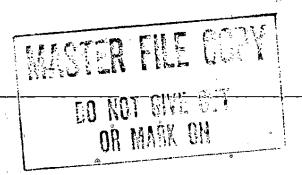
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Directorate of Intelligence

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Colombia: Crisis on the Drug Front

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An Intelligence Assessment

GI 84-10055 IA 84-10030 March 1984



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An Intelligence Assessment

This paper was prepared by
Strategic Narcotics Branch, International Security
Issues Division, Office of Global Issues, and

Comments and queries are welcome and may be directed to the Chief, Strategic Narcotics Branch, OGI,

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		n the Drug Front		20/11
•	Information available be as of 16 March 1984 was used in this report	IS drug control policy in Latin America may suffecause of the deteriorating narcotics situation in the marijuana crop in 1983 was about 60 percent	Colombia:	
i		previous year's drought-affected crop, and prospet are now good. Colombia supplies 70 to 80 percent imported annually into the United States.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
		Coca cultivation has increased dramatically since enough coca last year to produce some 10 metric hydrochloride—roughly 20 percent of the cocaine the United States. We project that by 1986 Color duce between 30 and 40 tons of cocaine from dorcoca leaf.	tons of cocaine consumed annually in the able to pro-	
•		Some Colombian traffickers maintain an extension structure to market these products as well as the and Peru.		
		Colombian trafficking syndicates have recently influence Colombian politics and to use the medipublic image. Their structure and the secretive, of they operate—usually relying on trusted family refustrate efforts by drug enforcement agencies to zations and to halt their illicit activities.	a to foster a better closed manner in which nembers—continue to	
•		Government plans and initiatives often either do President Betancur or because of a lack of resourtask.	t -	
₹	B an hi no w ao d	rospects for a comprehensive drug control programetancur's awareness of the domestic political sensition arcotics effort and his foreign policy—designe is independence from the United States—are both of believe Betancur will discontinue any existing dithout his staunch support, national programs—serial herbicidal spray campaign—needed to count uction of marijuana and the rapid increase in cocaill battle.	itivities involved in an d in part to demonstrate limiting factors. We do rug control efforts, but, uch as a widespread pro-)
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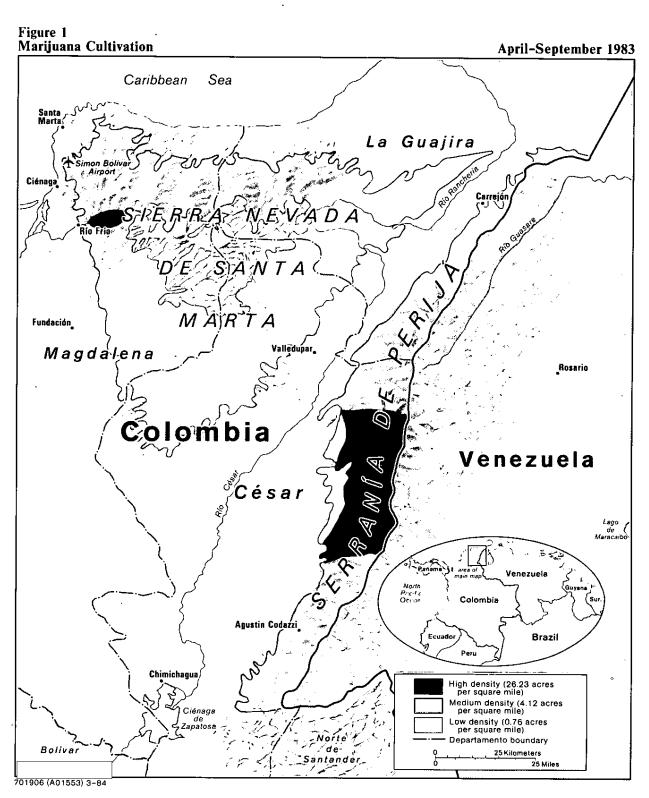
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Colombia: Crisis on the Drug Front

