconfirming the trend seen in previous reporting cycles. On average, countries indicated having agreements in place with five countries.

122. Only one Member State referred to the 1988 Convention as the legal basis for countering illicit traffic by sea.

Figure 46

Member States with bilateral or multilateral agreements relating to illicit traffic by sea



123. Since the first reporting period, the number of countries indicating a lack of agreements or memorandums of understanding on illicit traffic by sea has increased. In 2010, 35 countries stated that they did not have such agreements. That number has since increased, from 39 in 2012, to 41 in 2014 and to 45 in 2016.

VI. Recommendations

124. When discussing the present report, the Commission might wish to consider recommending that Member States:

- (a) Provide the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) with a timely and complete response to the annual report questionnaire, as doing so would enhance the quality of reports and related conclusions;

(b) Address the various aspects of the drug problem through intersectoral interventions at all levels to ensure an approach that is integrated, multidisciplinary, mutually reinforcing, balanced, comprehensive and based on scientific evidence;

(c) Consider reviewing their current drug control policies and frameworks to reflect the operational recommendations contained in the outcome document of the thirtieth special session of the General Assembly, as well as the relevant targets of the Sustainable Development Goals.

Demand reduction and related measures

125. With regard to demand reduction and related measures, the Commission might wish to consider recommending that Member States:

(a) Develop and implement, in line with the provisions of the outcome document of the thirtieth special session of the General Assembly, drug control policies in general and drug prevention, treatment and care systems, in particular, based on the understanding that drug dependence is a complex, multifactorial health disorder characterized by a chronic and relapsing nature and with social causes and consequences;

(b) Base the design of drug prevention, treatment and rehabilitation services, including efforts aimed at the prevention of health and social consequences, on a comprehensive and accurate assessment of drug use, drug use disorders and vulnerabilities;

(c) Develop drug prevention and treatment strategies that are easily accessible by and tailored to the specific needs of young people (both boys and girls) and women, in particular pregnant women, in line with target 3.5 of the Sustainable Development Goals, on strengthening prevention and treatment, Sustainable Development Goal 5, on gender equality and chapter four of the outcome document of the thirtieth special session of the General Assembly;

(d) Invest in the monitoring and evaluation of the process, outcome and impact of drug prevention and treatment strategies to ensure their effectiveness and cost-effectiveness, to minimize the risk of negative outcomes, and to contribute to the expansion and strengthening of the global base of scientific evidence;

(e) Scale up action to ensure access to controlled substances for medical purposes, while preventing diversion and abuse;

Prevention

(f) Increase the coverage and quality of drug prevention, in line with the *International Standards on Drug Use Prevention* and target 3.5 of the Sustainable Development Goals, on strengthening prevention and treatment, while contributing to target 16.1, on violence prevention;

(g) Develop a prevention system that supports children and young people throughout their development, targeting the population at large (universal prevention), but also supporting populations and individuals that are particularly at risk, addressing both individual and environmental factors of vulnerability and resilience, and reaching the population through multiple settings, incorporating families, schools, communities and the workplace, among others;

Treatment

(h) Increase the accessibility, coverage and quality of treatment, care and rehabilitation services for people with drug use disorders, in line with the UNODC/WHO *International Standards on Treatment of Drug Use Disorders* and target 3.5 of the Sustainable Development Goals, on strengthening prevention and treatment;

(i) Develop drug treatment and care services that cater to the diverse health and social issues of people in need, in order to allow for a continuum of coordinated services that are accessible, affordable and diversified, as well as based on scientific evidence, human rights and respect for the dignity of the people who need them;

(j) Implement strategies at all stages of the criminal justice process to provide treatment as an alternative to criminal justice sanctions for people with drug use disorders;

(k) Invest in the coverage of HIV and hepatitis C prevention interventions for people who use drugs, including in prisons, to effectively prevent the transmission of HIV and hepatitis C and to achieve target 3.3 of the Sustainable Development Goals, on ending AIDS by 2030, in line with the commitment reiterated in the outcome document of the thirtieth special session of the General Assembly;

(l) Align national AIDS and drug policies, strategies and programmes with all nine comprehensive interventions of WHO, UNODC, and the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) for people who inject drugs and facilitate their implementation and scaling up to reach the recommended levels of coverage for achieving impact;

(m) Increase the involvement of community-based organizations and civil society organizations, including through building their capacity;

(n) Strengthen a human rights and public health approach to prison health and increase evidence based HIV prevention, treatment and care services for people who use drugs in prisons.⁴

Drug supply reduction and related measures

126. With regard to drug supply reduction and related measures, the Commission might wish to consider recommending that Member States:

(a) Encourage their authorities to make use of the tools and services offered by UNODC to counter drug trafficking, such as the UNODC early warning advisory on new psychoactive substances, PEN Online and the Project Ion Incident Communication System developed by the International Narcotics Control Board;

Domestic supply reduction activities

(b) Review their national strategies related to border management, examine the degree of cooperation between border agencies and assess the application of current controls in response to the growth in trade and passenger volumes by air, land and sea and to ensure that their borders are well protected;

(c) Ensure that the anti-corruption measures to maintain the integrity of their financial investigation units are regularly revised so that they are effective and support the development of an appropriate organizational culture;

(d) Develop their forensic capacity to analyse the chemical composition of new psychoactive substances, and establish a system for the post-seizure investigation of precursor chemicals, while sharing such information with their counterparts in other Member States;

(e) Support close cooperation between their national law enforcement agencies and the private sector, such as the chemical industry, financial institutions and trade and communication companies, to meet the challenges arising from the new complexities of drug trafficking, including Internet-based illegal trade, the emergence

⁴ In line with the policy brief by UNODC, the International Labour Organization and the United Nations Development Programme entitled “HIV prevention, treatment and care in prisons and other closed settings: a comprehensive package of interventions”.

of new psychoactive substances, the abuse of pharmaceutical preparations and the diversion of precursors;

International cooperation

(f) Take steps to ensure that requests for mutual legal assistance are responded to in a timely manner, with minimal delays that might otherwise jeopardize an active investigation and a successful prosecution;

(g) Encourage law enforcement authorities to enhance cooperation with their counterparts in drug source and transit States through capacity-building initiatives and establishing trusted operational cooperation;

(h) Enhance the efficiency of law enforcement cooperation mechanisms by, inter alia, developing effective systems of information-sharing, establishing channels of communication between relevant authorities and, if needed, concluding arrangements to foster operational assistance;

Alternative development

(i) Incorporate the Sustainable Development Goals into the design and evaluation of alternative development programmes;

(j) Design and implement alternative development programmes in line with the United Nations Guiding Principles on Alternative Development to ensure that both a reduction in illicit crop cultivation and an improvement in social and economic conditions in targeted areas are achieved;

(k) Facilitate market access for products stemming from alternative development to contribute to long-term legitimate income generation for small farming communities;

(l) Consider the timeline for well-designed alternative development programmes to be a minimum of five to seven years to allow for projects to show an impact on beneficiary communities;

(m) Recognize the linkages between security and development, understanding that illicit crops are often cultivated in marginal areas that lack a large presence of government personnel and security forces;

(n) Design relevant strategies to implement alternative development programmes to address the cultivation of cannabis;

(o) Strengthen private sector outreach in order to ensure that alternative development products meet the requirements for niche markets;

(p) Enlarge the concept of alternative development in order to move from rural development to a more market-oriented approach;

(q) Improve data-gathering, analysis of the progress and evaluation of the impact of alternative development programmes.

Countering money-laundering and promoting judicial cooperation to enhance international cooperation

127. With regard to countering money-laundering and promoting judicial cooperation to enhance international cooperation, the Commission might wish to recommending that Member States:

Money-laundering

(a) Implement the recommendations on countering money-laundering contained in the outcome document of the thirtieth special session of the General Assembly;

(b) Acknowledge and address, through a holistic approach, the increasing linkages between drug trafficking, corruption and other forms of organized crime, such as trafficking in persons, trafficking in firearms, cybercrime and money-laundering and, in some cases, terrorism, including money-laundering in connection with the financing of terrorism;

Judicial cooperation

(c) Strengthen regional, subregional and international cooperation in criminal matters, as appropriate, including judicial cooperation in the areas of, inter alia, extradition, mutual legal assistance and transfer of proceedings, in accordance with the international drug control conventions and other international legal instruments and national legislation, and strive to provide appropriate resources to national competent authorities, including through the provision of targeted technical assistance to requesting countries;

(d) Further enhance and streamline efforts to put in place agreements or arrangements in relation to extradition, mutual legal assistance and, in particular, illicit traffic by sea, especially where requests to afford these types of assistance are not granted in the absence of a treaty;

(e) Make full use of multilateral treaties, notably the 1988 Convention and the Organized Crime Convention, as legal bases for requesting and granting international cooperation requests, especially in the absence of applicable bilateral agreements;

(f) Establish a dual criminality requirement for the extradition of drug offences, in accordance with national legislation, and adopt measures to expedite extradition procedures and simplify evidentiary requirements in extradition proceedings, in conformity with domestic laws;

(g) Adopt a more flexible approach to judicial cooperation in order to facilitate the provision of the widest possible range of mutual legal assistance, in particular in the area of non-coercive measures;

(h) Foster the promotion of other forms of international cooperation such as the transfer of proceedings in criminal matters.
