

MEĐUNARODNI NAUČNI SKUP „DANI ARČIBALDA RAJSA“
TEMATSKI ZBORNIK RADOVA MEĐUNARODNOG ZNAČAJA

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THEMATIC CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS OF INTERNATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

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PREFACE

Dear readers,

In front of you is the Thematic Collection of Papers presented at the International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days”, which was organized by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade, in co-operation with the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia, National Police University of China, Lviv State University of Internal Affairs, Volgograd Academy of the Russian Internal Affairs Ministry, Faculty of Security in Skopje, Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security in Ljubljana, Police Academy “Alexandru Ioan Cuza” in Bucharest, Academy of Police Force in Bratislava and Police College in Banjaluka, and held at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, on 10 and 11 March 2016.

The International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days” is organized for the sixth time in a row, in memory of the founder and director of the first modern higher police school in Serbia, Rodolphe Archibald Reiss, PhD, after whom the Conference was named.

The Thematic Collection of Papers contains 165 papers written by eminent scholars in the field of law, security, criminalistics, police studies, forensics, informatics, as well as by members of national security system participating in education of the police, army and other security services from Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Greece, Hungary, Macedonia, Montenegro, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine and United Kingdom. Each paper has been double-blind peer reviewed by two reviewers, international experts competent for the field to which the paper is related, and the Thematic Conference Proceedings in whole has been reviewed by five competent international reviewers.

The papers published in the Thematic Collection of Papers contain the overview of contemporary trends in the development of police education system, development of the police and contemporary security, criminalistic and forensic concepts. Furthermore, they provide us with the analysis of the rule of law activities in crime suppression, situation and trends in the above-mentioned fields, as well as suggestions on how to systematically deal with these issues. The Collection of Papers represents a significant contribution to the existing fund of scientific and expert knowledge in the field of criminalistic, security, penal and legal theory and practice. Publication of this Collection contributes to improving of mutual cooperation between educational, scientific and expert institutions at national, regional and international level.

The Thematic Collection of Papers “Archibald Reiss Days”, according to the Rules of procedure and way of evaluation and quantitative expression of scientific results of researchers, passed by the National Council for Scientific and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia, as scientific publication, meets the criteria for obtaining the status of thematic collection of papers of international importance.

Finally, we wish to extend our gratitude to all the authors and participants in the Conference, as well as to all those who contributed to or supported the Conference and publishing of this Collection, especially to the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.

Belgrade, June 2016

The Programme Committee

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Topic II

POLICE ORGANIZATION - STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONING

CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF POLICE OFFICERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

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Abstract: The paper specifies the career development of police officers in the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia (MoI RS). In this regard, this document covers the following issues: 1) defining employment conditions for admission in MoI RS, 2) the classification of jobs in the MoI RS (includes the determination of equivalent organizational units and equivalent jobs in the MoI RS movement in the career of police officers) 3) requirements for promotion to the higher rank within the same immediate and senior management levels (including the requirements of the internal competition for attending appropriate managerial level training, as well as the conditions of internal competition to fill the vacant managerial positions and ranking of the candidates, and 4) the key selection and training as a condition for promotion and transfer of police officers. In addition, the focus of this document is on explaining the idea that career advancement is based on rank / profession as a condition for attending training for the managers of the appropriate level and applying for appropriate job positions. In addition, considerable attention is dedicated to the tabular modeling of police officer career. All of the above mentioned regarding career development of police officers, MoI RS, is subject to the current Law of the police and secondary legislation which defines its individual provisions. Some attention of this document is devoted to transitional arrangements for the implementation of the career development of police officers, MoI RS.

Keywords: career development, police officers, promotion, transfer, conditions.

INTRODUCTION

The career development of police officers is a process of continuous improvement to maximize an employee's individual and organizational performance, with the aim of lawful and effective contribution to the strategic goals of the Ministry. An integral part of career development and career advancement is the movement of a police officer from the workplace at the lower position to a higher hierarchical level. The mentioned progression is based on the minimum rank / profession, as a condition for the internal competition: (1) attending training for the managers of the appropriate level and (2) for applications to an equivalent job position. This introduces two levels in the process of selective employment of police officers in management positions (which was not the case), that creates conditions that only capable, competent and motivated candidates (those with the best performance) are suitable for applications in managerial positions, thus creating the preconditions that only quality candidates

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fill the positions which are planned for the most complex operating jobs and the highest level of responsibilities. In order to obtain the immediately higher rank / profession is no longer enough just to cumulatively fulfill previously needed conditions (appropriate level of education, the time spent in the previous act and the corresponding official rates), but it is necessary to successfully pass the professional examination for the lowest rank / title of the immediately higher-level management, which is implemented upon completion of training for managers of the appropriate level.

DEFINING MANNER AND CONDITIONS OF ENTERING INTO EMPLOYMENT SYSTEM OF MOI RS

Employment with the Ministry shall be entered into through a vacancy notice, or by means of assuming employees from another government authority based on the agreement of officials and with the consent of the person being assumed. Employment with the Ministry may be entered into only for job positions envisaged by the act on interior organization and job classification, and in cases when filling in a job position is in accordance with the adopted personnel plan. The competition is mandatory for employment in the Ministry and filling vacancies, however it does not apply in cases of admission of candidates with higher education institutions that are educated in accordance with the special program of study with the Ministry on the basis of previously concluded contracts (such institution is *The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies*²). The procedure and manner of implementing a vacancy notice shall be prescribed by secondary legislation.³

A person entering into employment with the Ministry, in addition to general conditions for employment in a government authority, must meet the following special conditions:

1. Be a citizen of the Republic of Serbia;
2. Have registered permanent residence in the Republic of Serbia for at least five uninterrupted years before filling an application to enter into employment;
3. Shall not have dual citizenship for those job positions where exclusively the citizenship of the Republic of Serbia is required;
4. There are no security threats for the performance of activities in the Ministry;
5. Fulfill the criteria of health, mental and physical capacity, and the criteria of competences for the job position that he applies for.
6. In the entry into employment procedure, the Ministry shall take into account the representation of national minorities, in accordance with the law⁴.

Employment with the Ministry shall be prohibited for persons:

7. Undergoing criminal proceedings for criminal offences which are prosecuted *ex officio*,
8. Convicted of a criminal offence which is prosecuted *ex officio*,
9. Sentenced to a term of imprisonment longer than six months,
10. Whose employment with a government authority was terminated due to serious violation of official duty by a final decision of a competent authority,
11. Whose employment with a legal person with public authority was terminated due to violation of the work responsibility or breach of work discipline,

²Decision on the Establishment of Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, "Official Gazette of RS", No 58/06.
³Article 135 *Law on Police*, http://www.parliament.gov.rs/upload/archive/files/cir/pdf/predlozi_zakona/3712-15.pdf.

⁴ Article 137 *Ibid.*

12. Convicted by a final judgment of a misdemeanor with an element of violence or of another misdemeanor making him unfit for the performance of activities at the Ministry, and

13. If security threats are determined in the procedure of conducting a security check.

Data on the persons wishing to enter into employment with the Ministry shall be collected in the procedure of performing security checks and may not be used for other purposes⁵.

Optimal use of the mentioned provisions of the *Law on Police* is possible with admission to employment in the executants working places, with a secondary education and exceptionally high degree education (e.g. If the workplaces of high complexity jobs whose filling is required narrow specialization, for example, helicopter pilot). Staffing job of a police officer requires the prior completed basic police training at the Centre for Basic Police Training (CBPT)⁶ in Sremska Kamenica, after successfully mastering the curriculum, and certification of students *The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies* (ACPS) in terms of mastering basic police training after successful completion of the second year of basic studies). This solution optimizes the admission of candidates to the MoI RS according to the criteria of economy, time and efficiency, because the candidates (in this case students of ACPS) at their own expense certified for the occupation of a policeman, which allows them to acquire competencies for employment in the workplace of a policeman at MoI RS etc., to work and study, work if they leave the studies, in which the MoI RS without additional competition (time, money, and energy resources) fills the jobs of police officers (police officers) with secondary education competent candidates.

To apply the mentioned solution, it is necessary to include the content of basic police training that is implemented in the CBPT Program in the first and second years of basic vocational and academic studies in criminology at ACPS, necessary to be done in the new cycle of ACPS accreditation. Staffing jobs of police officers with secondary school education, on the principles of automatism, should be implemented and the recruitment of students financed by the ACPS after successfully mastering first study program of the Academy. Staffing the above mentioned jobs is possible and the recruitment and self-financing students ACPS - as needed. Finally, when it comes to filling vacancies with police officers with higher school education, it is possible to be done only from the ranks of police officers who have spent at least two years effectively in the workplace of a policeman of general jurisdiction.

CLASSIFICATION OF JOBS AND CAREER MOVEMENT OF THE POLICE OFFICERS IN THE MINISTRY

Job positions in the Ministry shall be appointed positions, managing and staff-member job positions (a police officer, a forensic technician, gendarme, specialists, etc.). The persons at appointed positions in the Ministry shall be exempt from provisions on career development of employees of the Ministry. The Ministry does not apply the provisions on career development of employees in the Ministry on the people at the position (which means that the minister and state secretaries are out of a career system)⁷.

⁵Article 138 *Ibid.*

⁶The purpose of Center for basic police training is to train participants basic police training including both male and female who have completed four years of high school. The aim of basic police training is to provide quality vocational training for uniformed police officers of general jurisdiction, which meets the needs of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia for qualified Contracted personnel in the fields referred to police work, and society as a whole, in accordance with the *Law on Police*, "RS Official Gazette", No. 101/05, 63/09 - YC, 92/11 (http://www.copo.edu.rs/novi_vid_obuke.html, available 10.07.2009).

⁷Article 147 of the *Law on Police*, http://www.parlament.gov.rs/upload/archive/files/cir/pdf/predlozi_zakona/3712-15.pdf.

Managing job positions of police officers shall be classified into four categories depending on the complexity of jobs, education, rank/grade, and degree of responsibility, authorization to make decisions and independence in work, as follows⁸:

1. *Strategic-level managing job positions* (Police Directorate - director, deputy and assistant director of police, department / unit commanders and their deputies – and equivalent functions within the sector MOI RS, MOI RS organizational units outside the Directorate and sectors);

2. *High-level managing job positions*, (generally speaking, the regional police directorate (RPD) - Deputy Chief of the RPD to the Assistant Chief of Administration and an independent organizational unit of the Police Directorate (Gendarmerie (G), Special Anti-Terrorist Unit (SATU), Helicopter Unit (HU) and others);

3. *Middle-level managing job positions* (management positions of intermediate levels (from Assistant to the Head of the RPD, except (R)PD for the City of Belgrade));

4. *Operational-level managing job positions* (management positions of operational level (in general, positions in police stations (PS) and police substations (PSS), including 1stcategory PS / PSS Assistant Commander and its equivalent jobs)).

The above classification of jobs is written in general. In order to be applied, it is necessary to establish equivalent organizational units and equivalent positions in the MoI RS. For example, it is necessary to establish that the PS/PSS (1st Category) = troop Gendarmerie, or 1st cat. PSS Assistant commander = Crime Inspector in the Department for Combating Crime of Police Station (DfCCoPS) = ... or – 3rdCategory PSS Commander = 2ndCategory PSS Deputy Commander = 1stCategory Assistant commander = ... The attached abbreviations are listed for better understanding of the following table, which refers to the proposal of equivalent organizational units and equivalent jobs in the Directorate of Police MoI RS.

Table 1: *Proposed equivalent organizational units and equivalent jobs in the Directorate of the Police MoI RS⁹¹⁰¹¹²¹³*

LEVEL	Work-place/duty PoGJ ⁹	Equivalent PoGJPU for the City of Belgrade	Equivalent CP ¹⁰	Equivalent TP ¹¹	Equivalent BP ¹²	Equivalent PUoSP ¹³	Ranks range from / to	The numerical code act (training / education)
EXECUTANT	Police officer	Police officer	/	Traffic policeman	Border policemen	Gendarme Gendarme	Junior sergeant of police/ Police sergeant	1-2 (CBPT/ ACPS)
	2. Escort	2. Escort	/	2. Escort	2. Escort	Gendarme	Junior sergeant of police/ Police sergeant	1-2 (CBPT/ ACPS)
	1. Escort	1. Escort	Crime technician DfCCoPSPS	1. Escort	1. Escort	Gendarme	Junior sergeant of police/ Police sergeant	1-2 (CBPT/ ACPS)
	Patrol leader	Patrol leader	Crime technician DfCCoPS	Patrol leader	Patrol leader	Gendarme	Police sergeant/ 1 st Sergeant	2-3 (CBPT/ ACPS)
BASIC TRAINING FOR MANAGERS (minimum Police sergeant)								

⁸Article 148 *Ibid.*

⁹ PoGJ – Police of General Jurisdiction

¹⁰ CP – Criminalistic Police

¹¹ TP – Traffic Police

¹² BP – Border Police

¹³ PUoSP – Police Units of Special Purpose

OPERATIVE	1 st Category S. sector Leader	1 st Category S. Sector Leader	/	1 st Category T.S. Sector Leader	1 st Category S. Sector Leader	/	1 st class Sergeant / Warrant officer	3-4 (CBPT/ACPS180 ECTS)
	LPD ¹⁴ Commander	LPD Commander	/	/	/	Group leader	1 st class Sergeant / Warrant officer	3-4 (CBPT/ACPS180 ECTS)
	PSS/PS DS Shift leader	PSSDS Shift leader	Crime inspector SE ¹⁵	TPSS ¹⁶ DS Shift leader	BPSDS Shift leader	Assistant shift chief of Duty service of squad of The Gendarmerie	1 st class Warrant officer / Warrant officer	3-4 (CBPT/ACPS180 ECTS)
	PSS/PS DS Shift chief	PSSDS Shift chief	Crime inspector	TPSSDS Shift chief	BPSDS Shift chief	Shift chief of Duty service of squad of The Gendarmerie	Warrant officer/ 1 st class Warrant officer	4-5 (ACPS180 ECTS)
	Assistant 3 rd Category PSS/PS commander	Assistant 3 rd Category PSS Commander	3 rd Category PS Crime inspector	Assistant 3 rd Category TPSS Commander	Assistant 3 rd Category BPS Commander	Team leader	1 st class Warrant officer / Warrant officer	4-5 (CBPT/ACPS180 ECTS)
	Assistant 2 nd Category PSS/PS commander	Assistant 2 nd Category PSS Commander	2 nd PS Category Crime inspector	Assistant 2 nd Category TPSS Commander	Assistant 2 nd Category BPS Commander	Deputy platoon commander (1 st team leader)	Warrant officer/ 1 st class Warrant officer	4-5 (ACPS180 ECTS)
	Deputy 3 rd Category PSS Commander	Assistant 2 nd Category PSS Commander	2 nd Category PS Crime inspector	Assistant 2 nd Category TPSS Commander	Assistant 2 nd Category BPS Commander	Deputy platoon commander (1 st team leader)	Warrant officer/ Warrant officer	4-5 (ACPS180 ECTS)
OPERATIVE	Deputy 1 st Category PSS/PS commander	Assistant 1 st Category PSS Commander	1 st Category PS /DfC-CoPS Crime inspector	Assistant 1 st Category TPSS commander	Assistant 1 st Category BPS commander	Platoon commander	Warrant officer 1 st class / 2 nd Lieutenant	5-6 (ACPS 180 ECTS)
	Deputy 2 nd Category PSS commander	Assistant 1 st Category PSS Commander	1 st Category PS /DfC-CoPS Crime inspector	Assistant 1 st Category TPSS commander	Assistant 1 st Category BPS commander	Platoon commander	Warrant officer 1 st class / 2 nd Lieutenant	5-6 (ACPS 180 ECTS)
	3 rd Category PSS Commander	Assistant 1 st Category PSS Commander	1 st Category PS/ DfC-CoPS Crime inspector	Assistant 1 st Category TPSS commander	Assistant 1 st Category BPS commander	Platoon commander	Warrant officer 1 st class / 2 nd Lieutenant	5-6 (ACPS 180 ECTS)
	Head of 3 rd Category PS	Deputy 1 st Category PSS commander	1 st Category PS / DfC-CoPS Group leader	Deputy 1 st Category TPSS commander	Deputy 1 st Category BPS commander	Assistant Company commander	2 nd Lieutenant / Lieutenant	6-7 (ACPS 180/240 ECTS)
HIGHER TRAINING FOR MANAGERS (minimum 2nd Lieutenant)								

14 LPD – Local Police Department
15 SE – Secondary Education
16 TPSS – Traffic Police Substations

INTERMEDIATE	Deputy 1 st Category PSS/PS commander	Deputy 1 st Category PSS Commander	1 st Category PS / DfC-CoPS Chief	Deputy 1 st Category TPSS Commander	Deputy 1 st Category BPS Commander	Deputy Company commander	Lieutenant / Captain	7-8 (ACPS240 ECTS)
	RPD/PD ¹⁷ Officer	An officer in the department at the headquarters (R)PD ¹⁸ for the City of Belgrade	RPD ¹⁹ / DoCP ²⁰ Crime inspector	RPD/DoTP ²¹ Officer	RC ²² Officer	Gen-darme-rie squad headquarter Officer	Captain / Major	7-8 (ACPS240 ECTS)
	Head of 2 nd Category PS	1 st Category PSS Commander	DoCPRP-DGroup leader	1 st Category TPSS Commander, Head of DoTPRPD Department	1 st Category BPS Commander	Company commander	Captain / Major	8-9 (ACPS240-300 ECTS)
	1 st Category PSS Commander	1 st Category PSS Commander	Head of DoCPRPD-Department	1 st Category TPSS Commander, Head of DoTPRPD Department	1 st Category BPS Commander	Company commander	Captain / Major	8-9 (ACPS240-300 ECTS)
	Head of 1 st Category PS	1 st Category PS Head	Head of DoCPRPD	Head of DoTPRPD	Head of RC Department	Head of Department at the Gendarmerie squad headquarter	Major/ Lieutenant colonel	9-10 (ACPS300 ECTS)
	Head of PDRPD	Head of department at the headquarters (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Head of department at DoCPRPD	Head of DoTPat RPD	Head of DoBP ²³	Head of department at the Gendarmerie squad headquarter	Major/ Lieutenant colonel	9-10 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Deputy head of PDRPD	Deputy head of department at the headquarters (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Deputy head of DoCPRPD	Deputy head of DoTPRPD	Deputy head of RC	Deputy head of department at the Gendarmerie squad headquarter	Major / Lieutenant colonel	9-10 (ACPS300 ECTS)
	Head of PDRPD	Head of department at the headquarters (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Head of DoCPRPD and head of DoCP ²⁴ GPD ²⁵	Head of DoTPRPD and head of department TDP ²⁶ GPD	Deputy chief at the headquarters DoBP ²⁷	Head of Department at the Gendarmerie squad headquarter	Major/ Lieutenant colonel	9-10 (ACPS300 ECTS)
Deputy head of RPD	Assistant Head of department at the headquarters (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Head of department of DoCP GPD	Head of department of TDP GPD	Head of department of DoBP	Assistant commander of the Gendarmerie squad	Major/ Lieutenant colonel	9-10 (ACPS300 ECTS)	
HIGH TRAINING FOR MANAGERS (minimum Major)								

17 PD – Police Department

18 (R)PD – (Regional) Police Department (specific)

19 RPD – Regional Police Department

20 DoCP - Directorate of Criminalistic Police

21 DoTP – Department Of Traffic Police

22 RC – Regional Centre

23 DoBP - Directorate Of Border Police

24 DoCP – Directorate of Criminalistic Police

25 GPD – General Police Directorate

26 TPD - Traffic Police Directorate

27 DoBP - Directorate of the Border Police

ADVANCED	Deputy head of RPD	Deputy head of department at the headquarters (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Deputy head of Service of DoCP GPD	/	Head of RC	Deputy commander of the Gendarmerie squad	Lieutenant colonel / Colonel	10-11 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Head of RPD	Head of department at the headquarters (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Head of Service of DoCP GPD	/	/	Commander of the Gendarmerie squad	Lieutenant colonel / Colonel	10-11 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Assistant head of PDi ²⁸ GPD	Assistant head of (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Assistant head of DoCP GPD	Assistant head of TDP GPD	Assistant head of DoBP GPD	Assistant commander of the Gendarmerie	Lieutenant colonel / Colonel	10-11 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Deputy head of PD GPD	Deputy head of (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Deputy head of DoCP GPD	Deputy head of TDP GPD	Deputy head of DoBP GPD	Deputy commander of the Gendarmerie	Colonel / General	11-12 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
WITHOUT TRAINING FOR MANAGERS (minimum Colonel)								
STRATEGICAL	/	Head of (R)PD for the City of Belgrade	Head of DoCP GPD	Head of TDP GPD	Head of DoBP	Commander of the gendarmerie	Colonel / General	11-12 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Assistant police director	/	/	/	/	/	Colonel / General	11-12 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Deputy police director	/	/	/	/	/	Colonel / General	11-12 (ACPS 300 ECTS)
	Police director						Colonel / General	11-12 (ACPS 300 ECTS)

The proposal for equivalent organizational units and equivalent jobs in the Directorate of Police MoI RS is neither complete nor applicable if not covered by secondary legislation. Specifically, this or a similar proposal should be covered by the act on internal organization and systematization of jobs and secondary legislation which refers to salaries in the MoI RS. More specifically, the act on salaries should provide basic (hierarchical) or additional coefficient (complexity of), as well as the coefficient of rank / title. This allows tinting hierarchical levels among workplaces, so that equivalent jobs are determined by the same basic coefficient (e.g. for 1st cat. PSS Commander and Company Commander of Gendarmerie), higher extra coefficient for the workplace involving more complex tasks (for Gendarmerie Company Commander, in this case) and the coefficient for the appropriate rank / profession (e.g. the range is 8-9, the captain-major), with the same coefficient if they were both officers of the same rank or higher for police officers of higher rank (Company Gendarmerie, in this case) and the coefficient for the appropriate rank / profession (e.g. the range is 8-9, the captain-major), with the same coefficient if they were both officers of the same rank or higher for police officers of higher rank.²⁸

The classification of jobs by levels of police organization is a precondition for moving into a career of police officers. Career is an ambiguous term, most commonly referring to building a career in management, profession and sequence of activities in the working life of the employee.²⁹ The first definition is circular (career building career ...), the second relates to the profession, with anything regarding the question of what happens if someone does not have a

²⁸ PDi - Police Directorate

²⁹ Super, D.E., Hall, D.T., Career Development: Exploration and Planning. In: Rosenzweig M.R., Porter L.W., *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 29, Palo Alto, 1978, p. 334

profession and a career, so that the most valid definition refers to the sequence of career jobs in the course of working life of an employee.³⁰

Advancement in the career of police officers is possible through promotion and transfer. The progress of the police officers is part of career development in the course of which a police officer moves from hierarchically lower to the hierarchy higher workplace. It can happen within the hierarchical levels, as well as the transition from lower to higher hierarchical level of the police organization. On the other hand, the transfer of police officers represents a shift from one to another job of the same hierarchical level from one to another type of police, for example from the workplace of a policeman to the workplace of a crime technician in the PS (which implies the need for specialized training for which they apply) or move from one to another position of lower hierarchical levels within the same category of police (e.g. for family reunification and other reasons), which does not require specialized training.