Colombia plays a key role in the US antinarcotics policy in Latin America. Colombia is the center for the processing and trafficking of cocaine grown in Bolivia and Peru, as well as in Colombia, and provides a major share of the marijuana imported into the United States. Several trends point to a deterioration of the narcotics situation in Colombia. Despite US initiatives and some Colombian antinarcotics efforts, marijuana and cocaine production is flourishing, the drug production and trafficking infrastructure continues to develop and expand, domestic drug abuse is growing, and some traffickers are becoming bolder in their attempt to gain legitimacy. This paper examines the current drug situation in Colombia, the government's response, the constraints to a comprehensive national drug control program, and a set of events that serve as key indicators to a change in the Colombian drug scene.

Illicit Drug Cultivation and Trafficking

Drug Cultivation

Colombia remains the primary source of US imports of marijuana and cocaine. Some 70 to 80 percent of the marijuana imported into the United States is grown in Colombia, according to estimates by the US National Narcotics Intelligence Consumer Committee (NNICC). Colombian traffickers have long overseen the cocaine trade, refining coca leaf grown in Peru and Bolivia and smuggling the cocaine into the United States. Increasingly, however, coca is being grown within Colombia as well.¹

Colombian traffickers are known principally for their involvement in the marijuana and cocaine trade; however, since 1977 there have been several unconfirmed reports and persistent rumors of illicit opium poppy cultivation in Colombia. US Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) sources have reported the existence of opium poppy cultivation in the Departments of Valle de Cauca (1977), Boyaca (1979), and Vichada (1982 and 1983). Investigations by DEA personnel have turned up no evidence of opium poppy cultivation in these areas, and DEA suspects that the informants probably sighted a nontoxic green vine that resembles opium poppy.

Marijuana. Marijuana production in Colombia increased dramatically last year, up almost 60 percent over output in 1982—when drought affected the crop—and somewhat higher than the estimated average annual production during 1979-81

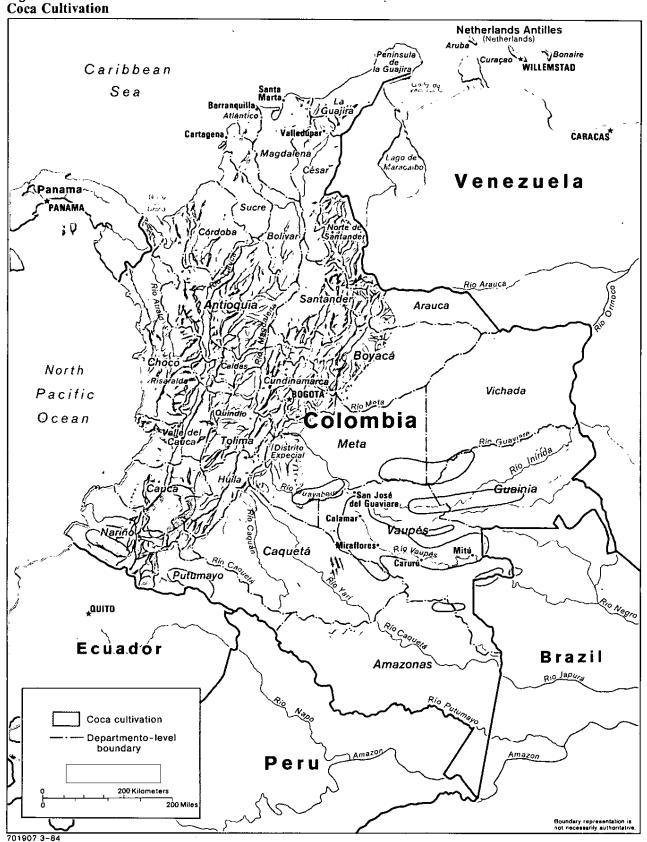
Colombia's Magdalena, Cesar, and La Guajira Departments—located in the northeast along the
Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta and Serrania de Perija
mountains—revealed an increase in the area for the
fall harvest (figure 1). Between 80 and 90 percent of
Colombian marijuana is grown in this area, and the
fall harvest has recently accounted for some twothirds of the annual crop. Of the 13,500 metric tons of
marijuana we estimate were harvested in 1983, we
expect some 11,000 tons will be shipped to the United
States.