CONDITIONS FOR ADVANCEMENT IN DIRECT HIGHER RANK WITHIN THE SAME AND DIRECTLY SENIOR MANAGEMENT LEVEL

Conditions, procedure, manner of gaining and losing ranks/grades in the Ministry shall be regulated by secondary legislation within 90 days following the entry into force of this Law.

In accordance with the same career development, it is necessary:

1. To acquire the next rank/grade within the same level, the conditions that must be met include the appropriate educational level, the necessary number of years in service in the previous rank/grade, successfully completed professional training for a rank/grade, and appropriate annual assessments,

2. To acquire the next rank/grade of the immediately higher level, the conditions that must be met include the appropriate educational level, the necessary number of years in service in the previous rank/grade, successfully completed professional examination for a rank/grade, and appropriate annual assessments

The time spent in the rank/grade with a lower educational degree shall not be calculated in the time needed for the promotion. Only the time effectively spent at the job position in the previous rank/grade shall be calculated in the years of service needed for promotion to the following rank/grade.³¹

Therefore, career progression based on rank / grades is necessary to determine the ranks / grades of police officers. The status of authorized police officials includes police officers having the following ranks:

1. with secondary education - junior police sergeant, police sergeant and first class police sergeant,
2. with the first stage of higher education - warrant officer of the police, 1st class police warrant officer and 2nd police lieutenant,
3. the second degree of higher education - a lieutenant of police; police captain; police major; police lieutenant colonel; police colonel and a police general.

Police officers in the status of persons on special duties shall have the following grade:

1. with secondary education - junior police officer; a police officer and a senior police officer;

³⁰ Robbins, S. P. Coulter, M, *Management*, the eighth edition, Data status, Belgrade, 2005, p. 299

³¹ Compare to the Article 165 *Law on Police*, http://www.parlament.gov.rs/upload/archive/files/cir/pdf/predlozi_zakona/3712-15.pdf.

2. with the first stage of higher education - junior police assistant; police contributor and freelance police assistant;

3. the second degree of higher education - senior police assistant; younger police adviser; police adviser; independent police adviser; senior police adviser and the chief police adviser.

In this connection, a new by-law determining necessary time needed in one rank / profession in order to obtain immediately higher rank / position, if all conditions are met must be passed. On this occasion, a proposal contained in the following table, which applies only to ranks, but not the titles, is submitted.

Table 2: *Work time needed in one rank in order to obtain immediately higher rank, if all conditions are met:*

The numerical rank code	Rank	CBPT (years)	ACPS 180 ECTS	ACPS240 ECTS	ACPS300 ECTS	Level	Professional qualifications (type and level of education)
	Junior sergeant of police	5	4	3	/	EXE-CU-TANT	MIDDLE + CBPT (ACPS)
	Sergeant of police	5	4	3	/		
	1 st class police ssergeant	Until retirement (20 years)	4	3	/		
BASIC MANAGEMENT TRAINING (minimum Sergeant of police)							
	Police Warrant Officer	/	5	3	2	A JUNIOR OFFICER	HIGH (professional studies ACPS - 180 ECTS)
	1 st class Police Warrant Officer	/	5	3	2		
	2nd Police Lieutena-nt	/	Until retirement (8 years)	3	2		
SENIOR MANAGEMENT TRAINING (minimum 2nd lieutenant of police)							
	Police Lieutena-nt	/	/	4	3	OFFICER	HIGH (BASIC STUDIES ACPS - 240 ECTS)
	Police Captain	/	/	4	3		
	Police Major	/	/	Until retirement (4 years)	4		
HIGH MANAGEMENT TRAINING (minimum major of the police)							
	Police Lieutena-nt Colonel	/	/	/	4	SENIOR OFFICER	HIGH (Basic + Bachelor or Specialist academic studies ACPS - 300 ECTS)
	Police Colonel	/	/	/	4		
	Police General	/	/	/	Until retirement	GENERAL	

In terms of Internet, the competition for attending training of appropriate managerial levels and ranking of candidates may be:

1. Applicant on internal competition (voluntary)
2. CBPT (Central School of Interior - CSoI), ACPS (College of Internal Affairs - Police College, Police Academy - PA), and exceptionally, other higher-school educational institutions,
3. The appropriate level of education (180, 240, 300 ECTS)
4. MINIMUM RANKS (!),
5. Decision on the appointment of candidates to the workplace:
 - Executorial level for attending basic management training,
 - Operating levels, to attend more management training,
 - Secondary level, to attend high managerial training.
6. The three-year average official score which must be at least exemplary - 3.51.
7. The decision of the selection committee on the admission of candidates to managerial training to which he has applied.

On the other hand, the conditions of internal competition to fill the vacant managerial job and ranking of candidates may be:

1. Registration of candidates on the internet market (voluntary)
2. CBPT (CSoI), ACPS (College of Internal Affairs - Police College, Police Academy - PA), and exceptionally, other higher-school educational institutions,
3. The appropriate level of education (180, 240, 300 ECTS)
4. MINIMUM RANK (!),
5. The absence of security disturbances (determined by the security check)
6. Confirmation of successfully completed:
 - primary managerial training, to work in managerial positions at the operating level
 - higher managerial training, to work in managerial positions the secondary level,
 - high managerial training, to work in managerial positions of high and strategic level.
7. Appropriate three-year average official mark which must be at least exemplary - 3.51.

In the case of both internal competitions, ranking of candidate can be based on: the level of education (number of ECTS), the rank, the average official estimates, the workplace, the entrance exam (test) and others. Thus, each of the criteria is subject to scoring. Therefore, the rank as a condition occurs in both competitions, as protective mechanism of the integrity of the police profession, so that a lieutenant cannot compete for a high managerial training, and that a major cannot compete for the position predicted for the ranks ranging from colonel to general. This introduces the principle of heightened gradualism.

Bearing in mind the existing situation (that not all police officers have finished the course for police officers, CBPT, etc.), it is necessary to provide a transitional period, temporary solutions, which will give rise to the permanent ones depending on the cumulative fulfillment of conditions by the applicant, within 24 months as follows:

- successfully completed training in the CBPT, education CSOI, ACPS (the College of Internal Affairs - Police College, Police Academy - PA),
- the appropriate level of education (at least four-year secondary school, 180, 240, 300 ECTS), apart from those who need time to gain mentioned conditions in relation to the time left until their retirement,
- lack of security disturbances (determined by the security check),
- psycho-physical ability of candidates to perform police duties (determined by certificate Department of Occupational Health Ministries of Interior letters, in accordance with the Rules),
- three-year average official mark which must be at least exemplary - 3.51
- knowledge test.

KEY SELECTION AND TRAINING AS THE CONDITIONS FOR PROMOTION AND TRANSFER OF POLICE OFFICERS

To be a policeman in the MoI RS, in addition to performances (ability) and motivation (voluntariness, the absence of security interference), a police officer must have the competencies that fit that position. These prerequisites are necessary to achieve an adequate performance of police officers. These competencies enable students to acquire basic police training, i.e. training in CBPT or education at the undergraduate level at the ACPS. In addition to the other conditions provided for by law, the mentioned training and education are the prerequi-

site for the deployment of police officers in the workplace of a policeman for general jurisdiction, in which every police officer must spend at least two years of effective service.

In order to progress from executorial to the operating management level, among other things, a basic training for managers is required. To progress from the operational to middle management level, higher management training is required. Further, for the advancement from the medium to the high level of management, high management training is necessary. Finally, progress from the coordinating strategic level does not require training for managers. The following is a brief analysis of the main characteristics of the above managerial training.

Orientation contents of the basic training for managers training may be: organizational models, their advantages and disadvantages, the combination of models, organizational forms, methods and styles of work, the role of managers, performance management, respect for the principles and factors of management, etc., depending on the educational needs. The realization of this training should be entrusted to the RS Ministry of Interior (coordinator), ACPS (cooperator), because it is a potentially large number of participants which requires that the mentioned training is distance learning. Accordingly, the RS Ministry of Interior has issued a strategy,³² positive experience,³³ personnel³⁴ and material base.³⁵ After training, information on certified participants is entered in the personnel base of the MoI RS, thus enabling an insight into human resources of the MoI RS, in terms of the number of candidates who meet the requirements of internal competition in order to fill vacancies for which the mentioned training is a fundamental requirement.

Approximate content of higher training for head of training can be: project management, knowledge, motivation, stress, risk, human resources, organizational culture and behavior, crises, etc., depending on the educational needs. Ideally, the realization of this training should be entrusted to the MoI RS and the ACPS. As with previous training, the information on certified participants is entered in the personnel base of the MoI RS.

A restricted number of participants is assigned to attend higher training course for managerial positions. Depending on the educational needs, provisional content of this training can include strategic context of management functions (methods of strategic analysis, programming work, (re)structuring, etc.), communications, public relations and the media, international police cooperation, leadership, etc. The training should be entrusted to the ACPS (carrier) and the MoI RS (cooperator). As with the above mentioned managerial training, the information on certified participants is entered in the personnel base of the MoI RS.

The need for the mentioned managerial trainings stem from the concept of career development provided for by the *Law on Police*, in particular by the provisions relating to the career advancement. These needs should be harmonized with the possibilities. In fact, all this training should be included in the Human Resources Plan, which should be harmonized with the plan (program) of MoI RS, which is a major limitation of the financial plan of the Ministry.

32 *Strateški dokument: Uvođenje elektronskog učenja kao podrške razvoju sistema obuke u Ministarstvo unutrašnjih poslova*, MUP RS, Beograd, 2011. (*Strategic document: Introduction of e-learning to support the development of the training system in the Ministry of Interior*, MUP RS, Belgrade, 2011).

33 Hurn, Dž; *Evaluacija pilot kursa e-učenja za pripadnike policije u Srbiji*, CEPOL, Bramshil, 2012. (Hurn, J.; *Evaluation of the pilot e-learning course for police officers in Serbia*, CEPOL, Bramshill, 2012)

34 *Ibid.*

35 <http://www.moodle.org>, available 20.08.2013.

CONCLUSION

The Law on Police provides for career progression on the basis of the ranks. In order to make the provisions of the *Law on Police* applicable, a catalogue of jobs is required including the restructuring of the Ministry. After that, it is necessary to classify jobs into appropriate levels, one of which is an executive job position, and four managerial ones. Therefore, there is the need to establish equivalent organizational units and jobs and their grading not only by the Act on internal organization and systematization of jobs, with a focus on the range of ranks / grades, but also by the by-laws relating to wages. This is necessary in order to define what advancing and transfer are (whether or not requiring specialist training) as part of career development in the MoI RS. Finally, in addition to the minimum rank / grades, as well as the requirements for: (1) attending training for the managers of the appropriate level and (2) for application to the appropriate position, it is necessary to determine the other conditions of internal competition for career advancement in the MoI RS.

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THE STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF THE PERMANENT ON-CALL POLICE DUTY¹

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Abstract: The paper presents the results of the study of the permanent on-call duty, as a specific police activity, which has been traditionally present in the majority of organizational units at all levels of the police organization. Proceeding from the fact that this police activity is empirically well-known, but normatively and theoretically almost not addressed, the study was focused on finding the answer to the question: What are the main structural features of the permanent on-call duty in police stations or police field offices in the Republic of Serbia, especially in terms of designing structural parameters of job grouping and coordination? The results of such oriented study have identified the following key features of the permanent on-call police duty: the prevailing non-institutionalization of this activity, its formalization and permanent – constant availability to the citizens; project and shift features of its functioning; the coordinating, informative and control and supervisory role; and the matrix (project-functional) and network elements of interconnectivity with the other police activities.

Keywords: the police, on-call duty, project, shifts, matrix, network.

INTRODUCTION

The term *police activities* can be defined as a set of specific, in the police organization traditionally present methods of the concurrent (integrated) performance of multiple police jobs, in accordance with the decision – order issued by the competent superior. As separate and mutually clearly differentiated police activities, the police organization most often lists the following activities: foot patrolling, patrolling, operational, and permanent on-call police duty, as well as management, control and auxiliary activities, for example. Within each of these activities, the police officers perform specific police functions, that is, general and specific police tasks, at a certain time and in a certain place. For performing these police functions in police stations or field offices, appropriate organizational units mostly have not been established.

1 This paper is a result of the research conducted within the scientific research project III 47023 “Kosovo and Metohija between national identity and european integration (Kosovo i Metohija između nacionalnog identiteta i evrointegracija)”, which is managed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of RS with no. 179045; This paper is a result of the research conducted within the scientific research project “Management of police organization in preventing and mitigating threats to security in the Republic of Serbia“, which is financed and carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade - the cycle of scientific projects 2015-2019.

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Instead, through daily shift schedules, the temporary organizational units are formed for this purpose. Thus, for example, for the performance of the patrol activity, appropriate patrols are established (foot patrols, motorized patrols, etc.), while for the performance of the permanent on-call police duty, respective temporary units are formed, commonly called the permanent on-call service shifts.

Since the practice of forming and functioning of the temporary organizational formations is similar to the project model of job grouping, the study was focused on identifying and scientifically describing the prevalence of this model in the structuring of the shifts of the permanent on-call service in the police stations and field offices. Furthermore, the study also aimed at identifying and scientifically describing the key features of the relationship between the permanent on-call service shifts and other (permanent and temporary) organizational structures in the previously mentioned police stations and field offices, such as patrols, foot patrols or other operational teams. In the realization of these goals, the scientific method of contents analysis was mostly used, as well as the method of comparative analysis of the theoretical models of organizational structure and practice of structuring of temporary units in police stations. In this regard, the paper represents an attempt to theoretically shape the up to now theoretically insufficiently shaped police practice of performing the permanent on-call duty.

Although they do deserve to be analyzed in the same or a similar way, this study did not cover the institutionalized forms, that is, the formal organizational units established for the purpose of the permanent on-call duty. In addition, this study was not focused on the analysis of the jobs performed within the activity of the permanent on-call duty, but on the organizational aspects of this activity and its relationship towards other police activities in the police stations, and police field offices.

THE TERM ON-CALL DUTY AS A POLICE ACTIVITY

The term “on-call duty” as a police activity has not been sufficiently explored in theory, nor terminologically and normatively precisely determined in the Republic of Serbia. In the available literature, mainly textbooks, this police activity has been analyzed sporadically, mostly in terms of its content and the problems related to its functioning.⁴ In the Law on Police⁵, for example, no provision mentions the term “on-call duty”, nor similar – synonym terms of functional or organizational meaning. In by-laws, this term can be found in the title of one of the police activities, or in the titles of certain organizational units of the police. For example, in the Instructions issued by the Minister of Interior⁶, the term “on-call duty”, without a more detailed explanation of its meaning, denotes one of several police activities, while in the Rulebook on Internal Organization and Classification of Job Positions of the Ministry of Interior, the term “Police Dispatch Centre” denotes several organizational units of the General Police Directorate.⁷

However, empirically well-known fact (from police practice) is that the police activity with this or similar titles (on-call duty activity, permanent on-call duty activity, dispatch centre) has been traditionally performed in the majority of organizational units of the police at

4 See, for example: Субошић, Д. (2013). *Организација и послови полиције*, Београд: КПА, pp. 227–233.
5 *Закон о полицији*, „Службени гласник РС“, № 6/16.

6 *Упутство за вођење евиденција у станицама и другим јединицама милиције*, СТ 01 strictly confidential No. 2077/95, of 31 July 1995, p. 3 and form No. 1.

7 *Правилник о унутрашњој организацији (унутрашњем уређењу) и систематизацији радних места у МУП РС*, of 13 September 2005; 10 May 2006; 11 April 2007; 22 June 2009; 3 April 2012; and 23 May 2012; *Информатор о раду Министарства унутрашњих послова Републике Србије*, September 2015.

all its organizational levels. Even in those organizational units where this activity is not permanent, the on-call duty activity is established and performed from time to time, most often due to specific security situations, occurrences and events. In this traditional and empirical sense, the term “on-call duty” activity in the police organization can imply specific way of performing police functions in shifts, which provides continuous – all-day functioning of the organizational units of the police, meaning their permanent availability to the citizens, organizations and institutions, 24 hours each day of the year.

The on-call duty of the police, understood in the way as stated above, can be performed in different organizational forms, primarily as: 1) permanent and periodical, 2) active and passive, and 3) institutionalized and non-institutionalized on-call activity. The permanent on-call duty is performed 24 hours each day of the year, while the periodical on-call duty is established when needed, that is, for the purpose of specific security situations, occurrences and events, and lasts as long as there is a need for that type of activity, for which it was established in the first place. The active on-call duty implies the presence of police officers in the premises of the organizational unit, while the passive on-call duty implies them to be in a state of readiness and available at the address of residence or some other notified address in the headquarters of the organizational unit. The institutionalized on-call duty implies that the jobs falling under this activity are grouped in the corresponding formal organizational units, while the non-institutionalized on-call duty implies that these jobs, according to the appropriate daily work schedule (plan), are periodically performed by the employees of the organizational unit that was not established specifically for the purpose of performing these jobs.

By crossing the above-mentioned typologies of the on-call duty, various combinations can be established in the police organization, such as, for example: 1) the institutionalized or non-institutionalized permanent and active on-call duty, or 2) the non-institutionalized periodical active and/or passive on-call duty. At the same time, the analysis of the permanent on-call duty in the police organizational units of the Republic of Serbia shows that it is more often performed as permanent than periodical, and more often as non-institutionalized than institutionalized police activity.

The institutionalized performing of the permanent on-call duty, which is almost always active, can be illustrated through the shift work of the employees in a certain number of the organizational units of the police, which were established specifically for the purpose of performing these jobs. All of them, except the Operational Centre at the General Police Directorate headquarters, in their titles contain the term “on-call” or its derivative terms.⁸ The non-institutionalized and active on-call duty is characteristic for all municipal police stations outside the headquarters of the regional police directorates, as well as for the majority of police divisions, and police field offices within the regional police directorates.⁹

⁸ These organizational units include: the Operational Centre within the General Police Directorate Headquarters; the On-Call Operational Centre within the Border Police Directorate Headquarters; the Department for the On-Call Duty, Anti-Sabotage Protection, Biochemical Protection and Anti-Terrorism Protection within the Directorate for Protection of Specific Persons and Facilities; the Division for Operational Telecommunication, Permanent On-Call Duty and Protection with the Section for Permanent On-Call Duty and Protection within the Service for Combating Organized Crime; the On-Call Duty Service within the Special Anti-Terrorist Unit; the On-Call Duty Service (Police Dispatch Centre) within the City of Belgrade Police Directorate Headquarters, with the Police Office for On-Call Duty and Protection; police offices for on-call duty and interventions in police divisions within the headquarters of the regional police directorates in Kragujevac and Novi Sad; on-call duty services within the headquarters of the regional centres of the Border Police Directorate, and the Section for the On-Call Duty, Protection and Equipment of the Traffic Police Directorate of the City of Belgrade Police Directorate (Source: *Информатор о раду Министарства унутрашњих послова Републике Србије*, September 2015).

⁹ The exceptions from this are the organizational units listed in the previous footnote, namely: the Police Office for On-Call Duty and Protection within the On-Call Duty Service (Police Dispatch Centre)

Even though it has not been institutionalized within a specific organizational unit, the non-institutionalized performing of the permanent and active on-call duty has been formalized in two ways. The first relates to the fact that the Rulebook on Internal Organization and Classification of Job Positions in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia,¹⁰ systematized the job position of the chief or shift leader of the on-call service in every police station or field offices, and the second relates to the fact that the daily work schedule (plan) in every police station or field offices provides for the performance of the on-call duty in two shifts, each lasting 12 hours. The first – day shift, generally lasts from 7 a.m. until 7 p.m., while the second – night shift, lasts from 7 p.m. until 7 a.m. For each of these shifts, one structural – personnel shift of police officers is determined, which generally consists of: chief, or shift leader, and sometimes even of deputy chief or deputy shift leader and the corresponding number of uniformed police officers for tasks execution, depending on the category of a particular police station and characteristics of the security environment.¹¹

The non-institutionalized periodical active and/or passive on-call duty is established when needed, also in the form of shift work, in all organizational units of the police, including also departments and other organizational units within the General Police Directorate Headquarters, within the City of Belgrade Police Directorate Headquarters, and within the headquarters of other regional police directorates, as well as in police stations and field offices. This type of the on-call activity is established by a decision of the head of that organizational unit, and is performed in accordance with the appropriate on-call schedule (plan). It can be established even in those organizational units that continuously perform the permanent (non)institutionalized on-call activity, which can be illustrated by the example of the on-call duty of managerial staff in police stations or field offices.

THE PROJECT FEATURES OF THE PERMANENT ON-CALL DUTY PERFORMED IN SHIFTS

In the organizational and management theory, the term “project” implies a complex, relatively independent and non-repetitive endeavour that involves a set of mutually interrelated and resource-limited activities, organized in such a way that their implementation leads to achievement of a predefined goal within the scheduled time and the projected costs. Although different authors in different ways determine the basic features of a project and project activities, these features, according to the organizational theory, usually includes:¹²

1. uniqueness (unrepeatability);
2. orientation to a specific problem and clearly set objective (result);
3. a set of mutually interrelated activities with which the result should be achieved;
4. time-limited nature (the beginning, duration and the end);
5. limitation in terms of resources (human resources, means, costs); and
6. temporary nature of the project organization and its management system.

within the City of Belgrade Police Directorate Headquarters, as well as police field offices for on-call duty and interventions in police divisions within the headquarters of the regional police directorates in Kragujevac and Novi Sad, where the permanent on-call duty has been institutionalized. (Source: *Информатор о раду Министарства унутрашњих послова Републике Србије*, September 2015).

¹⁰ *Правилник о унутрашњој организацији (унутрашњем уређењу) и систематизацији радних места у МУП РС*, of 13 September 2005; 10 May 2006; 11 April 2007; 22 June 2009; 3 April 2012; and 23 May 2012.

¹¹ Compare: Стевановић, О. (2003). *Руковођење у полицији*, Београд: Полицијска академија, p. 190.

¹² Compare: *Управљање пројектима*, Агенција за унапређење државне управе Владе РС, Београд, 2003, p. 9.

Although it seems indisputable that the permanent on-call police duty is more of a process nature, than of a project nature, the comparative analysis of its and of the previously mentioned six project characteristics, may also indicate different conclusions. It is indisputable that the process nature of this police activity is clearly shown by its daily (continuous) and repetitive performance. However, the shifts of the on-call duty service as phases of this police activity can also be observed and analyzed as its project (phase) parts. Within these shifts, the jobs of the permanent on-call duty are performed by temporary organizational formations (personnel shifts of the on-call duty service), which can also be viewed as project teams.

Despite the fact that the work of one of the shifts seemingly looks the same as the work of every other shift of the on-call duty service, almost each of them has a certain level of uniqueness (non-recurrence, unrepeatability). The uniqueness of each work shift is decisively influenced by the following: the constantly changing environmental conditions; the diversity of security occurrences, events and issues; the frequent changes in the number and structure of the project teams (personnel shifts); as well as a transience of temporary organizational formations (patrols, foot patrols, operational teams, security checkpoints), whose work is coordinated by the corresponding shifts of the on-call duty service.