Coca. Coca cultivation in Colombia has nearly tripled in recent years—from approximately 5,000 hectares in 1980 to some 15,600 hectares in 1983 (figure 2). We estimate Colombian-cultivated coca plants yielded some 4,600 tons of coca leaf in 1983—enough to produce roughly 10 tons of cocaine, 20 percent of the cocaine consumed annually in the United States. This increase in coca cultivation has occurred primarily in southeastern Colombia. Coca is also grown in the southwestern departments of Cauca, Narino, and Putamayo, which presently account for less than 15 percent, roughly 2,000 hectares, of Colombian coca hectarage.

Outlook for Production. Although it is still too early in the crop season to forecast production of marijuana or coca for 1984, we see no evidence as yet that production will drop below the 1983 level. Two marijuana crops are normally harvested, one in the period March-April and one in August-September. Weather has been good for the spring-harvested crop, and at

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least average yields can be expected. Coca is harvested three or four times a year. Coca yields are affected less by weather and more by the maturity of the plant, with maximum yields reached when plants are four to eight years old. Satellite imagery will be used later in the crop season to measure more precisely the area of marijuana and coca harvested and to estimate likely production. Beyond 1984 production potential—especially for coca—is much greater. As recently planted coca fields	surrounding the marijuana-growing areas in the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta (figure 7, foldout). A total of 74 of the unregistered airstrips are on the Peninsula de la Guajira, the primary staging area for US-bound marijuana shipments, and 47 of these have been constructed since 1975, when marijuana cultivation began to increase significantly in this region. All of the unregistered airstrips have graded earth or unimproved surfaces; they vary in length from 235 to 2,435 meters. Although the registration of an airstrip with the government does not preclude its use for illicit	25X1
in southeastern Colombia mature, yields will rise. We	purposes, we believe that an unregistered airstrip is	
estimate that by 1986 this region—with no increase in the number of coca fields—will be able to grow	more likely to be used for illicit purposes than one that is registered.	25X1
enough coca leaf to produce between 30 and 40 tons		23/1
of cocaine hydrochloride annually. Should increased	Traffickers on the Peninsula de la Guajira also have access to more than 100 coastal locations that can be	
international demand for Colombian cocaine prompt further expansion of the cultivated area, production	used for loading drugs—averaging 11.5 tons per	25X1
would of course be greater.	ship—onto US-bound vessels (figures 7 and 3).2 Drug-	
Trafficking	related transfer operations are usually conducted un- der the cover of darkness, using small motorboats to	25X1
Colombian drug traffickers have already developed an	shuttle marijuana to ships that usually stay 10 to 20	20, (1
infrastructure that would accommodate an expansion	kilometers offshore to avoid detection (figure 4).	
in activities. Extensive clandestine facilities have been established in remote areas of southeastern and north-	3 7	25X1