The objective of the permanent on-call duty activity is basically not directed towards a specific (narrower, special) security issue (that can endanger the security) or towards the object of protection (whose security is protected). It focuses on the general security of the citizens and institutions, and on development, maintenance, and when needed, establishment of a security environment for their normal life and work, without the fear of crime and other forms of threats to their safety. Nevertheless, even such generally directed objective is achieved in a constantly changing security environment, which is why it takes on specific features for each shift of the on-call duty service. For the same reason, each shift of the on-call duty service performs a set of specific and mutually interrelated activities that serve to achieve such a specific objective.

Although it usually does not seem so, the activity of each shift of the on-call duty service (permanent on-call duty activity), despite their uniqueness, their determination according to the objective (effectiveness) and activities, as well as temporal determination (the beginning, duration and the end), is also characterized by spatial determination of their jurisdiction, and which is particularly important, limitations in terms of engagement of the human, financial and material resources. In addition, each of the (personnel) shifts of the on-call duty service usually consists of temporary personnel composed of police officers, including also the specific temporary management system, or a temporary shift manager of the shift of the on-call duty service, traditionally called the chief or the leader of the shift of the on-call duty service.

Starting from the described features, the total activity of each of the shifts of the permanent on-call duty service can be viewed as a project, but also as a sub-project within the same activity at the level of one calendar day. At the same time, each personnel shift of the on-call duty service (permanent on-call activity), can be viewed as a project team. Even in case that, according to the rigorous theoretical criteria, these functional and organizational forms could not be qualified as projects or project teams, the project approach in their structuring, functioning and analysing can be of special importance for their understanding. And, which is even more important, the project approach can be of particular influence on the quality of structuring of shifts, effectiveness in achieving their objectives and efficiency of use of the limited human, material and financial resources.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PERMANENT ON-CALL DUTY AND OTHER POLICE ACTIVITIES

The starting point in understanding the substance of the relationship between the permanent on-call duty and other police activities in police stations and field offices definitely is its content. This activity, among other things, includes the following functions: 1) monitoring and assessing the security situation and security occurrences and events in the area of territorial jurisdiction of the police station; 2) directing and coordinating the work of police officers, the organizational units of the police and other security entities (organizations, departments and bodies); 3) receiving security notices and information, their recordkeeping and taking appropriate measures that cannot be delayed; 4) internal and external reporting and informing on the security situation, occurrences and events and measures taken in that respect; 5) sending police officers on tasks, monitoring their work and their admission upon returning from the task, and 6) a number of other functions, mainly of executive nature.¹³

These activities, in addition to many others – primarily executive police activities, clearly indicate some management functions of the permanent on-call duty activity, including in particular the activities of monitoring and evaluation, coordination, informing and control. The activity of monitoring and evaluation is focused primarily on the security environment, while the activities of coordination, informing and control are aimed at those who perform other police activities (patrol, foot patrol, protection and other police activities). Such a relationship between the permanent on-call duty activity (which in the previous section of this paper was defined as project and shift activity) and other listed police activities (which are predominantly of functional nature), can be viewed as a project-functional relationship based on a matrix model of job grouping (Figure 1), as well as a network relationship based on a theoretical model of dynamic network structure (Figure 2), at the level of each shift of the permanent on-call duty.

More specifically, the matrix relationship between the permanent on-call duty and other police activities during one shift can be explained by analyzing the matrix model of job grouping shown in Figure 1.¹⁴ The matrix rows of this model consist of all police activities in the police station (field office) performed during one shift of the permanent on-call duty (from 07 a.m. until 07 p.m. and from 07 p.m. until 07 a.m.). Despite the fact that it does not contain all the features of a project, the entirety of these activities can be viewed as a project. On the other hand, the matrix columns of the same model consist of different police activities of functional nature (on-call duty activity, security protection, foot patrol, patrol, traffic patrol, operational and other activities), or the corresponding number of police officers designated to carry out these activities within each shift of the permanent on-call duty. At the same time, conditionally – with a previously mentioned limit, the matrix rows can be seen as temporary project teams, while the matrix columns provide functional professionalism in the work of the police station or field office, during each shift of the permanent on-call duty activity.

13 Read more in: Субошић, Д. (2013). *Организација и послови полиције*, КПА, Београд, pp. 227–228.

14 The term matrix, in mathematics, is defined as the product of a row vector and a column vector. See more about this in: Ђуричин, Д., Јаношевић, С. (2005). *Менаџмент и стратегија*, Београд: Економски факултет, pp. 89–90. More about the matrix approach to the job grouping see also in: Mintzberg, H. (1979). *Structuring of Organizations*, Prentice Hall; Jones, G. (2000): *Organisational Theory – Text and Cases*, Prentice Hall; and Stoner, Dž., Friman, E., Gilbert, D. (1997). *Menadžment*, Београд: Želind (according to: Петковић, М., Јанићијевић, Н., Божићевић Миликић, Б. (2006): *Организација*. Београд: Економски факултет, pp. 84–86).

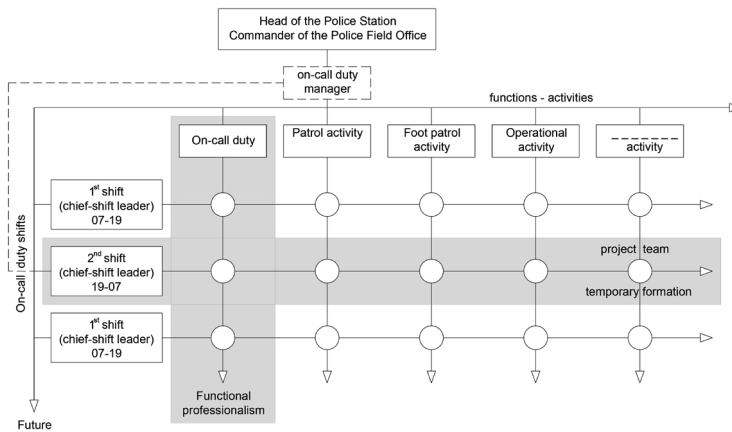


Figure 1: *The Model of Matrix Approach to the Relationship between the Permanent On-Call Duty and Other Police Activities in a Police Station or Police Field Offices*¹⁵

In accordance with the theoretical model of matrix departmentalization, such viewed project-functional structure of each shift of the permanent on-call duty includes the following: 1) that all the activities of the police station or field office (planning, organization, management, control) are still managed by head of police station, or commander of police field office; as well as 2) that the authority of the project manager are delegated to the chief, or the shift leader in relation to all holders of police activities whose performing is established by the daily work schedule within the corresponding shift of the permanent on-call duty. The possible challenging of the fact that the chief, or the shift leader, has all features of the project manager, does not diminish the importance of the project approach in analyzing, understanding and explaining the specific roles of the permanent on-call duty in the functioning of the police station or police field office. The most important among these roles, are certainly the coordinating, informative and control and supervisory roles.

According to theoretical sources, the basic features of such – project-functional or matrix job grouping are the dual seniority, the temporary nature of the project and the changes of shift teams.¹⁶ The dual seniority implies a two-line (functional and project) distribution of authority and responsibilities, and functioning of the police officers under the dual management. In the functional (permanent) line, the police officers performing patrol, foot patrol or operational activities, for example, are subordinated to the commander of the police field office, or to the chief of the criminal police department of the police station, while in the project (temporary) line, they are simultaneously and temporarily subordinated to the shift chief (leader) of the on-call duty service as a shift project manager. The temporary nature and changeability of shift project teams as the second feature of the matrix job grouping implies that the project teams are under the authority of the chief of the shift of the on-call duty service as the project manager only while the shift in which they work lasts, and that in the following shifts, composition of the teams usually is not, and doesn't have to be the same.

¹⁵ Adapted from: Mc Clelland, D. (1976). *Power is the great motivator*. Harvard business Review, March-April 1976, p. 272.

¹⁶ Read more in: Robbins, S.P; Coulter, M. (2005). *Menadžment*. Beograd: Data status, pp. 246–247; Stevanović, O. (2012). *Безбедносни менаџмент*, Beograd: КПА, pp. 158–161; Stevanović, O. (2003). *Руковођење у полицији*, Beograd: Полицијска академија, pp. 95–97.

The main benefits of the matrix approach to job grouping are:¹⁷ 1) effectiveness and efficiency, 2) flexibility and balance, and 3) communicability and developmental nature. The matrix approach, above all, can contribute to the quality (effectiveness and efficiency) of the police organization's functioning. The temporary nature of shifts and changing of the composition of project shift teams in the matrix job grouping, make these teams flexible, which allows the police organization to adapt to the demands of the situation and to better utilize their resources in a specific situation. The basic limitation of the matrix job grouping is the risk of possible conflicts between the project and functional managers (between chief of the on-call duty service shift and commander of the police field office, for example), and between the project team members performing various police activities – functions. The dual seniority, as another problem related to the matrix job grouping, may sometimes favour a situation in which employees spend their time arguing about whose role is more important and to which of the two managers they should show greater loyalty (to the chief of the shift or to the head of division, for example).¹⁸

Proceeding from the previously analysed coordinating role of each shift of the permanent on-call duty in relation to other police activities, their mutual relationship can also be classified as a network relationship based on the theoretical model of a dynamic network structure (Figure 2).

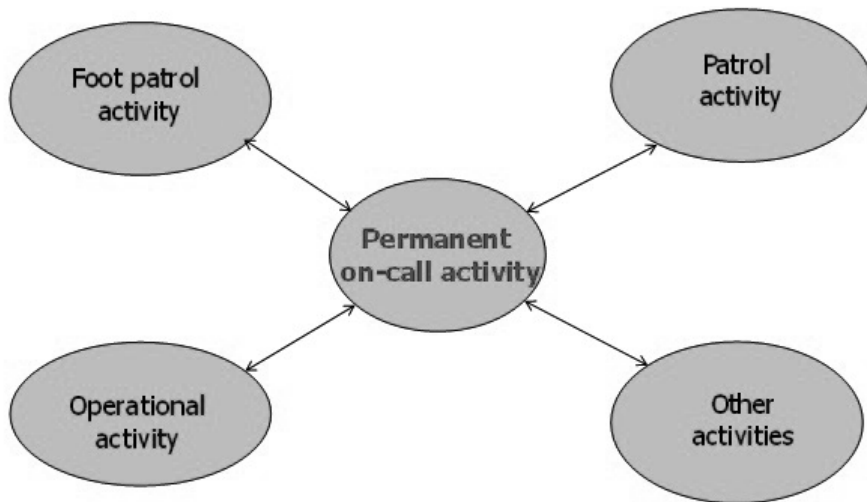


Figure 2: *The Network Model of the Relationship between the Permanent On-Call Duty in a Police Station or Police Field Office*

CONCLUSION

By synthesizing the results of the study presented in this paper, it is possible to draw several important conclusions that characterize the permanent on-call duty in the police stations and field offices in the Republic of Serbia. As the most important of the many features of this activity in the police stations and/or police field offices, this study has identified and described: 1) the prevailing non-institutionalization, its formal nature and constant – permanent availabil-

¹⁷ See more in: Стевановић, О. (2012). *Безбедносни менаџмент*, Београд: КПА, pp. 160–161.

¹⁸ *Ibidem*.

ity to the citizens, 2) project and shift features of its functioning; 3) coordinating, informative and control and supervisory role, and 4) the elements of the matrix (project-functional) and network connection with other police activities.

In the police stations and police field offices in the Republic of Serbia, the on-call duty is more often performed as permanent than periodical, and more as non-institutionalized than institutionalized police activity. Its prevailing non-institutionalized nature results from the fact that only several organizational units of the police were established for performing of this activity. Irrespective of whether it is non-institutionalized or not, the permanent on-call duty was formalized through its normative establishing as one of a number of police activities, as well as through establishing job positions with the title *chief* or *shift leader of the on-call duty service* in every police station, and police field office. In each of them, the permanent on-call duty (on-call duty service) is available to the citizens 24 hours each day of the year.

In relation to its uniqueness, clearly defined duration, defined goals and methods to achieve them, limited resources and temporary nature of the organizational structure and management system, the permanent on-call duty at the level of each of its shifts can be regarded as a specific project, despite the fact that according to the strict theoretical criteria it does not meet all the requirements to be qualified as such. With the same limitation, each of the personnel shifts of the permanent on-call duty can be viewed as a project team and/or as the core of the network, with mainly coordinating, informative and control and supervisory role in relation to the other police activities in police stations and field offices.

With the help of the previously mentioned roles, the relationship between the permanent on-call duty and other police activities in the police stations or police field offices can be seen as a combination of project and functional, or matrix and/or network job grouping. In such observed relationship, the chief (leader) of the shift of the on-call duty service undoubtedly has a role of project manager of a shift team or core network, consisting of all police officers involved in performing of police activities and police functions during their shift. Even though, according to the strict theoretical positions, such project-shift and functional and/or network grouping of police jobs cannot in all elements be qualified as the matrix and/or network, the matrix and/or network approach to the understanding of shift work in a police station or police field office, can positively influence the effectiveness and efficiency of their overall functioning.

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RESEARCH ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF EFFECTIVE CAMPUS POLICING SYSTEM IN CHINA

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Abstract: As one important component of school management, campus security is not only related to the personal benefits and property interests of students and staff, but also related to educational progress and social stability. It is crucial to establish a campus policing system in China due to the increasingly severe safety problems on campus. Campus policing has transferred from the traditional case-solving model to the new model of partnership between police and residents. The paper is composed of three parts. The first part describes the function and feasibility of campus policing. Campus policing is based on the theory of community policing and it is also the extension and deepening of community policing theory. The second part gives an account of the development and current situations of campus policing and compares it with the campus policing model in the United States. The characteristics of American campus policing system include the following aspects: a. campus police are the core of campus safety management and they undertake the function of law enforcement and safety management. b. campus security legislation has become a stable long-term mechanism. c. by cooperation with school, family and community, campus police try to create a more secure environment and protect the safety of students effectively. The third part dwells on the construction of campus policing system in China. The system should be actively involved in the following: a. legislation of campus security law; b. the police officers and educators will be provided with an array of such programs as physical training, law knowledge, safety education, first-aid training. c. students' and staff's safety awareness should be aroused and police-campus partnership should be promoted to reduce crimes against students and staff.

Keywords: campus security, campus policing, policing model, campus safety management

INTRODUCTION

As one important component of school management, campus security is not only related to the personal benefits and property interests of students and staff, but also to educational reform and social stability. It is crucial to establish a campus policing system in China due to the increasingly severe safety problems on campus. Campus policing has transferred from the traditional case-solving model to the new model of partnership between police and residents. The focus lies in the transfer from the reactive to the proactive policing.

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A. The function of campus policing

Campus policing is a policing model of the police authorities which aims to have close links with the school, develop preventive measures, enhance safety consciousness of students and staff, and form a control of crimes that may occur in or within the surrounding campus.² The main contents of the campus policing include the following two aspects: the first is law enforcement of public security. Namely, in accordance with the law, campus police maintain the campus public order, deal with criminal and security cases, combat and punish crimes, prevent and control crimes, and protect personal and property safety on campus. This part mainly deals with the police criminal judicial authority and the police administrative power. The second is the public security precaution, such as fire alarm, traffic maintenance, campus daily patrol, dormitory guard duty at night, reporting illegal and criminal activities, security prevention education and training, and other daily work. This part involves not only the campus security work, but is also related to the public management powers.

In order to maintain the security and stability of the campus, the public security departments should take the responsibility to safeguard the campus safety. Currently campus violence in China becomes more and more serious, so it is urgent to take a new mode of prevention and control to ensure the safety of the campus, mobilize every possible force, improve the qualities of the students, obtain the maximum amount of information to prevent and stop the occurrence of serious campus crimes.

B. The statistics of campus crimes in China

The survey of Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai and other 10 provinces and municipalities conducted by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Public Security shows that each year about 16000 students died of unnatural deaths throughout the whole country. That means an average of 40 students suffer from abnormal death daily.³ According to statistics, in 2004 the Ministry of Public Security reported 67 vicious criminal cases which seriously endangered the safety of teachers and students (including kindergarten children), involving 25 provinces, resulting in a total of 50 people being dead and 171 injured. From January to April, 2005, the Ministry of Public Security reported 19 vicious criminal cases, involving 9 provinces, resulting in 9 people killed and 34 injured.⁴

In 2010, it is staggering to know that 6 campus violent crimes occurred within 50 days. The social system tends to collapse in the rapid changes of society. Some people may lose the basic norms, and thus feel lost, people gradually get alienated. Emile Durkheim named the alienation "anomie" due to the disintegration of the system.⁵ In this fast changing society people tend to produce similar "sense of anomie", especially in recent years, some kinds of social contradictions have become increasingly prominent, some criminals try to aim at the weakest students and the campus becomes a place for them to vent their anger. In this situation, instability factors on campus increase significantly and school violence occurs frequently, which seriously interferes with the school teaching and the safety of teachers and students. The students injured or killed in the violence cause irreparable loss to their families. The violence has also brought a sense of insecurity to the society. Therefore, the establishment of campus policing system is an urgent need to solve the increasingly serious campus violence.

2 Wang Liliang. The Cultivation of College Students' Employment Ability [J]. Journal of Gannan Normal University. 2009 (2)

3 Tao Jianqun. Campus Security: the Alarm Sounded Again [J]. Time and Tide. 2005 (23)

4 Wan Senlin, Zhang Ping. Cultivation of Innovative Talents is the Fundamental Task of the University [J]. Communist Party Development and Ideological Education. 2005 (1)

5 Feng Juxiang. College Students' Career Planning Based on the Competition of Employment [J]. Career Stars. 2007 (2)

C. The existing campus security forces are not qualified for the prevention of campus incidents

The construction of the campus security team is directly related to the safety and stability of the campus. To illustrate the problem in China's colleges and universities as an example, in the past, Chinese colleges and universities public security departments used to be under the guidance of the public security agencies and they were the school's functional departments. But at present, the school security management team in China mainly consists of campus security personnel, employed security guards, and other personnel. From a practical point of view, the quality of these security guards is low and they are weak, so they could not constitute a powerful deterrent to criminals and they are unable to prevent the campus safety events effectively. First of all, the existing campus security personnel are not adequate and they are not powerful enough. According to the provisions of the higher authorities, the proportion of students and security personnel should be 0.5%.⁶ Secondly, the education background level of the campus security personnel is generally low; most of them only have received high school education. Owing to lack of professional knowledge in the business, law and the application of new technology, it is difficult for them to apply the modern information management and high technology in the field. Meanwhile, due to the limitations of their own education, security guards may deal with things in a simple way and lack of flexibility. Thirdly, most of the campus security guards have not undergone professional training. In the case of violent attacks on campus, they are unable to resist. At the same time, due to the shortage of school funding, it is difficult to provide sufficient defending weapons or equipment. Finally, because of the lack of legal provisions, the school security departments have no law enforcement powers, and also lack of corresponding law enforcement capacity. Therefore, it is easy to become a virtual organization. At present, it is necessary to construct campus policing mechanism.

THE SITUATION OF CAMPUS POLICING IN CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES

A. There exist gaps and vacuum of relevant laws in China

Unlike other countries, China has no special "Campus Security Act" and the relevant provisions exist in a series of departmental rules and regulations. In April 1988, approved by the State Council, the Ministry of Public Security, the State Education Commission, the Ministry of Human Resources and the Ministry of Finance jointly issued "the Notice of Implementation of Setting up Public Security Police Stations in Higher Education Institutions". The notice is an important basis for colleges and universities to establish police stations. So far, many colleges and universities in China have established police stations on campus, which have dual functions. On one hand, the police stations are one part of the administrative organizations in the university. On the other hand, the police stations are representative sections sent by the public security agencies. The establishment of the campus police stations helps to fight against the criminal offenses and create a good order for the teaching, researching and working on campus. But in April 1994, according to "the Notice on the Enterprises and Institutions of Public Security System Reform Opinions Approved by the Ministry of Public Security" issued by the State Council, the campus police stations in universities were revoked. In December 2002, based on the worsening situation of campus security, "the Notice of Strengthening Campus Security in Universities by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry

⁶ Peng Hui. Problems and Solutions of the Security Work in Colleges and Universities [J]. Entrepreneur World. 2009 (2). P. 116

of Public Security” (referred to as the Notice) was introduced. The Notice basically established the system of campus police stations in key universities. But whether the corresponding departmental rules or the issued Notice of December 2002, they cannot cover the fact that the relevant authorities of campus law enforcement lack of strong legal basis because of legal gaps and missing. The Notice has the low level of effectiveness, rough content, and simple lines and many other demerits. Due to shortage of funds, institutional adjustment, and other factors of management, the plan to station police officers in colleges and universities fell through. At the same time, the Notice did not give provisions of campus police in elementary and secondary schools.

B. American campus policing model – “zero tolerance”

In the 1980s and 1990s, the American university campus crime rates rose dramatically, including such malignant cases as robbery, rape, drug trafficking and gun violence. The students became the main prey of criminals and the security of the campus was threatened. Campus security issues become a major focus of concern by the public. Under these situations, the Congress of the United States enacted “Federal Student Right-To-Know and Campus Security Act of 1990”. The act demanded the universities should publish regularly the security situation and corresponding measures taken by the campus; and if necessary the universities should also timely release campus safety warnings in order to make the students and parents understand the school safety and take corresponding preventive measures. Afterwards, the act was revised three times in 1992, 1998 and 2000. To commemorate the girl Jeanne Clery who was brutally raped and murdered on campus, the law was eventually named the “Jeanne Clery Act”. The act first confirmed the implementation of campus police system at the federal level officially in some universities in the United States, making the system received official federal legal status and can be implemented and promoted in the nationwide. The act formed the most typical campus police system in the world. The act also put the amount of violation fine increased to nearly \$30000. It also provides that the Ministry of Education will stop implement fiscal subsidies to the school in case of many violations against students.

In 1994, the United States Congress passed “Goals 2000: Educate America Act”. In Item 7, it stipulates campus security, the provisions of which prohibit the emergence of firearms, alcohol and so on. In addition, the national legislations about campus security in the United States include “Campus Armless Regulations” and “the Law to Improve the Campus Environment” etc.⁷ On October 1st every year, Association of Safety Education in the United States discusses the protection of the safety of the students and the campus employees and puts forward corresponding reports. The report shall provide with crime data in the past three years and release the safety measures on campus. The new students in the school have the right to be informed of the criminal statistics.⁸ In 1999, under the authorization of Community Policing Office of the U.S. Department of Justice, the project “COPS in Schools: Keeping Our Kids Safe” was spread in the form of cooperative agreement (1999-SHWK-002) in the major primary and secondary schools in the United States.⁹

The United States exerts the successful experience of community policing to the campus safety protection. The community policing office of the U. S. Department of Justice initiatively combines policing with the campus environmental management work together, forms school campus security alliance through the school resources officer (hereinafter referred to as the SRO), and resists campus violence on the safety of teachers and students. In 2000 the United

7 Hou Ruijun. Review of Goals 2000: Educate America Act [J]. Journal of Mudanjiang Normal College, 2006 (4) P.88-90

8 Wu Xinzheng. the Safety Legislation and the Police System in American Colleges [J]. Journal of Wuhan University of Hydraulic and Electric Engineering. 2000 (3)

9 National School Safety Center, COPS In Schools Keeping Our Kids Safe. 141 Duesenberg Drive, 2000

States Department of Education confirmed the need to create a safe campus environment, which was based on strong school leadership, love between staff and students, active participation of parents and the community in school safety (law enforcement officers and community representatives should participate in the construction of school safety), students actively taking the initiative with the school to build a safe environment.¹⁰ The development and evolution of American campus police affairs reflect the idea of joint safeguarding the campus security between centralized government authority and social forces. The characteristic of American campus policing is to implement the policy of “zero tolerance” on campus. The so-called zero tolerance is how the police carry out rectification of community policing strategy in New York. The main content is to forbid street youth any tiny illegal and criminal acts, especially the small amount of drug addict and trafficking behavior. It can be said that the United States has a strict police management model. Its management scope includes both the campus and its surrounding areas.

C. Characteristics of American campus policing

(a). The campus police are the core of campus policing system in the US. The campus policing is under the governance of multi subjects. U.S. lawmakers and policy makers have always believed that to ensure the safety of school is a systematic project. To create a safe learning and living environment for students is not only the responsibility of the school, but also the demand for judicial department, education department, community organizations, non-governmental organizations, social media and parents to participate and support.¹¹ First of all, the campus police are the core of campus security management and the campus police department is a functional department of the school, under the leadership of the president and the board of directors directly. Campus police have law enforcement power and maintain the campus public order by the detection of cases and cracking down on campus crimes. At the same time, campus police also have the function of service. By providing a variety of services for the majority of teachers and students and the implementation of humane management, they try to narrow the distance between campus police and teachers and students. After decades of development, the United States campus police have become a highly professional team with a strict qualification and training system. Secondly, the Department of Education Administration in the United States regards guaranteeing the safe schools as an important administrative responsibility. Not only does it provide the material guarantee for school support, but also helps to guide the school security work and avoids the occurrence of accidents concerning students. Thirdly, the schools try to establish a cooperative mechanism with the local police and legal institutions. The schools hired local police to help develop a campus security program that is suitable for its characteristics, to deal with campus security incidents and to organize the safety education and training of students. Fourthly, many schools in the United States have succeeded in carrying out cooperative project on safety prevention among schools, families and communities. They fully mobilize the active participation of the community residents in different fields and build a closely linked community security network to guarantee the safety of students. Finally, the non-governmental organizations get involved in school safety management. For example, the Red Cross Society of the United States has become an important crisis management organization recommended by the Federal Education Department to the school.

(b). The United States attaches great importance to legislation and regularizes governance mechanism through legal norms. A succession of U. S. governments emphasize on the leg-

10 [the US] Daria: the Development of American Juvenile Justice System [J]. (translated by Dai Yisheng). the Issues of Juvenile Delinquency. 2005(4)

11 Fang Fang. Comparative Study on the Management Mode of Campus Security between China and the United States [J]. Modern Primary and Secondary Education, 2015 (2)

islands to protect the campus safety, especially since the 1990s, the Congress and the government have strengthened the governance of school safety through a series of school safety legislations. In 1990, the United States Congress passed the "Campus Security Act", giving a detailed specification of the campus security aspects. The Congress also formally recognized the campus police system by the way of legislation.

In addition to federal legislation, the United States has also issued a number of state laws and regulations to strengthen campus security on a more targeted basis. For example, the state of New York enacted the "Campus Armless Regulations", and "Rescue Plan" and other campus security acts. In 2000, the U. S. Department of Education formulated "Protect Our Kids: Guidance to Actions", providing the concrete operation instructions for the school to reduce violence on campus. The act emphasizes the importance of prevention, early intervention and individual service to prevent school violence. In 2005, the Department of Justice funded the proposal of "the Integration of Law Enforcement for School Safety: Milwaukee Initiative", which called on schools to strengthen the cooperation and communication between school security organizations.¹² The legislation in different periods intends to resolve the campus security issues in different stages based on legal norms, so that the school safety management has become a stable long-term mechanism.

(c). The United States has adequate funding and modernized equipment. Campus security work in the United States has sufficient funds. Most schools have adequate budget for campus security personnel and technical expenditure. Public (state) schools are financed by the state fiscal funds expenditure and private schools are funded by the school budget expenditure. Take the salary of American campus police as an example, in 2000, the annual salary of the average university police chief was 80 thousand to 100 thousand U.S. dollars, equivalent to other local police chiefs, higher than average professors.¹³

The campus security management equipment has the advantage of high technology. By using advanced preventive measures and improving the technical facilities, they can ensure the security personnel to perform the task effectively. In many places of the campus, a dedicated telephone alarm is provided. Any staff and students who found suspicious circumstances or emergency situations can immediately contact the alarm telephone and the communication center may immediately sound recording or video recording and make timely response and handling. The campus building doors and important building access doors are provided with a card key lock with password. No matter whether it is a dormitory, a classroom, an office and a library, an automatic alarm device is installed on the indoor ceiling, and some are equipped with automatic spraying fire extinguishing device. Each campus police department is equipped with a considerable number of modern police cars, patrol cars, emergency vehicles, etc.¹⁴

(d). The cooperation model of campus security is typical in the United States. To play the role of schools, families and communities, some cities in the United States continue to explore the cooperation of schools and parents, society and other aspects of security on campus. In Baltimore, Maryland, they would give full play to the combined effect of the school, the family and the community to create a more secure environment and protect the students' safety effectively through the partnerships between school, family and community. For example, due to the awareness of lack of care or supervision for many students in the late afternoon, which may lead to security issues, community volunteers and parent volunteers try to pro-

12 Li Jigang, Li Xuelian. Study on the Legislation of Campus Security: the Experience of Foreign Countries and the Option of China [J]. Teaching and Management, 2014 (1). P.15

13 Wu Xinzhen. the Safety Legislation and the Police System in American Colleges[J]. Journal of Wuhan University of Hydraulic and Electric Engineering. 2000 (3). P. 77

14 Zhou Xianghong. American Campus Police System and Its Enlightenment to China [J]. The Issues of Juvenile Delinquency. 2008 (6). P. 65 – 66

vide students with constructive and safe activities, with supervision of adults. Some schools regularly hold seminars on violence prevention to help families and community members to share ideas, to create a more secure family and community environment for young people, and to promote these concepts in the school newspapers. For those students who often play truant or have bad behaviors, some schools ask the supervisor to make a targeted project and invite the community volunteers to help students correct their bad behaviors. Some parents and community volunteers form voluntary patrol team to ensure safety of students in school and after school on the way.¹⁵

As can be seen, American colleges and universities have basically established a legal, professional police force, and have special law enforcement powers, thus effectively ensuring the safety of the campus. In addition to the Campus Security Act as a guarantee, the campus police also took high-tech means. In this way, they can not only ensure the legitimacy of law enforcement, but also ensure the rapid, timely, efficient and accurate enforcement. Because most American colleges and universities have open campus, and in the face of more complicated and difficult field, the electronic monitoring and prevention system has become an important approach to protect the modern campus. The new system can ensure 24-hour monitoring on campus and the fire, bandits, unexpected events can get timely treatment.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF CAMPUS POLICING AND SECURITY LEGISLATION IN CHINA

In order to use the campus policing development and construction experience of the US for reference and combine with China's specific conditions and the national education system, it is conducive to the implementation of campus security by understanding the fighting and prevention of campus violence. The campus police stations should be set up in colleges and universities by the public security agencies. The administration and business belong to the local public security agencies, but the police stations must comply with the relevant provisions of the school and realize the social security management of colleges and universities. Meanwhile, we should strengthen the campus and its surrounding environment, law and order in the centralized management, adhere to the principle of "cracking down simultaneously, giving priority to prevention, tackling the problem, focusing on the fundamental governance", conscientiously implement the principle of "who is in charge, who is responsible" and give full play to the positive factors, deal and control the problem together.

A. Proposal for legislation of Campus Security Act

In China, the protection of school students' personal safety has been stipulated in a series of provisions in the Criminal Law, Civil Law, Law on Protection of Juniors, the Education Law, the Compulsory Education law and the Teachers' Law. These provisions played a vital role to a certain extent. But there are a lot of campus safety problems that cannot be solved because there is a vacuum in the legislation.¹⁶ These legislative gaps provide a chance for the campus violence and reduce the punishment of violent crimes on campus. The so-called legislation only provides basic framework and lacks specific implementation details. As previously mentioned, we can first carry out the campus police work through a series of experimental

¹⁵ Yu Zhonggen. Build Effective Cooperation Mechanism of Campus Safety Precautions in School, Family and Community -- Baltimore Experience and Its Enlightenment to China [J]. Primary and Secondary Education in Foreign Countries. 2010 (7). P. 52 - 53

¹⁶ Liu Shiguo, Zhang Daogong, Li Chun. the Deep Thinking about the Legislation Related Problems of Campus Safety in China—from the Perspective of a Campus Injury [J]. Journal of Chaohu College. 2008 (1)

stations and conduct comparative study, summing up the advanced experiences and analyzing the reasons for failure, and therefore determine suitable campus police rules for our education system and then fix the specific rules through legislation.

Firstly, it is necessary to establish the basic principle and operating philosophy of campus policing work. It is suggested to protect students and the personal and property safety as a priority task, to combat firmly and actively all that may have a potential impact or possible threats on the campus security environment, to establish clear and basic concept of campus policing work. In the campus policing work, the parties are entitled to common goals and beliefs. The organization must be a lifeless or pathological organization without a goal.¹⁷ The setting of common goals and beliefs is conducive to the cohesion of the police work and to realize the social value of the police work.

Secondly, clear work guidelines and coordinative principles should be implemented. Along with the campus safety management, related departments should ensure that all parties can do their best to cooperate with the relevant work. In order to promptly and effectively combat violence crimes on campus, to avoid blaming, scrambling credit or poor mutual communication and coordination, a chief should be specifically identified as the primary supervisor for the campus policing force. In accordance with the principle of "who is in charge, who is responsible", the leadership responsibility system of maintenance of campus safety should be formed. Police force on campus is located in the area under the jurisdiction of the law enforcement departments to assign special police officers to communicate with the school, and then use modern police technology to prevent and control the campus violence. In view of this, it is recommended for the police to be in charge of the relevant work of campus security. This practice is different from that of the United States. The presidents or principals take main responsibility for the campus security in the US and they are also responsible for the corresponding campus police work group. But in China the directors of the police agencies in charge of the campus policing work take the relevant responsible leadership, which is the embodiment of China's national conditions. The reasons are as follows:

On one hand, the police director in charge of the police station is more familiar with the allocation and use of police. Over a long period of training and with professional knowledge and rich experience, the police director can make the right response and take reasonable measures in the event of campus violence. On the other hand, the police director has broader power and can direct the work more effectively than that of ordinary school principal. He can actively mobilize related functional departments and the society from all walks of life to participate in the campus safety control. By using government departments and convenient conditions, he can organize campus policing with much co-ordination work. At the same time, we should strengthen the leadership responsibility for the actual situation of the school, prioritize the students' interests in the first place, establish safe and harmonious campus environment. Public security departments must conscientiously grasp the reality of campus environment, public security, fire prevention work to implement area management. In addition, under the premise of the maintenance of normal school teaching order and teaching tasks, the school should actively cooperate with the police station to work together to create a healthy and safe campus environment.

Thirdly, the basic duties and powers of the campus police should be legislated. According to the national conditions of our country, the expenditure of campus policing affairs is allocated by the national fiscal revenue. Because of lack of campus security legal system, the campus police deal with campus violence prevention and control only based on a number of policy documents. Such a lack of legal basis of the system often leads to a lot of problems in practice

¹⁷ Sun Juan. *Theory and Image Strategy of Police Public Relations* [M]. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2005, P. 70

and it greatly weakens the prevention and control of campus violence and combat. Campus police force should not be limited to the law enforcement police officers. Faculty of security defense team, security guards hired by the school from social security personnel, even security service team formed by volunteer students can be integrated into the campus police force and become the auxiliary forces in the campus police work. This can not only avoid the embarrassment of the shortage of police force, but also mobilize the active cooperation of the school. Currently we are expecting the introduction of the “Campus Security Act”, which can further clarify the policing work jurisdiction and the ways of punishment. The act can not only enhance the sense of campus security for teachers and students, standardize campus police law enforcement behaviors, but also contribute to the relationship between police and campus, and jointly safeguard the safety of the campus.

B. Carrying out campus policing differently

The campus policing work should be carried out with different plans and principles. To fight against campus violence in primary and secondary schools and higher education institutions should be in different ways. The majority of primary and secondary school students are minors. Due to the particularity of the minors, the focus of campus policing in primary and secondary schools should be aimed at legal publicity and safety knowledge popularization. The campus violence in primary and secondary school is not prominent. The students are in lower grade and the school environment is relatively simple. Most violations are involved in external environment against the minors. Therefore campus policing work here should be carried out with target and with difference. In contrast, higher education institutions are not the same. The university students are between juvenile and adult. Although they are at least 18 years of age, they are not sophisticated enough to live in society. The campus is still like the ivory tower. Their mind and heart has not yet fully met the adult standards. They cannot be simply treated as adults. To deal with such campus environment of young people, campus policing should focus on campus safety management, using high technology security control measures to monitor and control the campus violence.

In addition to that, the legal education for primary and secondary schools should also be different. In most primary schools, the teachers should take the enlightenment education, pay attention to cultivate the students’ law-abiding consciousness. In junior high schools, the students can focus on studying daily behaviors of important laws and regulations, and developing their legal concepts and moral values. In high schools, the students should acquire more education about basic legal knowledge and rights and obligations. Distinct treatment is only a principled proposal. After all, each school has their own way in such perspectives as students recruiting, surrounding environment, and school safety facilities. The development of campus policing work should be fully investigated, communicated and coordinated. According to the actual situation of the school, the board can further develop the school’s exclusive campus policing work rules. Only when the policing work put forward targeted security solutions can we achieve its proper effects.

C. Campus police training plan

In the face of a special campus environment, we have to consider the candidates for the campus police very carefully. In the selection of campus police personnel, the director should select those with university degrees or with practical police experience. The candidates must go through strict recruitment procedures. The screened out personnel cannot get the posts immediately. They need to have a period of six months to one year post training. The training programs include not only physical training and business training, but also legal education, cultural quality education, first aid education, safety education and etiquette knowledge education.

To judge the behavior and communicate with the minors, the adults should not impose their thinking on minors, instead they should consider from the minor's perspective. We should give full consideration to the physical and psychological characteristics of minors and should allow minors to have the dignity to feel love.¹⁸ The campus police should pay more attention to their strategy in their words and behaviors when communicating with the schools minors. The primary goal for constructing campus safety between the public security agencies and the school campus is to enhance campus security confidence. The behavior of the campus police in the school not only reflects the campus police themselves, but also represents the image of the district police station, public security system, and even the government as a whole. As Cesare Lombroso mentioned in the *Criminal Theory*, a book on crime prevention, body teaching is better than speech; practical moral behaviors are better than didactic theories. Sense of justice can be maintained by the discipline, which can produce a double effect on education and labor.¹⁹ Therefore every act and every move of the campus police must be proper.

In addition to the regular training system for campus police, the campus police work should also be examined and evaluated by the school teachers and students regularly. First, the assessment result of the policing work can provide a balanced mechanism for the school. Secondly, effective method to evaluate the campus police may constrain their behaviors. Thirdly, the evaluation methods can urge campus police to set a good example for the majority of college students on campus. The healthy and positive behavior of campus police officers can become the model of the students in school, which helps them to form a correct outlook on life and values. The evaluation of campus police can be conducted every six months and the school can organize the students and staff to give anonymous evaluation to the work of the campus police. The results will be used as one of the criteria for promotion and increased salary. The qualification requirements, ability, work intensity of campus police are higher than that of general police officers. Thus the wages and ranks should also be slightly higher than the general police. In that case, excellent talents can be attracted and they can be protected from the material and system perspectives. The effective improvement of the quality of campus police and treatment can greatly mobilize their work enthusiasm. On the other hand the system has also attracted the best people with lofty ideal to join the campus police work.

As for the specific task for campus police, besides the general criminal law enforcement tasks, campus police should also undertake the following duties: (1) survey of the places that may lead to students bad behaviors; (2) investigation of students joining in bad gangs; (3) regular visit and contact with the school; (4) safety check for students living off campus; (5) safety survey of the campus surroundings; (6) campus security environment test and evaluation; (7) juvenile deviant behavior notice; (8) campus drugs and violent crime statistics.

As the cradle of cultivating the future backbones of China, it is perfectly logical and reasonable to take campus security seriously. Through a full range of improved campus environment and the qualities of the campus police, they can show more enthusiasm to make efforts to crack down on campus violence, set good examples and students and staff, and provide a safer and purer campus.

D. Legal education and publicity of safety knowledge

The focus of campus policing work should not be limited to violent crimes. Instead of taking measures to reduce the loss afterwards, more efforts should be put on how to prevent school violence and reduce the potential threat of campus crisis events. There are a lot of

18 Yao Jianlong. *Juvenile Criminal Law and Criminal Law Reform* [M]. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2005. P. 1-2

19 Cesare Lombroso. *The Theory of Crime* [M]. (Translated by Huang Feng). China Legal Publishing House. 2000. P. 352-353

disadvantages on the existing campus policing operation practice, one of which is the mere formality of legal education and safety propaganda for the students and staff. I have to emphasize that the campus policing work on campus violence prevention and control is the focus of education. According to the analysis of Russian experts, high juvenile crime lies in the weak social education system and the lack of supervision mechanism of minors. Adolescents are not subjected to the obligations, sense of responsibility and patriotism education.²⁰ Obviously, education is not only the basis for the development of campus policing, but also the initiative for young people to establish a healthy and good outlook and values. The publicity of safety knowledge mainly comes from the main subjects to control violent crimes.

First of all, in terms of young people, the campus violence is implemented by the majority of young students themselves and their peers. These students are in need of basic legal knowledge and they are not sure about the consequences of their behaviors. In view of this, the legal education is to avoid teenagers getting involved in crimes because of ignorance, ignorance of the law or by external adverse factors. Legal education is like a prophylactic, which can prevent the virus invade the youth on campus. In Memphis, Tennessee, a 3-year-old girl was killed by stray bullets, which stimulated the police to intervene in campus in reducing adolescent violent crimes. The program was named the “Memphis to Reduce Youth Violence”, in which the thought-provoking motto of Memphis, “We teach children the principle of self affirmation to help them get the ability to survive and succeed. It is teaching in such a way for a child, so is to the society.”²¹ To instill correct life outlook and values to teenagers is more important than the publication of legal knowledge.

Secondly, the subjects of publicity of legal knowledge are students, staff and relevant faculty members. It is important to improve the teachers’ legal education. For the violent teachers, the implementation of their violence is because of their ideological intolerance and they do not understand the law. As the perpetrators of campus violence, the teachers do greater harm to the students than the campus violence from the youth. Violent teachers have influence not only on the physical and mental health of students, but also on the psychological misdirection of the class. The students who are not mentally mature enough may question their original education and the established correct values and outlook on life.

Finally, if the campus violence against the students and staff is from unscrupulous men off campus, the spread of legal publicity and safety knowledge may help to enhance students’ awareness of self protection. In the face of the perpetrators, there is no doubt that the most correct way to deal with the campus violence is to minimize the possible loss of campus violence. In addition to the regular campus legal education and safety knowledge publicity, campus police can attempt to hold lectures or seminars by people from the juvenile court and juvenile procurator departments. They can talk examples of vivid campus violence cases and teach students coping methods. They can also discuss the serious consequences of campus violence from the point of view of the offenders.

These can give a warning to the teachers and students. Such explanation of legal publicity and safety knowledge is no longer empty dogma of “spoon feeding” education. Teachers and students recognize the urgency and necessity of campus violence prevention through practical cases. They may help cultivate the teachers and students, especially students’ ability to prevent and control campus violence, and reduce the occurrence of campus crisis.

20 Lu Qi. *The Study on the Chinese and Foreign Juvenile Justice System* [M]. Chinese Procurator Press. 2008, P. 191

21 Liu Zhongwen. *Reduce Juvenile Violent Crimes through Prevention and Enforcement in the United States* [J]. *Journal of Liaoning Police Academy*. 2005 (2)

CONCLUSION

According to different situations from different schools, campus policing takes measures with a clear objective in mind and helps coordinate collaborative problem solving with students, parents, teachers, school staff, school administrators and the police, and also to involve the local community in school safety. Campus policing is designed to induce community policing into the school environment by educating both law enforcement directors and school administrators in a comprehensive community policing training curriculum to prevent students and teachers from campus violence. Selecting, training and developing campus police officers are very important. The officers and educators will be provided with an array of programmatic opportunities to complement their mutual interests in providing a safer campus environment in the learning process.

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THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF THE TEMPORARY POLICE ORGANISATION'S LEADERSHIP SYSTEM

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Abstract: The leading system of the temporary police organisation is a very complex task. This study shows the leadership principles and methods, the structure of the organisation's several tasks, the best practice and the preparation process, practice of these organisations and the experience from such practice that can be successfully adapted to daily work.

Keywords: police organisations, temporary police organisation, leadership systems, leadership principles, leadership methods, best police practices, Best practice of Hungary, National University of Public Service.

INTRODUCTION

The leading system of the temporary police organisation is a very complex task. The Hungarian National Police's temporary police organizations work very effectively in order to solve different extraordinary situations. These situations are big challenges for the well organised staffs and organizations. In the management process, the role and the place the working methods of the commander and the staff is extremely important. This study shows the leadership requirements, principles and methods, the structure of the organisation's several tasks, the best practices and the preparation process as well as practice of these organisations and the flow of the practice.

The main requirements of the law enforcement leadership

These are the most important requirements that we have to enforce as a leader:

1. **Continuity** means that leading has to be uninterrupted in all circumstances.
2. **Strength** means the resolve to carry out the tasks. Do not be afraid of the difficulties; find out how to solve the problems more effectively with less energy.
3. **Operativity** means that the leader has an ability to recognise and solve the problem. The analysis and evaluation can help to solve this task.
4. **Flexibility** is the reaction and sensitivity to the occurring changes.
5. **Consistency** provides predictability. The application of this principle helps the work experience, the leadership practice, the routine acquired in the former positions in different levels.
6. **Purposive** means that during the leadership process the leader has to connect the tasks and the sources in order to solve the different problems.

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7. **Prevision** is the recognition of the circumstances which influences the activity. The leader can use the SWOT analysis (Strength, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) to analyse the possible impacts.

8. **Undercover.** Keeping this principle provides suddenness and surprise.

The key principles and characteristics of the management of law enforcement agencies organizations

During the management process the leaders have to keep to the following principles.

- **The principle of personal leadership methods.** The responsibility of the leader is wide-ranging. He is responsible for the process, the activity and the staff of the whole organization.

- **The principle of the centralized management structure.** The command structure of law enforcement and military organizations is organized according to hierarchy. The main tasks of all commanders and leaders are the full implementation of the received orders, commands (actions, instructions).

- **The subsidiarity principle** means that – if it is possible - all decisions should be made at the lowest level, where the greatest experiences, knowledge and competences can be found. The decision-making problems will be forwarded to the higher levels of management if they do not have adequate powers to carry out the decision at that level.

- **The principle of the initiation of the subordinates.** During the implementation of the new situation, the subordinates should give all new information to the leaders. The different changes lead to the occurrence of different events.