ern Colombia to support the illegal cultivation, proc-	Cocaine Trafficking. After harvesting, coca leaves	
Marijuana Trafficking. After harvesting, the marijuana is dried and the leaves stripped from the plant and pressed into bales. The bales, which each weigh about 20 to 25 kilograms, are wrapped in a variety of materials—including paper, plastic, and burlap—de-	are taken to nearby laboratories where chemical processing reduces their weight and volume. In most cases these laboratories are open-sided thatch or tarpaper-roofed shelters with rudimentary equipment, located in or near the coca fields, although some laboratories destroyed by DEA and Colombian National Police units have been concealed as far as 1.5 kilometers from the coca fields. Recently large laboratories made of sheet metal have been observed in	25X1
pending on how the marijuana will be exported. For example, bales shipped from Colombia to the United States by air may be wrapped in paper and/or burlap, whereas bales that will be airdropped into the open	several clusters of coca fields along the Rio Vaupes and at a sophisticated cocaine-processing facility seized by the Colombia National Police along the Rio	
sea for subsequent pickup by boats are wrapped in several layers of waterproof materials. After packag-	Taurare.	25X1
ing, the marijuana is moved by mule train from the	Transportation in the jungle of southeastern Colom-	
growing areas to collection points, where it is trans-	bia is generally limited to the major rivers and their	
ferred to trucks and transported to clandestine air-	navigable tributaries or to air travel. DEA reports that drug traffickers usually rely on small motorized	
strips or coastal transshipment sites.	canoes to ferry supplies such as gasoline, sodium	25X1
traffickers	,	25X1
have at their disposal more than 195 airstrips—160 of		
which are not registered with the Colombian Govern- ment—on the Peninsula de la Guajira and in the area		
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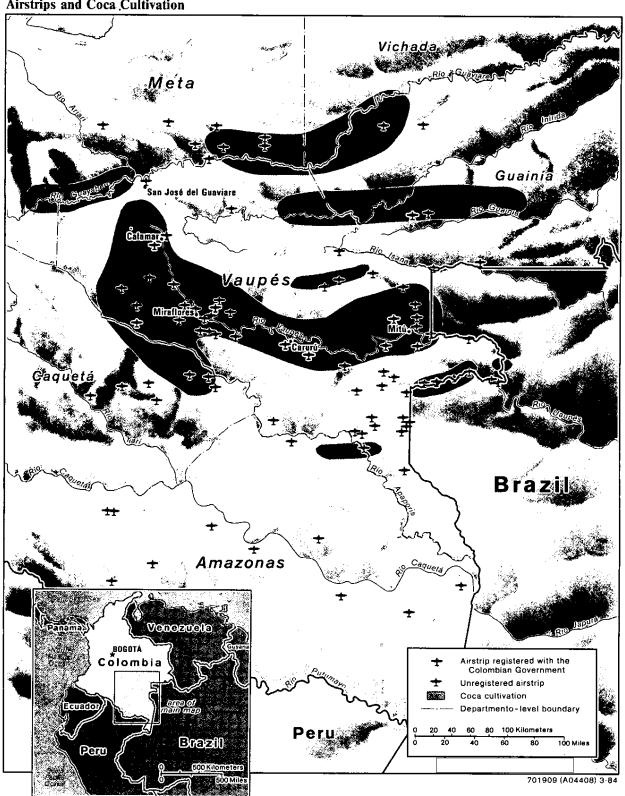
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bicarbonate, and sulfuric acid to their coca fields and processing facilities. These boats also are used to	length from 250 to 1,500 meters. Medium-sized, twin- engine aircraft can operate on these runways. In	
transport coca products upstream to the west, where they are then shipped out of the region via land	addition to the 78 unregistered airstrips that the drug traffickers have hacked out of the jungle, traffickers	25X
routes.	also use registered airstrips such as those in Mira-	
Traffickers operating in the remote areas of south-	flores, Calamar, and Caruru.	25X
Transfer operating in the remote areas of south	Troffishing Organizations	
eastern Colombia also use aircraft to provide fast,	Trafficking Organizations	. 25
eastern Colombia also use aircraft to provide fast, cost-effective, secure transportation to their coca fields and processing facilities.	Trafficking organizations are well entrenched. Most	
eastern Colombia also use aircraft to provide fast, cost-effective, secure transportation to their coca	Trafficking organizations are well entrenched. Most traffickers probably began as smugglers who saw the lucrative narcotics trade as a natural extension of	25)

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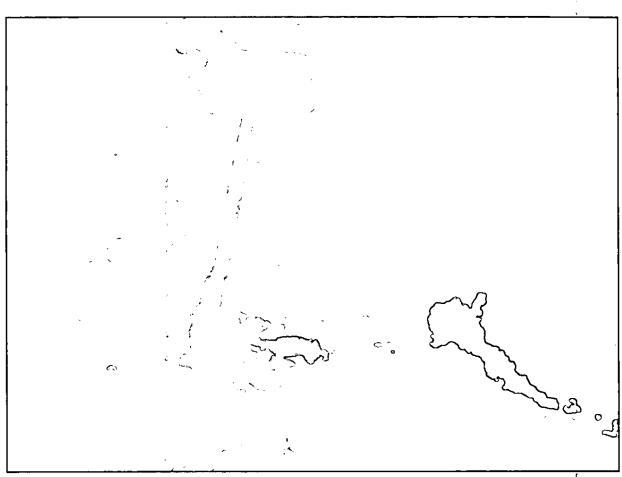