- **The principle of constant readiness.** At different levels, different leaders of the law enforcement organization should be ready at all times to address unforeseen and unexpected situations and tasks.

- **Ensuring logistics management.** It means providing the materials, information, people, systems, energy at the right place in the right time. The logistical tasks can be summarized by nine criteria: the right information, the right materials, the right energy, the right people, access to adequate amounts of the right quality at the right time, right place and right cost.

- **The principle of cooperation.** The military and law enforcement organizations can only be effective when the subordinated organizations and leaders cooperate and coordinate the activities. The basic and essential philosophy of success is the well-organized cooperation: when organized from the upper management levels to the lowest level. It is fruitful between the subordinate departments and individuals.

- **The principle of synergy.** This is cooperation in which more items or co-factors give higher performance. The higher income is created if the elements or factors are simply added together.

SITUATIONS POSING A POTENTIAL RISK AND DEALING WITH THE POLICE FORCES

According to the (1) § 1 of the *Hungarian Police Act*, “*Police of the Republic of Hungary is responsible for public safety, public protection and guarding of the state border, control the border traffic and maintaining order in the state border.*”²

² 1994 XXXIV. Police Act §1. paragraph 1

The successful implementation of this task within the police organization means that the management system sometimes needs to create temporary senior managing elements. Of course, in their work the police have to cooperate with other law enforcement and non-law enforcement organizations. An extraordinary situation is “unusual, different from the every-day” situations. The types of emergency situations are uncountable: many different causes exist in the everyday life of organizations (flood, epidemic disaster, mass illegal migration, fire, terrorist attack, extreme weather condition etc.). The police are responsible for the public safety. In these cases the different police agencies need to create temporary law enforcement management organizations.

These specific temporary law enforcement management organizations deal with the aforementioned emergency situations.

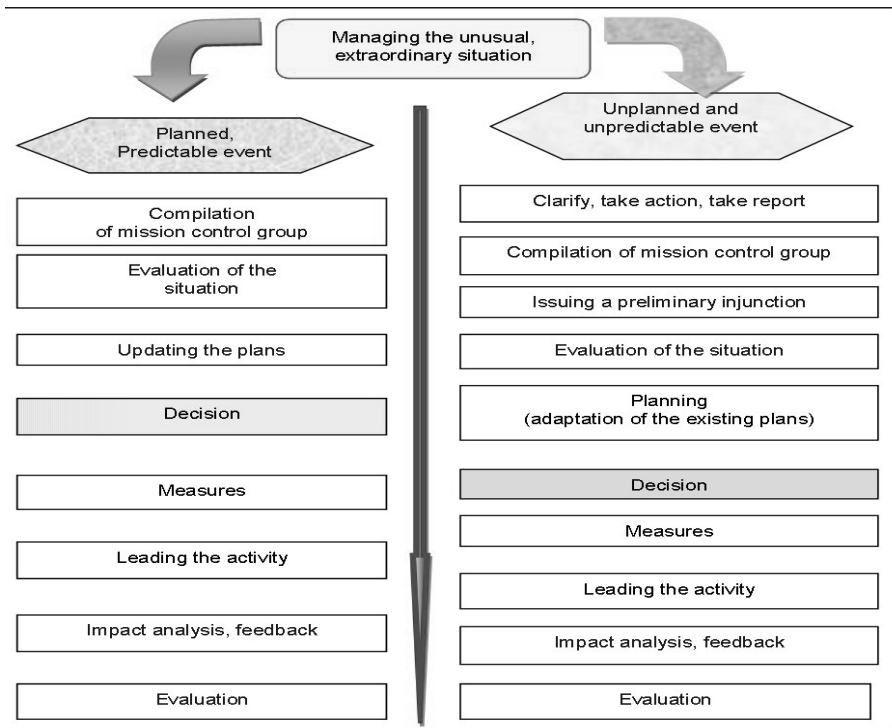


Figure 1: *Managing the unusual, extraordinary situation*

All types of extraordinary situations make an important feature of the extension and the intensity. Both of them have a significant impact on the manner of implementation of the activities.

In most cases the police service – both in Hungary and worldwide - was created in order to solve the different tasks in close cooperation with the partner organizations (for example: Army, Disaster Management Agencies, Civil Security Organizations, National Ambulance Service, National Public Health Service, etc.) together.

In general, each organization will implement the activities falling within the scope of their competence, thereby increasing the efficiency, the efforts of the different bodies are added up.

In some cases, the police handle the situation alone (if it is necessary, with the involvement of other collaborating organizations in the activity).

Such extraordinary (emergency) situations could include:

- security arrangements related to important state and non-state events;
- public policy - public safety related offenses;
- extreme weather conditions;
- epidemics, mass diseases;
- accidents causing massive damage;
- mass migration movements (refugee emergency);
- recurrent mass movements, congestion (e.g.: trucker strikes, demonstrations slowing traffic down, border crossings point blocking, etc.);
- rescue situations;
- other extraordinary events (they can be extremely diverse).

The main features of extraordinary situations

One of the most important and indispensable elements of the information management process³ is the analysis (the event, the consequences and opportunities of the own forces, the cooperating status of the organizations, the population, the territory, the terrain and weather conditions).

The analysis of the available information is one of the most important steps of the management process. The evaluation of different effects means the basis of the solution at the time of an extraordinary situation. It is recommended - definitely after the event, after having solved the unexpected situation - to make a thorough analysis and evaluation of the experiences in the frame of a calm atmosphere. The aim of these evaluation activities is that in similar cases in the future we will be able to handle similar situations more effectively. It is advisable to elaborate and create a kind of knowledge base, in which we can evaluate the experiences of the previous events.

It is a principle in management science that different situations should be handled where they occur, where the most available information can be gathered and where we can intervene without delay⁴.

Occasionally, the police have to intervene in the daily life, they have to prohibit or limit the rights of citizens or even compel them to do something. (e.g.: in the case of bird flu the closure of the areas or during events to ensure the closure). Exceptional measures in the affected area and time should be introduced, which could require temporary restriction of citizens' rights, and the ensuing significant economic losses may involve serious conflicts of interests among citizens.

This situation has to be treated in a specific and unusual way. The contemporary managing organizations have to follow the events, have to communicate, which also belongs to their core tasks.

In these states of emergency situations force redeployment, as well as additional resources, may be required. These measures can be localized and limited in time. The coordinated, multi-player and well-founded decision-preparing process with personal responsibility, as well as the coordination of the implementation of duties is necessary.

³ Czuprák-Kovács (2013): *Vezetés- és szervezélmélet* 5.3. 142-143.p . NKE. Budapest, ISBN 978-615-5344-36-7.

⁴ Kovacs-Schweickhardt (2014). *Organization and management system of law enforcement agencies* Budapest: National University of Public Service, pp. 17-56. (ISBN:978-615-5305-79-5)

The decision-making process should be based on the analysis of the broad and diverse information performed by the staff and taken to the commander. During the entire process of dispatching management activities an interactive flow of information analysis and communication goes on in which the staff maximally serves the commander.

THE COMMAND AND CONTROL MODELS OF THE HUNGARIAN NATIONAL POLICE

We have to study different management models in order to place the mission management model into the system of management theory. The police basically use the centralized management model.⁵ The characteristics of this model are associated with the centralization of the decision-making power and the leaders.

The information flow between the various organizational elements is essentially a top-down direction, a (vertical) flow of measures, instructions and commands coming from the upper level. The immediate and rapid flow of information through attendance and reporting systems designed from the upper level to the lower management levels is also provided. The ideal condition is where the relevant information reaches the lowest level in the shortest time possible and returns to the highest level.

The organizational structure of the police covers wide possibilities. Linear, staff management, functional and organizational models can also be present. These different models of the organization usually occur in combination, taking advantage of the benefits of each model.

The police leader is always under the pressure of time and he has to analyse, evaluate the incoming information, react to them constantly and direct the activities of the subordinates.

Linear management model

The so-called linear organization model means that everyone gets instructions from only one person. This model is used in the small law enforcement bodies where homogeneous tasks are carried out. It is applied on squad-level, in platoons and company and management organizations. It can also be applied by the management of a variety of temporary organizations (patrol groups and patrols). It is characterized by the body's ultimate leader using commands to direct the activities. It is the commander who leads the organization and carries out certain tasks.

The advantage of the model: there is a direct connection between the management levels and the flow of information is rapid and accurate. This model makes it possible for more precise definition of the tasks to be defined and a direct feedback. The organizational elements of the model can be expanded horizontally and vertically but can be reduced as well. This organization structure can be very flexible.

The disadvantage of this model is that it is difficult to apply. This kind of leading system assumes well prepared leaders. The lack of horizontal communication can be a problem among the lower organizational elements which can be compensated at different meetings. The problems of several subordinate units can be solved only at the top management level. The system is relatively closed and the leader or the deputy leader keeps the contact with the environment of the system. The body is not flexible enough, the lack of specialization increases the burden of the upper-level managers. The model is the most powerful when applied in field teams (squad, section, platoon and company-wide leadership organizations).

⁵ Kovacs (2014). *The police staff's management practice*. 225 p. Budapest: Hungarian Association of Police Science, pp. 141-151. (ISBN:9786155305511)

Staff management (organizational) model

The management model can be adopted in the law enforcement bodies where the leader (commander) directs an organization higher in level than a company or a battalion, where the decisions of the leaders (commanders) are prepared by the people specialized in different fields (lecturers, staff officers), but all power is concentrated in the leader's hands.

The work of the well-organized staff is directly involved in supporting the forming of professional decisions, the implementation of the organization, management and control.⁶

The benefit of the organizational model is that the staff gives a high degree of support to the number one leader because the professionals in the fields provide expertise and the qualitative implementation of the professional management is continual and consistent. Occasionally, as a body, it may confront several points of view for the sake of assessment, but in all cases the decision-making responsibility rests with the commander.

Functional governance model

The vast majority of task in today's organizations require so much specialized expertise that the professional and general management leadership are separated. In the functional governance model the direct link remains between the leadership and the organizational levels.

The staff officers, who are usually experts in various fields, get the opportunity for obtaining direct information from data services, on-site inspection and reporting systems in some cases, which is necessary to make right professional decisions.

The advantage of the model is ensuring a high degree of professionalism, a unified professional management of the homogeneous processes and collecting and transferring the direct professional experiences.

The mission of the staff

The well organised staff is directly subordinated to the tasks of planning, organizing and managing the implementation.

The basic tasks and mission of the control staff:

- to collect, record, analyse and evaluate the data referring to the situation of the public safety and crime situation as well as to the police and cooperating agencies;
- to prepare the necessary proposals in order to support the leader of the staff;
- to improve the deployment plan, written policies, orders, reports, and the development of communications;
- to deliver tasks to subordinates and to organize preparations for performing them;
- operating the command posts;
- to collect, to study, to analyse and to generalize the experiences and transfer them to the subordinates;
- to control and support the subordinates in the process of the implementation of the tasks;
- to design the tasks of the all-round support and to coordinate their implementation in order to achieve the aims;
- to maintain the communication and cooperation.

⁶ Kovacs-Horvath (2014). *Management and organization theory of law enforcement agencies*. 240 p Budapest: National University of Public Service, pp. 57-92. (ISBN:9786155305412)

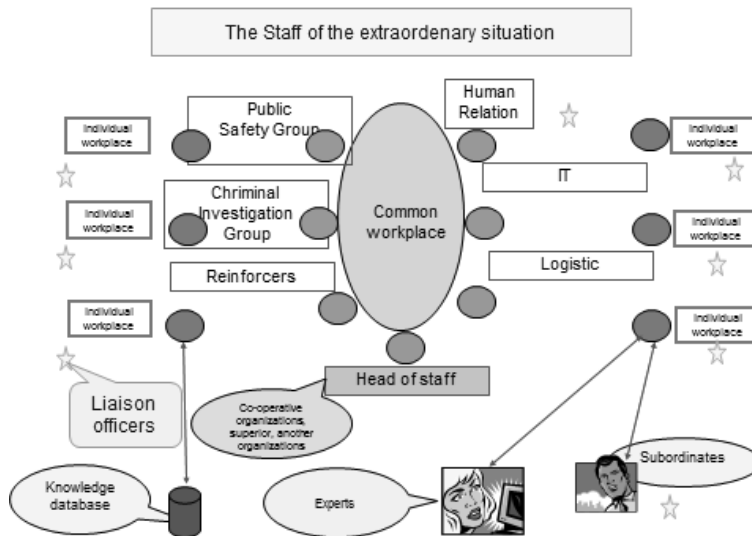


Figure 2: *The staff of the extraordinary situation*

Requirements for mission control centers, the most important requirements

The most important requirements for the mission control centers are the following:

- A close relationship between the work of the staff and the subordinate organizations.
- A sense of purpose means that the staff is constantly seeking to select the most important tasks. It identifies the most important priorities for implementation during the action.
- The operative ability of the staff to carry out the tasks within the time specified. Approximately two thirds of the time is provided to the subordinates to get prepared. Further forms and methods of the work are selected in accordance with the situation.
- The organization is a logically-designed work processes embodied in the implementation of the necessary tasks and activities for which a reasonable sharing among the various management bodies and enforcement agencies is needed.
- The anticipation is manifested in the fact that the staff are able to predict the processes at the same time. They are able to determine the evolution of the situation, and the further opportunities.
- Initiative means, that the staff recognizes the decision points and handles the situation. They can find the most effective solutions and carry them out. (This requirement is extremely important in rapidly changing and complex situations, as it is extremely important in case of new or unexpected tasks that the subordinates require the immediate reaction of the superiors.).
- The fundamental and indispensable condition for a close relationship between the staff and the subordinate is to know the status of the subordinates. This can be created by a continuous flow of information and exchange of information.

The general structure of the staff (management)

The general structure comprises three levels: the commanding and personal staff; the co-ordinating and expert staff; and liaison officers.

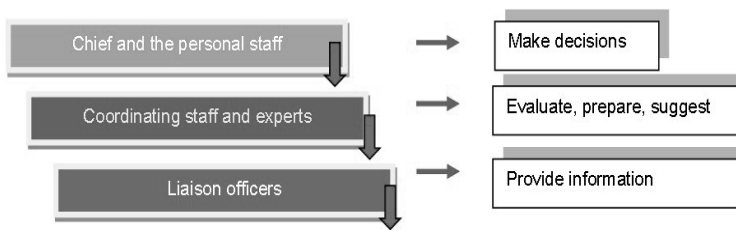


Figure 3: *The general structure of the staff (management)*

The mission of police staff

The leader (commander) is located at the top of the organization, he bears personal responsibility as a leader, and he is ultimately responsible for the operation of the organization led by him. He is the main person responsible for all that he did or failed to do. His role is to bring together the activities of the entire organization, to ensure its operation by exercising the management functions and to enforce his expectations related to the operation of the organization.

All of the leading functions help the leader to fulfil a successful activity.

The management process has a broad professional bibliography a version of it will be presented here.

Occasionally some of the leading functions can be repeated or can get to the front and the process can be very flexible. All managing functions prepare successful activities the aim of which is to make the work of the organization very successful.

The leading functions used in the law enforcement and military organizations are the following:

1. collecting, analysing and application of the information
2. **planning** (making the different variations of the decision, preparing the decision)
3. **decision making** (the most important leading function)
4. **organizing, coordination** (to implement the decision)
5. **leading** (leading the tasks)
6. **control and evaluation**

Elements of the management systems in particular situations

Within the fragmented multi-level mission management systems, the planning period is integrated into the management functions of command and ordinary working structural systems where the planning of tasks is sequential, parallel and a combined working method can be realized.

- **Using the sequential method**, the planning is implemented by the different management levels consecutively. When the higher management level completes the planning, the next level and the subordinate leaders can begin the work. The individual management levels prepare and implement their duties in a cascading way. This method is usually used when there is sufficient time for planning and carrying out the task.

- **Parallel working method** is applied between the different management levels of the design work. It is done almost at the same time. The upper management level completes short preparation work to be able to give the data to the lower management level. It virtually covers extended precautionary measures. This working method will be applied when only short time

is available to perform preparatory tasks. The leading organizations carry out their tasks in parallel.

- When **the combined methods** of work is applied sequential and parallel planning is applied together. Two management levels work parallel and on one management level, they work in a cascading way. This working method is the used to shorten the time for planning.

Design and analysis of the variants activity

The staff must answer in the following questions related to each type of activity in order to help the leader of organization. These are the **Who, what, when, where, why** and **how** questions.

- **Who?** Which organization will carry out the task.
- **What?** What kind of task is given to the law enforcement organization, what kind of duties they have to carry out (securing an area, riot control, sealing, operation, check point).
- **When?** When they have to start and finish the activities. We have to know the dates, which are need to ensure the successful activities.
- **Where?** Is there a designated territory where the law enforcement organizations operate?
- **Why?** What is the purpose of the operation and the law enforcement activity?
- **How?** How we should perform the tasks with our forces?

The commander has to answer the first three questions and the other questions will be answered by the staff.

The management process in order to solve the problems during the extraordinary situation.

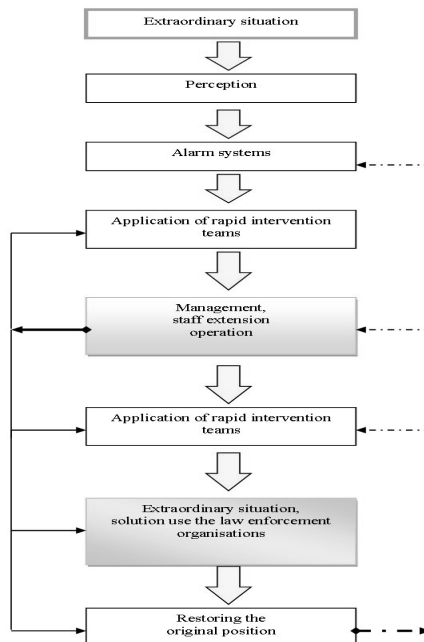


Figure 4: *The management process in extraordinary situation*

The decision and the decisions taken (Methods of taking a decision)

- **The purposeful decision.** In this decision-making method, in order to make a more detailed analysis, self-break sections are made in the process. The advantage of this method is the more detailed overall analysis. The already developed plans let changes be done in accordance with the changing of the situation.

- **The dynamic decision.** When the action begins or a different situation arises that differs from the one that has been planned before, you have to take into account that, in this case, a new decision should be created or you have to modify the original decision. Through making of dynamic decision, the staff make the analysis of the most important moments.

- **The method of quick decision** is similar to the dynamic one, it is used during the activity when the time available is considerably less.

- **The immediate response** is a leadership method in which the commander cannot apply the previously described management methods. In this case he leads his subordinates based on the information provided by his existing experience.

Table 1: *The methods of decision making*

The methods of decision making (comparison)				
	Scheduled decision	Dynamics decision	Fast decision	Real time decision
The planning time	more	less	more less	minimal time is available
The involved staff	more	less	more less	minimal staff may be involved
The management flexibility	smaller	bigger	the biggest	the biggest
The prepared versions	more	less	at least	not existing
Work method	sequential mode parallel, combined method	parallel, combined	operative	real time operative

CONCLUSION

The leading system of the temporary police organisation is a very complex process. In order to cope with different extraordinary situations, the law enforcement organizations must be well prepared. The principles and methods of leadership need to be effective and the organization must be appropriate for the tasks. Improvements may be introduced during the management process.

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POLICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN A TIME OF CHANGE

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Abstract: In most countries the police are an agency under ministry of the interior or the ministry of justice. Police are regulated by specific police laws, regulations, instructions, and are controlled on several levels. Today all police forces go through periods of reform and organisational changes. However, police reforms may or may not lead to the intended changes in police practice. It is often forgotten that police organisation can achieve its goals and objectives only by people, police officers doing their everyday job, and that education and training can serve as a vehicle for imposing changes within the police and for its professional work for society. Bologna process has influenced police education and training systems but they still vary greatly. FRONTEX has developed the Sectoral Qualifications Framework for border guard qualifications that reflects the entire scope of learning in the border guard field. Based on it, the first certified joint European master study in strategic border management is in progress, delivered by 6 universities or academies around the European Union. CEPOL on the other hand initiated the European joint master programme as a two-year course that provides master level education for law enforcement officers on the topics relevant to the security of the European Union and its citizens. Do national police organisations pay enough attention to education and training and development of their staff?

Keywords: police education and training, organisation, professionalism, Bologna process.

INTRODUCTION

An organisation is a group of people working together in a structured and coordinated fashion to achieve a set of goals. The goals may include such things as profit, discovery of knowledge, national security and defence, or social satisfaction.²

Peter Drucker³ writes: “The first question in discussing organization structure must be: What is our business and what should it be? Organization structure must be designed so as to make possible the attainment of objectives of the business for five, ten, fifteen years hence.”

To be able to meet and respond to new challenges and developments, organisations must reorganise accordingly. Every reorganisation can be difficult, as it affects people and the functioning of organisation. Police organisations are rather big and inflexible and every change takes time. It makes sense to consider the following quotation of a German professor Knut Bleicher⁴ who says: “We work in yesterday’s structures with today’s methods on tomorrow’s

1 E-mail: n.tomovic@dcaf.ch.

2 Griffin, Ricky (2008): *Fundamentals of Management* (5th edition). Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, p. 3.

3 Drucker, Peter (1954): *The Practice of Management*. p. 194.

4 Bleicher, Knut (1999): *Das Konzept Integriertes Management*.

strategies – primarily with people who built yesterday's structure with the culture from the day before yesterday and who will not be around to experience the day after tomorrow within the organisation.”

In discussing organisational design, it is good to know that there is no best pattern. The interaction between structure, system and culture should be taken into account. When something changes in the organisation or when we plan changes, we have to know where the change will take place and why and what will be the result of the change. Nothing will improve by changing the structure or the personnel or the manager if the problem lies elsewhere. A new organisational structure will not improve a dysfunctional system or an ineffective purpose or bad performance and lack of competences.

In the late 1980s and in 1990s many governmental and non-profit organisations faced increased financial vulnerability due to reduced funding. Taxpayers asked and governments were forced to demand more professional management practices and measurable outcomes while keeping costs low in all governmental and non-profit organisations, especially in education, health care and security.

Many managers in public administration see their job as one of administration. They interpret what the legislation or top management expects from them to administer. They see their job as giving orders and direction with the demand for efficiency, controlling the results and reporting to the higher level. Their focus is on structuring the organisation so that there is a division of labour and a hierarchy of authority⁵. In the past when environment was stable, in many police cultures this was only what was expected from the leader or commander at different ladder of hierarchy.

The main aims of the police in a democratic society governed by the rule of law are:

- to provide security and safety to the citizens,
- to protect and respect the individual's fundamental rights and freedoms,
- to detect, prevent and combat crime,
- to provide assistance and service function to the public.

Any citizen can do whatever he/she wants unless it is prohibited by the law. Police officers are only allowed to do what is provided by written laws.

The police are a public body which is established by law. All police activities are performed in close contact with the public. Police operations must always be conducted in accordance with the national law and international standards accepted by the country. Police shall be organised with a view to earn public respect as professional upholders of the law and providers of services to the public. Police personnel at all levels is personally responsible and accountable for their own actions or omissions or for orders to subordinates. The police organisations have to provide a clear chain of command within the police. It should always be possible to determine which superior is responsible for the acts or omissions of police personnel. In addition, police personnel have to be able to demonstrate sound judgment, an open attitude, maturity, fairness, communication skills and when appropriate leadership and managerial skills and possess a good understanding of social, cultural and community issues.

All these basic rules, requirements and demands are written in the European Code of Police Ethics (2001) and shall be taken as basic principles in organising and managing police organisations. It cannot be forgotten that police organisation can achieve its goals and objectives only by people, police officers doing their everyday job.

During the last years we are faced with many changes and the world and working environment is not as stable as it used to be. In the modern policing we have entered the era of unpredictability of

⁵ Koehler, Pankowski (1997): Transformational Leadership in Government. St. Lucie Press, pp. 5–6.

events, mass migration, terrorist threats, sophisticated organised and financial crimes, and police organisations struggle to keep up with these developments. However, globalization has changed the nature of internal and international security and with it the role and function of police organisations. European Union integration has set new and comparable standards especially for cross border police cooperation. It is no more important only what we do, but also how we do our job.

Police as large organisations is not easy to change and changes are even not wished for. The biggest challenge for police managers lies not in the changes within the organization or in the changes of laws and legislation, but in the demands that public raises for the police for higher security standards, and in the people they manage – the kind of people they are, the expectations they have, the values they hold and the incentives they respond to. Today we are dealing with a more educated, more varied and more demanding work force than ever before.

Police organisations in all countries that emerged from former Yugoslavia went through at least one reorganisation, but the same happened in other countries as well. Police organisations have tended to have tall, multi-level hierarchies. Many western police agencies are currently engaged in rethinking their roles, restructuring their organisations and changing their cultures to adjust to the rapidly changing conditions. They are “flattening” their organisations and reducing the number of police officer ranks. The effect of flattening the hierarchical structure is to devolve decision-making authority and responsibility to the working level (empowerment).

The fact is that education and training can serve as a vehicle for imposing changes within the police and for its professional work for society. The question is how police organisations care about this function, where it is positioned within the organisation, how important it is for their own professionalization and what attention they pay to the development of its staff. There are some reasons to believe that police organisations in the region have neglected this function or they are not aware enough how education and training are important for professional functioning and development of the organisation. It is often forgotten that police organisations can achieve its goals and objectives only by people and it cannot be indifferent how and where they are educated and trained.

POLICING AS A PROFESSION

Years ago there was a vivid discussion whether policing is a profession or not. To be a profession it needs its own education and experts who can control it as a profession. Today this debate is out-dated. The fact is that policing is a profession and Frontex and Cepol as two European agencies dealing with the education and training in the police and border guard can contribute a lot to the further development in this field.

Policing today seeks not only to deal with security problems and crimes already committed but to prevent crimes by addressing the issues that underlie them. Following regulations “by-the-book” has been replaced by increased reliance on innovation, initiative, and expertise in interpersonal interactions.

Policing is more than just an occupation, it is a profession. We can summarise the profession as characterised by three main characteristics:

1. it has an unique body of knowledge and special education and training,
2. it performs work of social value, and
3. it controls and regulates itself, often with the special code of ethics.

The special trust given by the public to the police requires for the police to exercise the

highest standards of ethical conduct in the execution of their duties. While performing their duty, police officers must respect and protect human dignity and maintain and uphold basic human rights as well as civil and political rights.

Members of the profession have a degree of discretion about how they do their work. It is expected that they exercise professional judgement in the best interest of the client or community. We do not tell a doctor how to perform a surgery/operation, even if our leg is at stake. We trust that work will be done in our best interest.

Samuel P. Huntington defines professionalism based on the three “distinguishing characteristics”: corporateness, responsibility, and expertise.⁶

CORPORATENESS

The members of a profession share a sense of organic unity and consciousness of themselves as a group apart from laymen. This collective sense has its origins in the lengthy discipline and training necessary for professional competence, the common bond of work, and the sharing of a unique social responsibility. Entrance into this unit is restricted to those with the requisite education and training and is usually permitted only at the lowest level of professional competence.

RESPONSIBILITY

The professional is a practicing expert, working in a social context, and performing a service, such as the promotion of health, education, or justice, which is essential to the functioning of society. The client of every profession is society, individually or collectively. Financial remuneration cannot be the primary aim of the professional. The profession is a moral unit positing certain values and ideals which guide its members in their dealings with laymen. This guide may be a set of unwritten norms transmitted through the professional educational system or it may be codified into written canons of professional ethics.

EXPERTISE

The professional is an expert with specialized knowledge and skills in a significant field of human endeavour. His/her expertise is acquired only by prolonged education and experience. It is the basis of objective standards of professional competence.

Emphasis on education and training is clearly reflected in all three characteristics.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

We agree that professions should have formal education systems, rigorous training, and an admittance examination prior to entry. What about the police as a profession?

There are different concepts in police education and training, different career and promotion paths and different position in the societies. In some countries there is a strict division between policemen on basic level and police officers (military approach). Basic education

⁶ Huntington (1957): *The Soldier and the State*. pp. 8–10, 15.

is reserved only for policemen and higher education is for police officers. Access to promotion is meant for those with higher education only. On the other hand, it is possible in some countries to become a senior police officer (through further education) and even director of the police even if one starts from the bottom. In some countries police academies are part of the police, ministries of interior or governments, in some they are independent institutions, members of universities and under the authority and supervision of ministry of education. In this case, access to the higher police education is open to the public, without any selection procedure and police do not guarantee employment after completing the studies.

For years, police education in many countries has been a rather stable process. In the west European countries it was composed of 1–2 years of study recognised internally within the police only, while in the east part it was composed of secondary education, followed by higher education, both publicly recognised.

The fact is that societies today are more and more educated and more demanding, young people have reached, and want to reach even higher education than years ago, we face demographic problems and they will be even more evident in the future. Professions in the public or state administration are on the higher educational level, and many countries have realised that police officers at all hierarchical levels need to have higher education, partly for aforementioned reasons and partly to invite/attract young people to become police officers. Bologna and Copenhagen processes and EU policies tend to harmonise education, enable transferability of educational achievements, and promote mobility and recognition of all kinds of learning – formal, non-formal and informal⁷. Police education needs to be conscious and consistent with what is happening in public education.

All these reasons combined are forcing member states to review and reform their police education systems. Not so long ago it was debated that different objectives apply to police education and to training and the question was whether police need education or training, whether they should be provided simultaneously as a single process or should they be ordered sequentially.⁸ Today it is clear that police officers can no longer manage their jobs only by being trained in skills how to carry out procedures and activities according to manuals. They need to address a wide range of unpredictable situations through independent, creative and critical thinking without having to wait for orders from above. They need to command and interact with well-educated people and professionals; they need communicative skills and understanding of social, political, economic and cultural complexities. They need to be reflective and self-critical about their own behaviour, attitudes and approaches.⁹ They are guardians of the constitution and laws. Their behaviour must be in compliance with the restrictions set to them by the law. When communicating with public, maintaining public order, during the investigations, apprehension and collection of evidences, their behaviour must be in line with the legal provisions and professional standards.

It is not our intention to judge the appropriateness of particular police education system, but we would like to stress: 1) that police officers would need to have higher education (professions in the public or state administration are on the higher educational level already); 2) education and training should be integrated – this means no matter where the police education institution is placed there should be close cooperation with the police, offering the room for practical experience and for problem based learning; 3) students have to be exposed to the systematic and comprehensive education and training in policing and have to receive knowl-

⁷ Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 April 2008 on the establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning, OJ C 111, 6/5/2008.

⁸ Police Science Perspectives: Towards a European Approach. (2009), Extended Expert Report, CEPOL, p. 159.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 162.

edge, understanding and skills which can be used in their daily work almost immediately. We are coping today with the short life span of useful knowledge and the fact is that many professors in police academies simply do not have such knowledge. Police academies must become organisations that are learning all the time and in close cooperation with operational police, where feedback is integrated into every working process, and operations are fed with research findings.

Would it be possible to imagine medical doctors or pilots being educated at universities and placed immediately after graduation into surgery room or plane cabin without having passed prescribed practical training?

In many European countries they are well aware of the needed interplay between education and training. Bologna process provides a general framework for that, as it is possible to get credits for the practical learning as well. Of course, the question is how Bologna is implemented in particular country, but there are a few good examples:

- In Germany, all 16 Länder have their own police agencies and their own institutions for education and training of police officers. The „new“ Police Program (Bachelor degree course – since 2010) consists of 6-semester integrated study (interplay of theory and practical training in police units). Police Management need to undergo the 4-semester Master's degree course, first two semesters in cooperation with the local police academies and last two semesters in cooperation with the German University of Police in Münster. Each programme needs approval by the Senate of Interior (Ministry of Interior in Berlin).

- The Finnish Police University College is a polytechnic located in Tampere, which operates under the Ministry of the Interior, providing education in the field of police studies. The University College is responsible for police training recruitment, for selection of students for diploma and advanced programmes, for organizing diploma and advanced studies, for further training given in the training institute and for research and development in the police field. All new police officers in Finland graduate from the Police University College. The college offers a 3-year Bachelor's degree in policing, a Master of Policing degree and further specialist studies.

- In Sweden, since 2015, the police education is entirely outsourced by the Swedish Police Authority, and is carried out at three universities: Växjö, Umeå and Södertörn. It covers five terms, and the last two include six months of paid workplace practice as a police trainee. Applicants must have basic eligibility for higher education, the personal qualities deemed necessary for the profession and meet a number of physical requirements of the job.

- The Norwegian Police University College, owned by the Norwegian Ministry of Justice and the Police, offers education for the police force of Norway, including a three-year basic education and a possible expansion with a Master's degree. It received a full accreditation as a university college in 2004 (from 1992 to 2004, it only had accreditation for its programmes, not a full institutional accreditation). Interesting is that the 1st and the 3rd year are delivered at the College and the 2nd in police units with defined (credited) programme and under supervision.

- The Estonian Academy of Security Studies delivers several security studies (police, border guard, rescue, correction, taxation and custom). The basic police study consists of a 3-year professional higher education. In distance studies, the officials already working in the Police and Border Guard can obtain higher education. The Master's studies of Internal Security is a practice oriented, outcome-based education, which allows professional and personal development and supports lifelong learning for officials in the field of internal security.

- The Police Academy of the Netherlands is a School of Professional Education that offers fully accredited bachelor's and master's degree programs in Policing and Criminal

Investigation techniques. The Police Academy is the official training centre for the Dutch Police. Most programs can be studied in part-time, full time or in blended learning formats.

Frontex¹⁰ has followed these developments by designing the Sectoral Qualifications Framework (SQF) for Border Guarding. This is an overarching framework for border guard education and training. Based on job competences it aims to develop common training standards that meet the border guard organisational needs whilst facilitating interoperability, harmonisation and mobility of border guard learning across the EU. As a high-level set of common standards, the SQF plays the role of a “translation tool” for the various national qualifications, supporting national integration of common curricula and linking different training systems. It facilitates mobility and development of joint programmes for border guards. Moreover, the SQF enables accreditation and validation of all training courses and provides a possibility of training certificates recognised by all European countries and national education systems.

Based on SQF, the joint Strategic Border Management Master’s Programme has been created. It is the first joint master’s level curriculum in the area of border management. The aim of the curriculum is to promote interoperability, and to harmonise training and professional standards. The curriculum consists of ten modules starting from strategic planning and finishing with the implementation of research methods. In 18 months students acquire knowledge and skills necessary in European border management on a strategic level. The programme started in September 2015, is delivered by academies and faculties in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands and in Spain. With the support of ECA¹¹ the programme is accredited in all mentioned countries.¹² The first group of 27 students will receive their degrees in June 2017.

Another example is the European Joint Master Programme as a two-year study programme initiated by the European Police College (CEPOL). It is the first EU academic programme aimed at addressing common challenges of police cooperation in the frame of internal security. The first Master (2015–2017) started in October 2015 under the leadership of the German Police University and the 7 modules will be implemented by the following 7 EU member states: Hungary, Finland, Spain, France, Bulgaria, Germany and Portugal. Accreditation has been provided by the Spanish accreditation Institute ANECA and the master Diploma will be awarded by the Spanish Open University UNED (*Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia*).

These praiseworthy activities could be unavailable or less attractive for police/border guard officers in some countries and especially in the countries from the region. The condition for the entering the programme is nomination by the border guard or police authority and finished programme with 180 credits which is not equivalent to many basic police education programmes. After successfully finishing any of those master programmes, students will get 90 credits which could again contradict with national conditions for master programmes and they could face problems with formal recognition of their learning.

Through the Border Security Programme (BSP), DCAF¹³ assists the governments of Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia in creation of the reliable and efficient border security systems. In years 2005–2011 in the frame of the programme, DCAF conducted two courses for Station Commanders (ITCSC) and two for Regional Commanders (ITCRC). The courses were developed by prominent academics and border guard practitioners from the EU. They are designed as blended learning, combination of self-study,

10 European agency for the coordination of operations at the external borders of the EU.

11 The European Consortium for Accreditation.

12 http://ecahe.eu/w/index.php/European_Joint_Master's_in_Strategic_Border_Management_%28EJMSBM%29.

13 Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces.

e-learning and classroom activities, to guarantee access to relevant knowledge, skills and competences for border police officers without removing them from their professional duties and responsibilities for longer periods of time. The main aim of both courses was to bring together border security leaders in a learning environment, to enable them to gain new knowledge, skills and competences, to share their ideas and experiences and to contribute to the institution building in their countries. DCAF tried to get accreditation for these programmes by academies in the region, but without success. Most support was given by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade.

In the frame of the BSP, DCAF organises regular meetings with chiefs of border police. On declarative level they express all importance and support to education and training of their staff, but it is evident that they rely more on their own training activities than to academies. They think more about what they can do in this regard than what academies should do to fulfil their needs. It may lead to the two tire system, dispersion of scarce resources, which can weaken both parties. We believe that all countries in the region are too small to waste their resources in this manner.

CONCLUSION

Regardless of where the police education is placed, within the police organisation or independent of it, police authorities in the region should pay utmost attention to police education and should be more demanding. The importance that the organisation provides for education should be reflected in the organisational structure. In all examples mentioned above, through several negotiations, police and educational community (and government) have found solutions that meet needs and standards from both/all sides.

Police is a specific organisation and should be seen as knowledge profession with a higher value put on education, training and research. How can this be achieved without academia in the noblest sense of this word? And how can academia develop knowledge on policing without policing? What is the purpose in educating police officers, if they will not be employed by police or other security agencies?

It would be much more reasonable to join efforts and find a solution acceptable for both sides, to strengthen cooperation with other academies, and with joint programmes, especially for senior police officers, to enable exchange of students, professors and experts. Many police academies are working on that already and Frontex and Cepol support that. What we could miss is closer involvement of police organisations in such endeavours and mutual cooperation with academies. Why not strengthen such collaboration in the region for the sake of more knowledge and competences, for better work in policing and for better cooperation between police organisations? We should not forget that we can speak or at least understand common language and it is a big advantage for this region.

It would be very much in line with all trends in contemporary policing and security demands.

Joint education and training programmes could have several benefits. Besides all learning they get, participants become aware of the changes that are underway, broaden their perceptions on problems and solutions and finally, close learning and working relationships create a basis for trust, which is itself the cornerstone for successful cooperation.

Education and training are interventions for the future and it would have been just in time if we had such solutions yesterday.

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ORGANIZATION AND MEDIA PRESENTATION OF GERMAN MILITARY-POLICE ADMINISTRATION IN NIS 1941-1945¹

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Abstract: In 1941 at the time of occupation of Nis, there was organized German occupying, military-police government. There were special civilian and military police and intelligence organizations which acted under the protection of Feldkommandatur 809. Regarding the civilian police organizations the most important were: Gestapo (the secret state police), the Hilfspolizei (abbreviated Hipo; literally: auxiliary police), and of military police-intelligence organizations: GFP (military secret police), Abwehr (military intelligence service), and Feldgendarmerie (military gendarmerie).

In this article, the authors write about the activities organization of these military-police organizations and their communication with the population in Nis, that is media presentation of these activities.

Key words: military-police government, occupation, relations with population, repression, media presentation.

INTRODUCTION

Police and army were the supporting pillars of occupying authority in the central town of the Southeast of Serbia Nis, during the four year violently taken control over lives and work of the people in it, from 1941 to 1944. Their structures and working organization are the examples that have to be carefully studied in order to come to qualifying answers on the question referring to what kind of lever German occupiers were relying on in these years so as to achieve the impression of normal life in the country which they violently occupied.

Only two days upon German declaration of war to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, and furious bombarding of Belgrade on April 6, 1941, similar scenario was repeated on Southeast of Serbia, in its central town Nis. Early in the morning of April 8, at about seven o'clock, German airplanes flew over from the East and started bombarding this city thus destroying numerous important structures, both industrial and residential. Many people perished, the whole families perished. On the same day, a little earlier, at about 5 o'clock, the tank units of the German Army clashed with the members of Toplicka division of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia Army, which was closing the valley of Nisava. There was severe resistance, and for short German forwarding was sopped. However, due to the lack of ammunition of those who resisted, the German forces succeeded to

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break through the front to Pirot and Nis, and at 9 o'clock on April 9, occupied this city. By this started Fascist-Nazi occupation of Nis which lasted until October 14, 1944.

Immediately upon occupation, the German units, in later period helped by Bulgarian occupiers and also the domestic collaborators, organized the local authority within which the special place was taken by police-army authority. Within this authority there were special, civilian police and military police and intelligence organizations that functioned under the Feldkommandatur 809. This article explains their activities in occupied Nis and the way of communication with the citizens of conquered but not soothed city.

Using the historical methods, and at the same time many thousands of available documents from the state archive, we will try to reconstruct the most important events of that time. Other relevant sources in Serbia about police military directorate in Nis almost do not exist, because the writings about that in the local scientific journals were very modest and very careful, whereas study and research works almost do not exist. In few media of Serbian origin circulating at that time, there are not enough documents of these authorities' activities. All the media at that time were used for propaganda and very rarely dealt with the activities, and more rarely or not at all had the reports containing police military activities. It is the fact that these services communicated with the citizen by announcements, declarations, posters and flyers... At the final part of this article, we will deal with few Serbian media that were published during the time we are writing about.

Our aim is to point to the working organization of these police military services that Fascist Germans considered to be extremely important for keeping order in the occupied city, to their brutality of treatment, to propaganda, one way of communication with citizens. In this way we want to break away from oblivion many events in which many thousand innocent people suffered and to give our modest contribution to the truth of the time which must not be forgotten.

GERMAN POLICE-MILITARY STATE APPARATUS IN THE OCCUPIED NIS (1941-1944)

By the attack without declaration of war and air bombarding of undefended cities, among which was Nis in April 1941, the Germans started one of the bloodiest clashes in the Balkans. "Hitler, immediately upon occupation started to dismember (the debellation of) the Yugoslav occupied territories. His principle was that "peoples cannot be Germanized but territory", and in order to achieve that, during the period of Yugoslav occupation by the help of his subordinates, he exterminated population in different ways."⁴

The Germans started killing in Nis and its surrounding immediately upon city occupation. Even during the April fights German soldiers did some individual slaughters in the villages of Nis accusing the population of attack. "German soldiers in the village of Cokot (the village near Nis, author's note), on April 9, killed Vitomir Lazic and his brother Radomir expelled to Donje Medjurovo (the village near Nis, author's note) and shot on the railway station there."⁵ There were more killings in the villages surrounding Nis, "first of all due to Chetniks actions of discovering the weapon. However, the archive material is incomplete";⁶ so there are no more official data.

⁴ More in Dedijer, Vladimir & Miletic, Anton, (1991): *Against Oblivion and Taboo (Jasenovac 1941-1944)*, Sarajevo: progress; Belgrade: Association for genocide and war crimes research, p. 15

⁵ History archive Nis, Fund of the Serbian Commission for war damage of the Nis region (1945-1947, box 2. file "Cokot".

⁶ Ozimiz, Nebojsa & Dincic, Aleksandar & Simic, Bojana & Gruden Milentijevic, Ivana & Mitic, Ivan (2014): *Victims of Nis Lager*, Nis: Nis Cultural Center, National Museum of Nis, Medivest KT, p.10.

Nis has always been important geo-strategic point, especially in the direction from the North to the South. The city is very important as the center of Morava-Vardar valley which represents the Balkan spine. That was known to all occupiers, as well as to the Germans in the World War II. The German Nazi military force occupied Nis on April 9, 1941. Before that, the city was bombarded from the air and very much destroyed.

When they entered Nis, the Germans immediately set the priorities – strengthening the economy and protection of traffic communications (railways and roads). One of the first obligations of the occupier was to activate the economy in the city more quickly and completely.

In the early days of occupation, after the total break-down of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia multi-national army, the Germans immediately organized military-police directorate managing apparatus. The supreme authority was Feldkommandatur 809 which consisted of 23 persons. At the top of the Feldkommandatur was Colonel Karl Bothmer as of April 1941 until August 1943.⁷ From August 1943 until the German withdrawal from Nis, the head of Feldkommandatur 809 was Colonel Fen.

The lower section was Krajskommandatur which consisted of 7 persons. The head of Krajskommandatur in Nis was Major Miler from April 1941 until June 1943, when he was moved to Zajecar. Captain Bartelassen, who replaced him, was the head of Krajskommandatur from June 1943 until the end of the war.

Apart from Feldkommandatur and Krajskommandatur there was Standortskommandatur in Nis with four persons. Major Fricke was the head who was of Prussian origin. He was the head of this organization for several months, from April 1941 until the end of the same year. He was followed by Colonel Munder who originated from Vienna and who was in Nis until the end of the war.

One of the most important bodies was Gestapo - Geheim staat polizei, Secret state police, which consisted of 23 persons. The head of the Gestapo was Hammer, a Captain from Berlin, a pedagogue professor. He was on this duty from May 1941 until January 1942, when he was moved to Kosovska Mitrovica. Captain Brand replaced him and he stayed until July 1942. All the time during the war, the deputy of the Gestapo chief was Ervin Vinek, a Lieutenant from Hamburg.

Gestapo organized the concentration camp on Red Cross in Nis. The Concentration Camp commander from its founding until June 1942 was Zulch who originated from Hanover. On the position of Concentration Camp he was replaced by Saurlein Robert, who stayed in Nis until May 1943. The last Concentration Camp commander was Hoffman, until the end of 1944, i.e. until the liberation of Nis.

Gestapo, apart from foundation of the Camp, set other main tasks – the fight against political opponents, especially against intelligence services of the USSR, Great Britain and America. At the same time, Secret State Police was responsible for safety of the factories in Nis which were in service to the Germans. All the bigger industry companies in the city (Railway workshop, Stokoehold Red Cross, Tobacco Factory, Machine Factory and Foundry Pejic, Stefanovic and Companies, Mita Ristic and Sons Textile Factory, Brewery Apelovac) had German commissioners. Their task was to organize and monitor the production process. Very quickly they achieved the high production rate. Shutdowns and strikes were forbidden. The occupier was especially interested in traffic normalization, especially the railroad due to undisturbed troops transport and military material to the battlefields of Asia and Africa. The normalization of economic life was important to the Germans also due to military force supplying.⁸

⁷ Bothmer was captured by the English in 1946 and was delivered to Yugoslavia where he was shot.