Figure 6. Cocaine base laboratory and airstrip in southeastern Colombia, August 1983.

their already profitable illegal activities. Moreover, several Colombian insurgent/terrorist groups apparently have entered the drug business—at least to a limited degree—further complicating any government drug control effort.

Traditional Colombian Traffickers

Colombian traffickers recently have sought to expand their illicit activity and consolidate their position and increase their influence in Colombia. According to US Embassy reports, some traffickers have been openly using the large sums of money available to them to attempt to infiltrate established political parties, secure public office, block drug control legislation and programs, and in general create a favorable climate for their activities. The traffickers' astute and

aggressive use of the Colombian media—to portray themselves as heroes taking on the giant from the north—not only has won them some popular support but at times has put the government on the defensive. During the past year, for example, traffickers mounted a well-orchestrated propaganda campaign that helped scuttle the Mutual Legal Assistance Treaty and block the extradition of two Colombian drug traffickers to the United States.

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According to DEA, many of the Colombian drugtrafficking organizations are secretive, closed, selfperpetuating criminal enterprises with vast financial

resources at their disposal. Motivated by power and profit, the more sophisticated and professional syndicates operate in much the same way as large multinational corporations—with compartmentalized functions such as finance, banking, legal defense, transportation, and logistics, as well as import-export and retail departments. Some organizations are drug specific, others handle a variety of drugs, and still others smuggle all types of contraband such as electrical appliances, weapons, and jewelry.

Many organizations rely on trusted family members to carry out operations, a major obstacle to any effort by drug enforcement authorities to penetrate these illicit trafficking operations. A typical example of a traditional Colombian trafficking organization is the Manuel Garces Gonzalez family, identified by Colombian police in February 1982 as one of the most active narcotics-trafficking networks in Colombia. The Gonzalez group operates out of Medellin, Family members act as foreign representatives to oversee the export of at least 200 kilograms of cocaine a month to the United States and Europe. Other drug-trafficking families identified by the Colombian Police and DEA include those headed by Bernardo Londono Quintero, Fabio Ochoa Restrepo, Joaquin and Jaime Builes, Carlos Lehder Rivas, Gomez Van Grieken, and Fernando Correa.

Nontraditional Traffickers

Several Colombian insurgent/terrorist groups apparently are also involved in the illicit drug trade. Although the activities of such groups do not rival those of the traditional trafficking families, their involvement in drug trafficking is a matter of some concern to military and police officials, who fear that the insurgents are using drug traffickers and their smuggling networks to obtain arms and money.

The Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC). The largest and most formidable Marxist-Leninist insurgent group in Colombia, the FARC entered the drug business about 1977, at first exacting fees from traffickers for use of FARC-controlled territory. It soon began to tax coca production in its strongholds and, according to US Embassy reports, has even established production quotas for growers and wage guidelines for workers. Embassy reports

also indicate that one of the FARC's fronts in southeast Colombia was organized expressly for the control of coca production, with the aim of using the profits from the trade to support other FARC units. Embassy officers also suspect the FARC is responsible for two attacks in 1983 on National Police antinarcotics patrols, one in the San Jose del Guaviare region and the other in an area of heavy coca cultivation along the Rio Vaupes between Calamar and Caruru.

The National Liberation Army (ELN). The ELN is a small Castroite Marxist-Leninist organization established in 1963 that operates throughout Colombia. According to unconfirmed Embassy reports, ELN members have been involved in extorting money from coca growers and in cultivating marijuana.