⁸ Andrejevic, Sevdelin (1970): Economic Development of Nis from 1930 until 1946, Nis: Narodne novine, Prosveta, pg 201.

The economy of Nis was an important part of German plans. There was even a German company for buying out of wine in Nis for the needs of the Third Reich (Karloviz). The company consisted of seven persons and dealt exclusively with wine from the Nis region. The company was part of a wider organization responsible for economy (Tot). The head of the company was SS Captain Braun all during the war, from April 1941 until the end. Under the authority of this company was even the Bor mine, the mine in Jelasnica near Nis, Quarry St Petka in Sicevo and sand extraction in South Morava.⁹

Also, one of the Gestapo priorities upon arrival in Nis was organization of its bodies in the police structure of former Yugoslavia in order to make this apparatus function in the service of Germany. Germany took over prisons, especially those in which political convicts were imprisoned. Gestapo took the complete files from the Police directorate of Nis. In reference to all this, Secret State Police represented the main executive authority in Nis responsible for arresting, shooting and forced labour.

In the intelligence security sense, the role of Gestapo was dual – to collect the data on activities of the aforementioned companies, interesting for the Third Reich and to organize the agents' network on terrain. These agents were divided into two groups - loyal and of proof were into the first group whereas only those of proof belonged to the second group. In order to achieve the stronger effect in the work, Gestapo sent people from Nis to Pancevo, where there was counterintelligence course in duration of four months. Those agents were given special credentials.

There were two priorities in the Gestapo work - Partisan and Ravna gora movement in the region of Nis. The movement of Dragoljub Mihajlovic was of special interest to Gestapo. It is well known the Gestapo took action of sending field agents in order to check the Ravna gora movement forces. Upon well performed action, it was determined that Deligrad corps under the command of the Major Vlastimir Vasic had 400 soldiers and that Cegar corps of the captain Mirko Cirkovic had 4800 soldiers. The Ravna gora organization in Nis was very strong and had significant actions. One of these actions was the Leader factory in Nis liquidation of the director, Srdic due to his work in favour of Gestapo. The most important organized cell of Ravna gora movement was in the then Railway workshop (contemporary Machine industry).¹⁰

Apart from Gestapo, there was SS police organized in Nis which was composed of 13 people (Zentralbalajtung der vafen SS polizei Nisch). The head of it from April 1941 until 1943 was Rec, a Belgian from Berlin. After him, from the beginning until the end 1943, the head of SS was Hodum Ad, an Austrian, the retired from former Austro-Hungarian Army. From the end of 1943 until the end of the war, the head of this institution was Suls, an architect from Cologne.

Of the police structures, the important was auxiliary Police (PGKI) – Hipo hilfspolizei with 37 people. This police was formed by Lieutenant Colonel Maks Semler, who immediately after May 12, 1942, was moved to Belgrade. He was inherited by Lieutenant Colonel Oto Vehover, an Austrian from Vienna who stayed in Nis until July 1943. After the war he was extradited by Austria to Yugoslavia and was shot in Nis. From July until the end of the war, the head of this institution was Lieutenant Colonel Eric Saupe from Dresden. This police was in close cooperation with the Mayor Gabel, the police commander in Bor mine. Gabel was awarded the golden badge NSDAP that was given only to specially credited members of National-Socialistic Party.

⁹ Ditto

¹⁰ This information is taken from the original documents which are in the Archive of state bodies and service of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, occupation authority in Serbia, DFY, FNRY, SFRY

GERMAN MILITARY SECURITY STRUCTURES IN OCCUPIED NIS

Besides police, military security institutions were organized with the main task to protect German military and political authority in the city. One of the most important institutions was Military Secret Police - Geheime foldpolizei (GFP). The management of this police consisted of eight people. The head of Military Secret Police was Hans Morcker and his deputy was Jokov Pecar, a Sub-Lieutenant originating from Beljka. They stayed in Nis until June 1942. They were replaced by Karl Obenland, Sub-Lieutenant from Vinterberg who stayed in Nis as long as the end of the War. The aims were to create intelligence posts in Nis and the reports were directly sent to Belgrade. This Military Secret Police took over the archive of the English-Serbian Club, French-Serbian, Masonry and Philatelic. In its work, the Military Secret Police used Feldgendarmerie.

German Reich had one more very important military institution that existed in Nis and acted secretly. It was German Military Intelligence Service. Abwer (Abwer ster trup). It is known that only two officers acted within this institution in Nis. Abwer was founded within the period from December 1941 until January 1942. Two officers that Abwer consisted of worked as civilians in the deepest conspiracy. They constantly were on trips, very rarely in the town. They managed to make excellent organization, especially in the villages surrounding Nis. All the people that were important to them, particularly those who cooperated, were invited by them via Feldgendarmerie. Although they worked in the strict discretion, one Abwer action was recorded by the Intelligence Service of Great Britain. Abwer managed to enlist a certain Vasilije Jovanovic, who was discretely inserted into the Great Britain Intelligence Service. Jovanovic was supposed to form a group in Nis to work for the British. The cover for his work should have been the Branch of Cereal Company, with the main office in Belgrade. Jovanovic sent information upon Abwer tasks. The main task was to find the location and people for the radio station and secret agents to work for him. He found the premises near Great market in Nis. His further task was to send data where the British would throw food, weapons and equipment and to whom – the Partisans or the Chetniks. Abwer, as long as the replacement of Jovanovic managed the whole of this action around the middle of the War.¹¹

As additional military institution, within occupying forces, Military Gendarmerie was formed- Feldgendarmerie. The head of this formation was Jenning from April 1941 until June 1943. He was replaced by Kineberger, Sub-Lieutenant who stayed in Nis from July 1943 until June 1944, when he was moved to Leskovac. As of June 1944 until the end of the war, the head of the Military Gendarmerie in Nis was Lieutenant Vajland. Military Gendarmerie served separately to Military Secret Police and Military Intelligence Service (Abwer).

After the occupation of Nis, Standortskomandatura was founded. It was a specialized military institution well known as a housing command. This institution kept records about the German troops both transit and outgoing, their lodging, nutrition and flats distribution. The head of this institution was a Major Fricke, originating from Vienna.

By the reorganization of the Germans commanding in Serbia, the complete authority in all the cities were taken by SS and German Police thus gaining the full authority over police and military prisons and concentration camps in the organization of which they took part in summer of 1941. Regular military units in concentration camps and prisons were replaced by the SS units. "According to Hitler model, in order to prevent outburst of the new rebellion, at the beginning of 1942 Serbia was turned into the police state where the nominal authority was given to the Military Commander of Serbia, but real was given to the Commander of the Police

11 Ditto

and Security General August Majner, uniting these institutions. He was only formally subordinated to German Military legal commander."¹² In this way there started SS, police-military terror of unseen proportion, the beginning of Jewish question solving by the aid of truck-killers ('dusegupka') and mass liquidations of the prisoners of both resistance movements.

PROPAGANDA, CULTURE AND MEDIA DURING THE OCCUPATION

Propaganda, culture and media had an important place in the occupation apparatus. For the aim of coping with the population, the German Propaganda unit was founded with six people. Until November 1942 the head of this unit was Korn. The Abwer officer Kill, a member of National-Socialist Party replaced him. He was in Nis from November 1942 until the end of the war.

Propaganda activity in glorification of the Third Reich values was under the authority of Kulturbunda, which was also founded in Nis with eleven people. The head was Uhlauf Gerigevski August, as the president.

Almost the same activity had German Proofreading, also founded within occupational authority in July 1942. The head of Proofreading as of August 1943 was Rudolf Bratanic, ethnic German from Nis, the professor of the First Male Gymnasium. He was inherited by Fridrih Troj from August 1943 until the end of the war. On the position of the Secretary in German Proofreading in Nis was Vitko Radenkovic, allegedly the follower of the Communists. Radenkovic was killed in 1944 by Cegar Ravan gora corps in Zaplanje (Gadzin Han) due to his affiliation to German occupational authority. The German Proofreading was composed of all the German language teachers in the city. Their basic aim was to organize German language and literature courses.

German occupation forces were seriously supported by the Quislings, a domestic organized governing apparatus with General Milan Nedic as a head. He wholeheartedly supported German occupation of Serbia with the Serbian State Guard (SDS). In Nis there was Regional command of Serbian State Guard. On its head were several highly ranked officers of former Kingdom of Yugoslavia Army. So from July 1942 until the end of the year on the head of SSG was Colonel Borivoje Markovic, who was transferred from the Command of Chetnik and volunteer platoons with the seat in Nis. He was replaced by the artillery Colonel Filip Dimitrijevic, who was on the head of SSG until July 1943. From August 1943 until January 1944 this duty was performed by Lieutenant Colonel Branko Obradovic, and as of February 16 until the end of the war, Lieutenant Colonel Mirko Stankovic. Serbian State Guard was the part of German occupational apparatus and completely fulfilled all the orders of the German authority.¹³

Beside Serbian State Guard, one more Serbian military-political organization was under the full authority of the German government, Nazi occupational structures. It was ZBOR (Yugoslav National Movement) of Dimitrije Ljotic, which apart from political also had military part more known as Serbian Volunteer Corps (SVC-SDK). Ljotic's organization was very powerful in Nis. Its activity existed before the war but by the arrival of the Germans it intensified its activity. Apart from civilian organization, the Fourth Serbian Volunteer Unit was also stationed in Nis for a certain period. The captaincy of the Yugoslav National Movement (ZBOR) in Nis was closely connected with the Chetniks of Kosta Pecanac in the field. Petar

¹² BA, HA, box 27 document 11/7-1, The subject of accuses August Majner and others.

¹³ Date taken from the original documents kept in the archive of the state bodies and service of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, occupational authority in Serbia, DFY, FNRY, SFRY.

Vukovic, the head of the Yugoslav National Movement intensively used Pecanac's Dukes who were on his terrain. It was one of the tactics of the German authority so as to more seriously use the organization of Kosta Pecanac in practical combats on terrain against the Partisan-Communist Movement. Nis regional headship of ZBOR included the counties of Nis, Morava, Sokobanja, Bela Palanka, Svrlijig, Luznica and Zaplanje. It was extremely wide area where it was required to organize the German occupational authority.

The second prominent Ljotic follower, Mirko Nestic from Nis constantly had conversations with Korna, the chief of propaganda department of the German command in Nis. Nestic required the Bulgarian withdrawal from the city and instead of them to bring in the volunteers of ZBOR who had only to be recognized as legitimate opponents to Communism. Kory did not approve of this as the Germans wanted good relations with the Bulgarians as allies of the Nazis.

The third, probably the most prominent Ljotic follower was Mirko Zivanovic, the chief of the Special Police in Nis, which was remembered as the most brutal, especially to the members of Partisan movement and the Jews, although there is some evidence on their participation in arresting of the Chetnik members of Draza Mihailovic.¹⁴ Zivanovic's greater responsibility refers to participation in the crime against the Jews from Nis done by the Nazis in this city when almost 400 Jews were killed including women and children. Zivanovic actively participated in this.

Such occupation military-police apparatus existed in Nis until the defeat of the German Nazis in 1944.

The Germans communicated with the population in Serbia and also in Nis mainly by writs,¹⁵ announcements, posters¹⁶ and flyers. Some of them were placed on the central squares in the town, some were distributed in the streets and some may have been found in the illustrated magazines which mainly were circulated in Belgrade with the aim of propaganda glorification of the Third Reich success.

"In its war propaganda in 1941 and partly in 1942 the Germans accused the members of the National resistance movement for the riots in Serbia, actually the communists and very often Jews, and in this context they announced that certain number of communists were shot although with them they liquidated the others - military Chetniks. The shootings of the Jews and Roma were not issued in the form of posters. It was in accordance with the Nazi ideology. They thought that Serbs would rather hear the accusations against foreigners than their own citizens. This is how it appears to be the difference between the German public and internal documents: in latter more often is mentioned the name of General Draza Mihailovic and his "bandits" who were shot as a special category of convicts. Poster announcements on shootings whether the communists (komunissten) or the followers of Draza Mihailovic (S.M. Anhängen) was not for each executed reprisal. Occupation authority announced them only when they thought the effect would be produced in citizens or if the main Commanding General of Serbia requested, that is the chief of the police and security service. There are very few when it is the reprisal in question which during the occupation were performed in Nis".¹⁷

¹⁴ Aracki, Zoran.&Vučković, Vladimir (2015): *Strukture, Activity and Media Presentation of Police in Nis From 1935-1945*, u: Thematic Conference Proceedings of International Significance "Archibald Reiss Days", ur.: Kolarić, D., Vol. I, Belgrade: Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, pp. 459-469.

¹⁵ By approval of Feldkomandature 809 it was announced to population by a writ that shot people upon verdicts of German military courts may be excavated and moved for the burial to the cemeteries of the place of origin due to which it is impossible to determine the exact number of shootings before it was moved to hill Bubanj (Ozmic at all., 2014:11)

¹⁶ German felkomandature in Nis by posters announced that on June 18, 1941, Gradimir Todorovic and Dragoljub Celic from Turekovac near Leskovac were shot for unauthorized possession of weapon (the Report and the order of Commissariat Directorate and Nedic government for the region of Zajecar 1944-1942, book 1-rewritten: Bozidar Blagojevic, Negotin-Zajecar, 2006, p. 42)

¹⁷ Ozmic at all, 2014, p. 19-20

“During the occupation in Nis there was not any magazine published apart from occasional numbers of some religious journals”.¹⁸ In the town at that time the “New Times” were read, Belgrade Quisling body of Nedic authority, then the “Mondays”, the journal that replaced on Monday the “New Times”¹⁹ and Ljotic’s journal the “Renewal” and also many illustrated German military magazines. Editing of journals and magazines during the German occupation was regulated by special Regulation on press announced by the Military Commander in Serbia on May 20, 1941. The essence of this Regulation was that nothing in Serbia might be published unless they had approved it. Everything published was censored by the Propaganda Department “S” of the Military Commander of Serbia.²⁰

Among the German illustrated journals circulating in Serbia the special was military magazine “Signal” the aim of which was besides the glorification of German war success to discourage Serbian people from any kind of resistance. It is interesting that in journals which were under the strict censorship of the German occupiers many journalists from Nis region cooperated. In the Quisling journal “Our Time” the following people cooperated: Jovan Momcilovic, regular correspondent from Sokobanja, then Slavko Grujic from Aleksinac region and Marko V. Simic from Nis; for well-known Ljotic’s journal “Serbian people” from Nis Mil. Milosevic cooperated; and in Ljotic’s journal “Our Combat” with its stories from Nis appears Mil. Stankovic.²¹

In accordance with the time and strict censorship of the German authority none of them seriously wrote about the ways of police-military occupier’s structural organization. It is interesting that in the whole review of what was written in Nis the most demanding journal the “New Times” once published in more details the information on the announcement issued by the Field Commander Colonel Freiherr von Bothmer referring to three assassinations on the railway Belgrade–Salonika from the June 16 until July 21, 1942. Concluding that these assassinations damaged the traffic structure, the Field Commander announced the reward of 100.000 dinars to those who help catch the assassins.²²

CONCLUSION

During the German occupation, Serbia was real police state where nominal authority was held by the Military Commander of Serbia but true authority belonged to the Commander of Police and Security who united these institutions. Under his jurisdiction were done numerous, up to then unseen crimes over civilian population, resistance representatives and especially over the Jews and Roma who actually were not treated as humans. Their problem was solved by deportation to concentration camps, with mass shootings, truck-killers...

Based on the documents which we have presented, it may be concluded that police forces were organized very well, with publically oriented aim to preserve peace and order, and normal economic activity in the city. As the time passed, openly erupted activities that looked like everything else but not participation in normal life of citizens.

On the side of the occupier were domestic Quisling forces, among which the special part played the members of Special police with the longest leadership of Mirko Zivanovic, an ex-

18 Aracki, Vuckovic, 2015, p. 466

19 The first number of the “New Times” was published on May 16, 1941. Its publisher was Serbian Publishing Company which was founded by the fusion of the biggest Belgrade newspapers companies: Politika, Times and Justice.

20 Bjelica, Mihajlo& Jevtovic, Zoran (2006): The History of Journalism, Belgrade: Megatrend University of the Applied Sciences.

21 Mircetic, Dragoljub (1972) : Nis press 1871-1971, Nis: Gradina, p. 103

22 Zikic, Milen& Jamkovic, Boban (2014): Nis in the journal New Times 1941-1944, Nis: History Archive, Faculty of Philosophy, pg.218

ponent of the Movement “ZBOR” of Dimitrije Ljotic. This police have been remembered by brutality, especially to the Partisan movement members and to the Jews and Roma although there is the fact that its members participated in arresting of the Chetniks of Draza Mihailovic.

Media picture and presentation of the German police and military apparatus work in Nis of that time is very poor. It has to be taken into consideration that at that time local media in this town did not circulate, and that the paper with the most circulation was Ljotic’s the “New Times” printed in Belgrade. That paper edited by the collaborators of the occupier was severely censored. Since the freedom of speech did not exist, it is obvious that the news on German police and military forces brutality had to be omitted. Admittedly, there is the fact that the Fascists, that is the Nazi regime contributed to the freedom of entrepreneurship, that is, did not stop initiations for starting new journals. This is one more proof that the existence of many journals and radio and TV stations is not the guarantee of democratic life and work in the media sphere. The real truth is that the freedom and democracy do not exist without free media.

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CONTRIBUTION OF THE CERTAIN MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS AND MOTOR SKILLS OF POLICE ACADEMY STUDENTS TO PRECISION SHOOTING FROM THE PISTOL CZ 99

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Abstract. The application of the authorization, the authorized officers of the police, in the form of the use of force, coercion or even in the form of the use of firearms, belongs to specific competencies for policing. The aim of training future police personnel is for them to acquire specific competencies. The basic hypothesis stemmed from the assumption contribution of certain morphological characteristics and motor abilities of precision shooting from the pistol CZ 99. Current policy change allows officers to insert a bullet inside the barrel of a pistol before the conditions for the use of firearms have been fulfilled, indicating the possibility of using double action as the technical characteristics of the official gun and thus the importance of specific morphological characteristics expressed through the dimensionality of the hand and index finger, as well as the specific motor abilities expressed by isolated forces, among others, the articulation index finger. The aim of this study was to determine the relation between certain morphological characteristics and motor abilities and the quality of the firing from the pistol CZ 99 for the total sample in the study, but also separately for the subsamples of male and female students. The sample of the study consisted of 62 students of the Police Academy (18 female and 44 male students). There were 3 characteristics of morphology scope, 4 characteristics for motoric scope and 1 characteristic scope for precision shooting from a pistol CZ 99. The application of statistical package SPSS - version 19 determined basic descriptive indicators for the total sample and for subsamples defined by the criteria of gender. To determine the contribution of monitored anthropometric characteristics and motor abilities, precision shooting, we used regression analysis - linear model in the total sample and in the defined subsamples. The results indicate a statistically significant contribution of predictor variables defining criterion ($p .000$) in the total sample and the subsample of respondents were males. It is particularly significant contribution of the variable that was defined as the maximum force communicated articulation index finger moving simulated pulling the trigger.

Key words: coercion, firearms, specific competencies, student

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INTRODUCTION

Within the available authorization for the realization of their role, authorized officials of the police (AOP) are also given the opportunity of the usage of firearms. To meet the quality profile of the perpetrator affairs of potential future AOP, students at the Police Academy (PA) are obliged, among other things, to adopt the conditions and manner of the use of firearms. Experiences from these areas indicate small number of the use of firearms, which certainly does not have to be the right picture options (rights), and needs (AOP obligations). Members of the Ministry of internal affairs of Serbia in the period 2003-2013 had 211 uses of a firearm, which is only 0.59% of the total use of means of coercion in this period³. Of the total number of use of a firearm, two, or 0.95%, after the process of determining the justification and correctness, estimated as contrary to law. During this period, a firearm was used in 9 cases for the protection of life, 24 times to prevent an escape after the crime, 20 times to prevent the escape of prisoners⁴, 93 times to repel an attack by itself, and 20 times to repel an attack on the other persons or objects. During this period there have been 45 cases of use of firearms for other reasons (prosecution of the vessel, shooting animals ...). By the use of firearms in that period, the police officers of this ministry killed 22 persons. Earlier studies of foreign researchers, suggested that the lack of strength, especially hand grip strength, is a limiting factor in the high art of using firearms, especially with the low height females (Newberry, 1991; Atkins, 1993). In his work, Gregory S. Anderson [1], on a sample of 54 male and 11 female recruits for the police call, tried to discover the effects of certain motor parameters (muscular strength, endurance ...) to predict the results of shooting police recruits. The study results were pointing out the unjustified (with a limit of inference because of the subsamples size) use of handgrip strength in the selection of police recruits. Moore and colleagues [10] in a sample of 44 police officers in training (22 male and 22 female) found significant correlation between the test results shooting with qualified gun, with shoulder strength, handgrip strength, and especially with the power to withdraw the trigger finger.

Research in this area (Arlov 2005) on a sample of 38 active police officers, females, has shown a significant association of force articulation index and the time of firing the first shots as well as two-handed combined grip and precision shooting from a pistol CZ 99 engaging double action as essential technical characteristics of quality service pistol. Results of study point to the inadequacy of service weapon female AOP and the need of adjusting the weapon to the specification of this police population. On the same sample in the new study previous results are checked and confirmed as well for firing a revolver (Arlov, 2007) of different dimensionality, and the use of single or double action⁵. The same author on a sample of 236 students of the final year of secondary school of Internal Affairs (Arlov, 2007) found a significant

3 Information on the extent and quality of the application authorization in the form of the use of force, have been taken from the doctoral dissertation of a colleague mr Zoran Kesic, prepared for public defence at the Faculty of Law, University of Belgrade.

4 The adoption of the new Law on Police, amended the provisions that have defined the right to use firearms in circumstances of the prevention of the escape after the crime as well as the preventing arrested persons from escaping. The first co-author of this paper has pointed to unjustified (Arlov, 2014) giving the right to the use of firearms to prevent escape of a person after the commission of the crime (since the same is not life-threatening) or to prevent the escape of a prisoner (with respect to ANAC that the person was under the low-quality contacts AOP, and thus created the possibility for him to run,

5 Common names for ways when just before pulling the trigger, hammer or striker must be stuck or pulled to the last position is the single-system operations, a single action and is often used as the English term "singlekšn" (Single Action). On the other hand, when during the withdrawal of the trigger, at halfway, the striker first go to the back position, and by continuing the pull of the trigger, the striker suddenly moves to the initial position, then it is a double action or actions (the same procedure, dragging the trigger, performing two actions). English term for this system is "dablekšn" (Double Action) or common abbreviation – SA and DA.

overall contribution of certain motor skills, to differentiation between groups that are defined according to the criteria of performance shooting from the pistol CZ 99. The largest contribution to the discrimination of groups, showed the characteristics both handgrip strength in the position of a simulated two-handed gun grip and forces of the dorsal lumbar muscles.