The Popular Liberation Army (EPL). Founded in 1967, the group was originally associated with the now defunct pro-Beijing Colombian Communist Party/Marxist-Leninist (PCC/ML). The EPL is active in Colombia's Cordoba Department and in the Gulfo de Uraba region. Colombian authorities have told US officials that they suspect that the EPL gets some of its weapons from drug traffickers operating in the Gulf of Uraba region and that some EPL members may be engaged in marijuana cultivation and trafficking.

The Colombian 19th of April Movement (M-19). The M-19, a leftist terrorist group that rose to prominence in 1974, successfully used the drug-smuggling apparatus of Jaime Guillot Lara to bring a large shipment of weapons into Colombia in October 1981. According to US Embassy reporting, it has extorted money from traffickers and members of their families.

Government Reaction

Government reaction to the narcotics situation suggests an increasing recognition of the problem, but prospects for a comprehensive antinarcotics program remain remote. Since August 1983, several Colombian officials have initiated and supported a number of

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drug-related measures, prompted—we believe—by an increased awareness of the growing domestic drug abuse problem, reaction to the public flaunting by some drug traffickers of their illicitly acquired wealth, and increasing concern over the blatant efforts of some traffickers to participate actively in the Colombian political process. The actions taken include:

- Congressional hearings last August on the influence of drug money in Colombian politics, which brought unexpected national attention to the growing infiltration of drug traffickers into the Colombian political system.
- Participation of several government ministers in a Bogota drug abuse awareness conference sponsored by the United States last September. Breaking with tradition, these ministers acknowledged publicly that Colombia has a drug abuse problem. At the time, the US Embassy in Bogota believed the conference contributed materially to a more favorable climate for US drug control initiatives.
- · An announcement at the conference by the Minister of Health of plans for a national drug abuse awareness and prevention campaign to be headed by the wife of Colombian President Betancur.
- · A speech in September by the mayor of Bogota outlining a proposed antidrug campaign that would feature a crackdown on street sales of cocaine-laced marijuana cigarettes, called bazucas, to juveniles.
- · Bogota's decision to send an eight-man technical team to Mexico and the United States in late September to study the use of herbicides in controlling marijuana and coca cultivation and the subsequent decision to implement a test spray program.
- The destruction of a large-scale cocaine- hydrochloride-processing facility along the Rio Taurare in Caqueta Department by Colombian National Police. The operation, which resulted in the seizure of an estimated 8,500 kilograms of cocaine hydrochloride, also included the arrest of more than 40 persons, the seizure of seven aircraft, and the destruction of 10 laboratories.

- Minister of Justice Rodrigo Lara Bonilla's plans, according to the US Embassy, to publicly identify trafficking organizations, discredit drug traffickers through media campaigns, cancel the pilot licenses of traffickers, disable unauthorized landing strips, issue arrest warrants for major drug traffickers, and investigate drug-related corruption of the judiciary.
- The creation of a bilateral enforcement working group with Venezuela that in February culminated in an agreement reaffirming the two countries' commitment to joint cooperation in controlling drug trafficking, guerrilla operations, and kidnaping along their common border.

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Despite these statements and plans, both existing and proposed drug control programs in Colombia face constraints—recently enumerated by the US Embassy in Bogota—that will allow drug traffickers to continue to operate with relative impunity:

- · Social. A longstanding public attitude of ambivalence toward drug issues makes it difficult for the Colombian Government to obtain cooperation or stir up enthusiasm for drug control programs. Many Colombians simply do not view marijuana or coca cultivation as a criminal activity, and some continue to believe that drug trafficking actually generates significant employment and wealth for the country.
- · Economic. High unemployment in both rural and urban areas assures traffickers—who pay higher wages (US \$7.50 per day) than can be earned in legitimate agriculture (\$3.00 per day) or in menial city jobs—an abundant and cheap supply of labor. Moreover, complicated and increasingly restrictive government import controls have contributed to the continued traffic in contraband of all kinds.
- Political. Government decisions on drug control will continue to be influenced in the coming months by competition among government agencies for scarce resources; political expediency; intimidation by traffickers; widespread corruption; inadequate drug laws; ineffective legal, penal, and judicial systems; and a lack of effective political and military control over some drug cultivation zones.

• Geographic. Colombia's proximity to the United States and its long unpatrolled coastlines bordering two oceans ideally suit it for illegal drug-trafficking operations. Moreover, Colombia's mountainous northern departments and the vast tropical rain forest of the southeastern departments are physically and climatically well suited to marijuana and coca cultivation, but not conducive to enforcement activities.

We believe the development of an effective Colombian antinarcotics program also has been constrained by a lack of strong presidential support and leadership. Betancur has given the narcotics problem little attention. He avoided drug issues during his campaign and has since shown little interest in formulating a coordinated drug policy, being preoccupied instead with Third World politics, Colombia's troubled economy, and the persistent indigenous terrorist and insurgent threat.

In addition, Betancur's Hispanic nationalism has resulted in the implementation of a new foreign policy that constrains development of a Colombian antinarcotics policy. More oriented toward the Third World and designed both to demonstrate Colombia's independence from the United States and to propel the country to the forefront of Latin America's diplomatic ranks, this policy has already contributed to two setbacks for US drug control efforts in Colombia:

- The Foreign Relations Committee of the Colombian House of Representatives—echoing and probably influenced by Betancur's views—voted to postpone indefinitely debate on the US-Colombian Mutual Legal Assistance Treaty, according to foreign press reports, on the grounds that certain articles are unconstitutional and should be renegotiated.
- President Betancur decided not to sign the final papers for the extradition of any Colombians to the United States. Betancur apparently shares the views of some of his closest advisers that the Extradition Treaty is an attack on Colombian sovereignty.

Indicators of Possible Change

The lack of a strong government program to counter the activities of well-organized trafficking groups—already a problem—may reach crisis proportions if drug production increases according to our expectations. We will continue to monitor crop production prospects, and there are a number of indicators that bear watching to detect further changes in Colombian attitudes toward drug control. The clearest of these involve decisions that will be made at the highest level of government:

- The decision by President Betancur on the extradition to the United States of major Colombian narcotics trafficker Carlos Lehder Rivas. Betancur's refusal to approve the extradition of two other Colombian traffickers to the United States on nationalistic grounds and his recent talks with US officials on the status and implementation of the Extradition Treaty, however, do not augur well for
- Decisions by the Colombian Government on whether or not to resurrect the Mutual Legal Assistance
 Treaty that is designed to facilitate US investigation of illegal drug-related financial transactions and seizures of drug traffickers' financial assets.

Lehder's extradition to the United States.

A second set of indicators that reflect further changes in attitudes at the ministerial level include both domestic and foreign policy actions. On the domestic scene:

- The extent of the Government of Colombia's multimedia campaigns and sponsorship of city and departmental drug abuse conferences.
- The probable resignation—partly out of frustration—of Minister of Justice Rodrigo Bonilla Lara, who is the principal advocate in the Colombian Government for drug control and who supports US policies in this area.

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•	Completion of a herbicidal spray testing program begun in February 1984 and the implementation of a herbicidal spray campaign against marijuana and coca plants by June 1984.
•	A high-level executive decision to commit the Colombian military to any antinarcotics efforts.
•	The extent of Colombian Government enforcement of drug laws, as measured by National Police

On the foreign policy side:

eradication and interdiction statistics.

- Extent and status of Colombian efforts to implement regional initiatives in drug control, such as the resolutions adopted at the South American Narcotics Accord Conference in November 1983 and, more specifically, the ongoing dialogue between Colombian and Venezuelan officials over increased cooperation in border control matters.
- Colombian Government reactions to US legislation curtailing US foreign aid to drug source countries that do not demonstrate verifiable progress in crop reduction.
- The level of cooperation between Colombian Government personnel and Drug Enforcement Administration and State Department narcotics officers especially in the wake of US seizures of a Colombian ship (Ciudad de Popayan) and aircraft (Avianca) for involvement in drug trafficking.

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This second set of domestic and foreign policy indicators is not as likely as the first to provide an unambiguous signal of the direction of change in Colombian narcotics policy but may help predict additional decisions at the highest level.

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