In the interpretation of the right to exercise authority in the form of the use of firearms, currently applicable bylaw⁶ was defined for preparing to use weapons only after the circumstances indicate the existence of conditions for its lawful use, that means AOP did not have the right to carry a gun with a bullet in his cradle in the pipe. One's assessment, but certainly not on the basis of competent research, modifications of this legal act, was introduced by Art. 17a, and the same AOP defined right to bear arms, and ready for use before the creation of conditions for its use, if there is an increased risk for the safety of police officers and men. This law imposes a logical use of double action with the possible use of firearms and thus the need for the existence of adequate morphological characteristics and motor abilities AOP with regard to the technical characteristics of the official firearms including pistols CZ 99. Since the force required to operate on the trigger, with this gun [9], when the system one-action (1,5-2,5kg and session "walk" 1-5mm) and double action significantly different (3,5-6,5kg⁷ and session "walk" harvesting 10-16mm) and in the previous survey noted a significant influence of certain characteristics and abilities on the efficiency of shooting from pistols and revolvers at AOP females as well as the students of High school in Sremska Kamenica, the need arose for checking student state of PA. The quality use of firearms by students PA represents the specific competencies and gives them the possibility of competitiveness of students in the area of security. At the same time, the existence of specific competencies, guaranteeing the application of authorization in the form of the use of force in the form of firearms in the way of achieving professional results without creating unnecessary harm.

PROBLEM, SUBJECT AND OBJECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH

This paper attempts to examine the contribution of certain morphological characteristics and motor abilities of certain students of the Police Academy in Belgrade to precision shooting from a pistol CZ 99. To secure the preconditions of effective functioning of the gun is inevitable, good posture (position of the lower extremities in comparison to other parts of the body), the position of the upper body, correct two-handed grip the pistol and vigorously and continuously pulling the trigger. These elements along with, of course, and others who make up the basics of combat school shooting from the gun, depend on the morphological characteristics as manifested force of the current muscle groups. So for the good position in shooting the role of large muscle groups of both thighs is very important and the authors of this paper identified that for determining the contribution of this precision shooting skills. Dorsal-lumbar and abdominal muscles creates a connection between the lower and upper extremities. The ability to manifest significant force in the grip of the dominant and non-dominant hand and the actual articulation index finger of dominant hand create good preconditions for maintaining the favorable position of the gun to the object before, during and after the firing. For the ability to use technical features CZ 99 pistol (weight, length, perimeter, force ...) is assuming the importance of certain morphological characteristics of users (body

⁶ Rules on the technical features and the use of force. The name of the act itself is inadequate because it is such an important part omitted and that are the conditions for the use of force.

⁷ Default display of force by the kilogram. A measure of force is Newton - N (force that the body weight of 1kg provides a constant acceleration of 1 meter per second squared -). Acceleration of gravity, that is acceleration of free fall for our space is $g = 9,80665\text{ms}^{-2}$ but, for ease of use, already calculating in a way that $g = 10\text{ms}^{-2}$ time and 1kg as 10N

height, weight, length of the index finger, dimensionality two-handed grip ...), therefore they were included in a set of predictor variables with the aim of determining the actual contribution of PA students precision when shooting from a pistol CZ 99.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The sample of the study consisted of 62 students of the Police Academy in Belgrade. The sample was divided into two subgroups according to a criterion of gender (18 females and 44 males), followed by the characteristics variables, the morphology scope:

- height weight index (BMI)
- length of the index finger of dominant hand,
- scope of hands and space for motor skills:
 - the maximum force in flexion of the index finger of the current hand in motion simulated pulling the trigger (F-index finger)
 - the maximum grip force of the both hands in the position of the simulated gun grip (F-both hands)
 - the maximum force in engagement dorsal-lumbar muscles in an attempt of stretching (F-backs) and
 - the maximum force of the both knee extensors (F-feet) as a set of predictor variables.

Maximum muscle force of the actual muscle groups were measured by using a specially developed software and hardware at the Police Academy in Belgrade and mechanical design adapted for the isolation of the desired movement (stretching of the spinal post in dorsal-lumbar part, stretching both lower limbs at the joints of the knee, both hands grip in simulated position two-handed grip the handle guns, and folding his hands index finger of the dominant hand in motion simulated pulling the trigger)

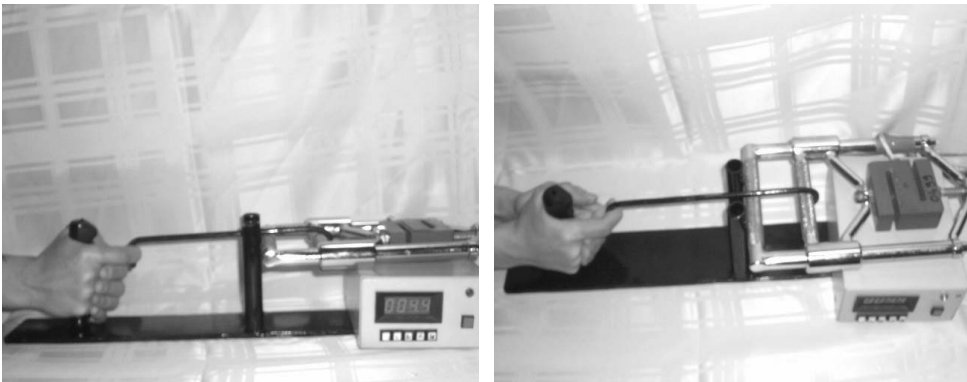


Figure 1 and 2: *The mechanical construction and electronic dynamometer for determining the maximum muscle force in flexion of the index finger of the dominant hand in the simulated withdrawal of the trigger*

The criterion variable in the study was the achieved precision shooting from a pistol CZ 99 in a circular target, dimensions of 50x50 cm, with a distance of 10 meters, two-handed grip, single action, without limitation of time shooting with the available ten rounds. Therefore, the

maximum number of laps in the task could be the 100. For a description of the characteristics of the sample and the subsamples of respondents in the survey, determined basic descriptive data for each variable (mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, minimum and maximum values) for determining the contributions of predictor variables predicting criterion variables (overall system of predictor variables but also a single) was applied regression analysis, the use of statistical software package SPSS version 19.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The research results are presented in three parts (for the total sample of the survey, sub-sample of respondents were females and for the subsample of respondents were males) although the findings can be drawn from the results display only the total sample, the reason the display of descriptive characteristics of all the variables separately for subsamples consisting of the student as well as the sample of students who were from PA.

Table 1: *Descriptive characteristics of the distribution of the variables of the total sample (62)*

Set predictor variables	Arithmetic mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Minimal values	Maximal values
BMI	24,62	3,58	0,59	0,13	18,5	34,8
Length of index	9,02	0,62	0,18	0,91	7,6	11,0
Scope of a hand	19,73	0,98	0,50	0,91	17,5	23,0
F – index	11,56	4,06	0,07	-0,70	4,5	20,4
F – both hands	51,99	13,88	-0,03	-1,07	26,4	80,8
F – back	146,16	36,13	-0,29	-1,00	76,4	212,8
F – legs	138,18	34,41	-0,28	-0,97	63,9	198,1
Precision	61,71	17,37	-0,25	-1,09	30	91

Table 1 shows the basic descriptive characteristic for each of predictor and the criterion variable (especially pronounced in bold display of values in the cells of the last row of the table) for the total sample of respondents.

Table 2 shows the results that count multiple correlation and its significance as an indicator of the predictive value of the system applied predictor variables as a whole or individually.

Table 2: *Results of regression analysis - the total sample (62)*

	R	r_{part}	Beta	T	p
BMI	0,106	-0,132	-0,122	-0,976	0,333
Length of index	0,336	0,095	0,120	0,702	0,486
Scope of a hand	0,287	-0,041	-0,052	-0,303	0,763
F – index	0,605	0,592	0,833	5,394	0,000
F – both hands	0,338	-0,034	-0,053	-0,250	0,803
F – back	0,246	-0,180	-0,550	-1,341	0,186
F – legs	0,253	0,108	0,314	0,796	0,430
	R=0,67	R ² =0,44	F=6,113	P=0,00	

Obtained from the values shown in the row below the table, it can be concluded that the high value of the coefficient of multiple correlation ($R = 0.67$) indicates that the applied system of predictors is statistically significantly associated with the criterion variable. The significance of the previous correlation (F) relations, given the level of significance ($p = 0.00$) lower than the level for which the author identified in this study ($p = 0.05$). The applied system of predictor variables - the results of the individual tests, explains 44% of variability criteria - the precision shooting of students, while the rest of the variability of criterion variable were responsible for other features of the capabilities that were not included in the set of predictor variables in this study. From the displayed values for individual variables from the applied system for their individual predictive value, it can be seen that the greatest impact on the result in precision shooting at students with a pistol CZ 99 (the shooting conditions foreseen by the survey) as the criterion, has the maximum force in bending the index finger of the current hand in motion simulated pulling the trigger (F-index finger), (0.833) and the level of significance of $p = 0.000$.

Table 3: *Descriptive characteristics of the distribution of variables - student (18)*

Set predictor variables	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Minimal values	Maximal values
BMI	21,78	2,14	0,36	-0,65	18,5	26,1
Length of index	8,59	0,53	-0,22	-0,81	7,6	9,3
Scope of a hand	19,0	0,77	0,22	0,49	17,5	20,5
F - index	6,98	2,26	1,09	0,92	4,5	12,5
F - both hands	35,43	4,85	0,37	0,11	26,4	44,8
F - back	99,7	11,79	0,27	0,32	76,4	122,0
F - legs	95,03	12,89	-0,59	0,78	63,9	117,3
Precision	55,04	15,86	0,54	-0,97	32	83

Table 4: *Results of regression analysis - student (18)*

	R	r_{part}	Beta	t	P
BMI	0,098	0,262	0,229	0,017	0,410
Length of index	0,458	0,110	0,159	0,860	0,733
Scope of a hand	-0,034	-0,143	-0,168	0,351	0,657
F - index	0,608	0,535	0,816	-0,458	0,073
F - both hands	0,095	0,161	0,134	2,003	0,617
F - back	0,038	-0,374	-0,928	0,516	0,231
F - legs	0,004	0,381	0,945	-1,276	0,221
	R=0,76 $R^2=0,58$		F=1,961	P=0,161	

Table 5: Descriptive characteristics of the distribution of variables (44)

Set predictor variables	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Curtosis	Minimal Values	Maximal values
BMI	25,78	3,41	0,54	0,19	19,9	34,8
Length of index	9,19	0,58	0,37	1,61	7,9	11,0
Scope of a hand	20,03	0,91	0,75	1,25	18,1	23,0
F – index	13,44	3,01	0,47	-0,77	8,9	20,4
F – both hands	58,77	10,11	-0,15	-0,29	39,3	80,8
F – back	165,17	22,87	-0,58	2,19	87,2	212,8
F – legs	155,83	22,72	-0,56	1,23	83,1	198,1
Precision	64,07	17,58	-0,46	-0,95	30	91

Table 6: Results of regression analysis - students (44)

	R	r_{part}	Beta	T	P
BMI	-0,028	-0,171	-0,131	-1,042	0,304
Length of index	0,216	-0,080	-0,088	-0,481	0,633
Scope of a hand	0,291	0,091	0,101	0,549	0,586
F – index	0,688	0,658	0,692	5,243	0,000
F – both hands	0,317	0,023	0,023	0,137	0,892
F – back	0,146	-0,105	-0,168	-0,634	0,530
F – legs	0,168	0,118	0,190	0,711	0,482
	R=0,71	R ² =0,50	F=5,250		P=0,00

From the results for the entire sample, and especially for subsamples defined by the criteria of gender, we can see the values of multiple correlation ($R=0.67$; 0.76 ; 0.71) and its significance ($p=0.00$; 0.161 ; 0.00) indicating, for the total sample and the subsample of students, male sample, a statistically significant correlation between the predictor variables applied to the criterion. As for subsamples consisting of the PA female students, eighteen of them, this connection is evident but not statistically significant ($p=0.161$) compared to the chosen level of significance in this study ($p=0.05$). For the partial relationship (r and r_{part}) and contributions (Beta) of each of the predictor variables from the block and precision shooting from a pistol CZ 99, we can see the contribution of the maximum force in flexion of the index finger of the current hand in motion simulated pulled to precision shooting of the students (0.833 ; 0.816 ; 0.692). The significance level of contribution is the total sample and the subsample of students below the level of significance chosen for this study ($p=0.000$; 0.000) for subsample of female students above that level ($p=0.073$), which means that there is, but not statistically significant contribution to precision shooting student.

CONCLUSION

The authority of the police, in the form of the use of force is very sensitive on the basis of the possibilities compromising fundamental human rights, thereby compromising citizens' trust in state institutions. Competences, as a positive outcome of quality education authorized officials of the police, should be a guarantor for the formation of harmful consequences only necessary, when applying the powers in the form of the use of force. The aim of training future police personnel, among other things, is the acquisition of specific competences in the form of quality of using official firearms. CZ 99 pistol is a usual service weapon of AOP for both sexes. Given the dimensionality of this weapon, but also the necessity of the operation of certain forces in reaching a bullet into its seat in the tube, as well as the withdrawal of trigger in terms of the functioning of a single or double action pistol CZ 99 is not an adequate weapon for police officers to their morphological features (dimensionality includes two-handed grip, index finger length ...) and motor abilities (the force in flexion of the index finger of the current hand in motion simulated pulling the trigger ...) cannot use its technical quality. On a very small sample of respondents in this study, specific minimum value for the length of the index finger of **7.6cm** and minimal force with the current articulation index finger hands in motion simulated by pulling the trigger of **4,5kg** (both in subjects females - student) were determined, which directly indicates possible problems in the use of a pistol CZ 99, especially in terms of the functioning of double action. The current changes in the rules in sense of the right of putting a bullet into the barrel of a gun even before the conditions for the use of firearms were defined, indicating the possibility of using double acting when shooting from a pistol CZ 99. Results of studies have pointed out the significant contribution of the predictor variables (height weight index, the length of the index finger of dominant hand, the scope of hands, the maximum force in flexion of the index finger of the current hand in motion simulating the pull of the trigger and the maximum force of both hands in the position of the simulated gun grip, maximum force in dorsal-lumbar muscles in an attempt of stretching and maximum force of both knee extensors) to the precision shooting of PA students from CZ 99 pistol at a distance of 10m from the target dimensions of 50x50cm with ten bullets without limitation of time shooting. Despite the fact that the students used a single action during the shooting, it was shown that variable, the maximum force in flexion of the index finger of the current hand in motion simulating the pull of the trigger and most contributes to precision shooting of students. The need for verification of the results of this research, as well as the realization of the next, can be found in the quality of the sample in the survey (number, ...) but also in the mode on the trigger of the pistol CZ 99, while shooting of the students (or double action and operation of the sleeve when making rounds into its seat in the tube).

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POLICE RESPONSE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCHES¹

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Abstract: This paper deals with police response to domestic violence in theoretical and empirical research. This research was conducted by means of the analysis of literature relevant to the topic of the paper – largely that published in scientific journals (articles) in the field of social sciences, which are in the Serbian Citation index base (SCIndex base) and the Serbian Library Consortium for Coordinated Acquisition (Kobson), as well as articles published on the Internet. It has been found that many domestic violence incidents are not reported to the police because victims of domestic violence wish to protect their partners. They have no confidence in police, as well. Most authors conclude that procedures have less impact on the victims' opinion of the police while the relation of police officers to victims of domestic violence and vice versa has the dominant influence. Police demeanor in establishing the trust of victims of domestic violence is very important. The selected results of theoretical and empirical studies in this paper are presented for the purpose of inspiring domestic scientists and experts to examine the determinants that encourage the efficiency of police response to domestic violence, as well as of the role of police in domestic violence prevention.

There is growing evidence that supports a significant relationship between police concept and police response to domestic violence. Therefore, the structure of the paper is as follows: Introduction; Police concepts; police response to domestic violence in theoretical and empirical research into three periods: 1960-1980, 1980-2000, 2000-today; Conclusion; Literature.

Key words: police, domestic violence, trust of victims.

INTRODUCTION

Having in mind previous practice in police activities in cases of domestic violence in the Republic of Serbia, as well as obligation of respecting human rights, emphasis is placed on a need for relatively new, so far pretty neglected role of the police, which implies providing assistance and support to crime victims, especially victims of domestic violence. Prevention of this part represents a great challenge for the police, but also an opportunity to increase the trust of victims (injured persons) in the police and legal system, as well as the state and

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society on the whole. Besides that, activities of the police in cases of domestic violence were, and still are, the subject of special attention in international, and since ten years ago, also in the national scope.

As regards the extent of domestic violence and high secondary victimization, the role of the police in each society, ours as well, in the prevention of domestic violence and secondary victimization is not enough emphasized, which is witnessed by theoretical and empirical researches results on police response to domestic violence. It is completely clear that without an efficient response of the police, which is oriented towards victims' needs, and not only towards offender' pursuit, there is no successful systematic and social response to domestic violence. As well, without cooperation with other institutions that can directly or indirectly contribute to the reduction of domestic violence cases, the role of the police cannot be efficient nor can it be the legal protection system itself in this area. Stated is confirmed, in this paper, by presented chosen results of theoretical and empirical researches of police response to domestic violence since 1960 to present moment published in SCI basis, Kobson basis and on the Internet.

POLICE CONCEPTS

The role of the police has changed in time in all countries and societies. It is determined by a concept on which police work and organization is based.

Focus of traditional concept of the police is placed on maintaining and sustaining public peace and order. According to the traditional concept, the police are less proactive, and their activity is less preventive and more repressive. Such police do not have effective and efficient two-way communication with citizens, society and complete public opinion, which leads to police drifting away from the need of society and citizens. Police members are executors of their tasks, whose creativity and progress in work are exchanged with routine, static behavior, severity, rigidity and lack of flexibility, as well as lack of tolerance and authoritativeness. Citizens do not know and do not recognize a real role of the police in a society, but abhor and fear it. The police are not in a situation to feel the needs of citizens and society, to recognize them and react in order to protect their needs and interests, and with the aim of preserving and improving public peace and order.

Traditionally oriented police mainly has a repressive role in domestic violence cases. It aims at the offender, without taking care of the victim (except for the need of obtaining necessary information). The police apply legal regulations and are not engaged in detecting and solving problems that can escalate to violence. It is clear that good police is more than police observed through traditional measures of its work performances, thus it is necessary to assess their work also from the standpoint of the response to expressed needs of citizens in the course of interaction³, as well as from the standpoint of the quality of its relation to citizens. It implies that police work in cases of domestic violence should be assessed by victims primarily and then by other actors of this offence.

Community policing, as a new concept of police organization, was used first of all in the USA in early eighties in the last century, and since nineties it has been applied in Western European countries, as well (Great Britain, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, the Netherlands, France, Germany), some Asian countries (Hong Kong, Japan), Canada and Australia. Since 2000, concept *community policing* has been present in post communist countries of Eastern Europe, which are undergoing a transition⁴, among which there is the Republic of Serbia, as well.

³ More in: Fyfe, J., Good policing, pp. 269-290, in: Fors, B. (Ed.). 1993. *The socio-economics of crime and justice*. New York: M.E. Sharpe, Armonk.

⁴ Simić, B. 2009. Contemporary concept of community policing. *Secuirty*, LI(3), 157-172, page 159.

With the evolution of *community policing* concept, a significance of the police in providing services to citizens is growing, which goes beyond the law or function of maintaining peace and order.⁵ It means that in this way the idea of a bigger involvement of the community and citizens in police decision making and acting is promoted and that citizens' involvement is a prerequisite for efficient and responsible police.

The application of *community policing* concept showed that police officers much less deal with traditional police activities, because they aim their activities at preventive work.⁶ Supporters of this concept expect that its use can contribute to conflict reduction, enabling better availability of justice and response to security needs of citizens in cooperation with citizens, which implies prevention area of domestic violence. One of the objectives of preventive police work is the reduction of objective victimization risk. Victimization can destroy basic trust of people in the world, cause suspicion in their security and safety and disorder their everyday functioning. Partnership of citizens and the police, stressed by this concept⁷, becomes crucial in the prevention of repeating the victimization.

According to *socially obliging concept*, police is observed as a kind of social service, and police training and organization are adjusted to socially obliging side of work. Police is recognized as a participant in formulating social policy, whereas in its work methods close cooperation with a network of social services and institutions prevails, which can contribute to neutralizing social causes of criminality. However, researches show that citizens' suspicion in legitimacy of the police negatively affects voluntary cooperation between citizens and the police.⁸ In that sense, the police slowly realize partner relationship with citizens and other organizations in a society, which would be a stimulating lever for accomplishing tasks envisaged by the concept of police as citizens' service. It is specially emphasized in cases of domestic violence, because it is very sensitive and complex social problem that has its cause in the basic cell of society – family. It is necessary a lot of time to pass for the police to prove themselves to be a citizens' service in traditionally oriented societies.

When the police are defined as an organization that meets citizens' needs, then follows that they are responsible for their protection, thus the quality of their services is the most important measure of their work success⁹, and citizens' satisfaction is an acknowledgement of a degree of police integration in a society.

Citizens' satisfaction with the police becomes a subject of investigating citizens' position on the police, and results of these activities can be a signpost of maintaining or improving their reputation. In the largest number of scientific articles in Kobson basis, factors influencing citizens' satisfaction are analyzed¹⁰, but no model of measuring citizens' satisfaction with police service

5 More in: Mastrofski, S.D. 1999. *Policing for people. Ideas in American Policing*. USA: Police Foundation.

6 Smith, B.W., Kenneth, J.N., Frank, J. 2001. Community Policing and the Work Routines of Street-Level Officers, *Criminal Justice Review*, 26(1), 17-37, p. 17.

7 Millen, F., Stephens, M. 2012. Police Authorities, Accountability, and Citizenship. *Policing*, 6(3), 261-271, p. 261.

8 More in: Jackson, J., Bradford, B., Hough, M., Myhill, A., Quinton, P., Tyler, T.R. 2012. Why do people comply with the law? Legitimacy and the influence of legal institutions. *British Journal of Criminology*, 52(6), pp. 1051-1071.

9 Watson, 1994, y: Dietz, A.C. 1997. Evaluating community policing: quality police service and fear of crime. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 20(1), 83-100, p. 87.

10 Overview of selected articles in the area of factors affecting satisfaction of citizens published in foreign magazines (Kobson base and academic articles on the Internet): (1) Alpert, P.G., Dunham, G.R., MacDonald, M.J. 2004. Interactive Police-Citizen Encounters that Result in Force. *Police Quarterly*, 7(4), pp. 475-488; (2) Hinds, L. 2009. Public satisfaction with police: the influence of general attitudes and police-citizen encounters. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, 11(1), pp. 54-66; (3) Murphy, K. 2009. Public Satisfaction With Police: The Importance of Procedural Justice and Police Performance in Police-Citizen Encounters. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 42(2), pp. 159-178; (4) Reisig, M.D., Chandek, M.S. 2001. The effects of expectancy disconfirmation on

is suggested. As topics in these scientific articles, measuring of influence of factors from the surrounding to relationship police-citizens are prevailing, as well as factors determining behavior of sides in this relationship.¹¹

In Serbian Citation Index base, there are no articles containing the following groups of terms¹²: *police and citizens interaction, citizens' satisfaction with the work/relation of the police, citizens' satisfaction, police image, police as citizens' service, citizens and police needs, behavior of the police in their relationship with citizens.*

Theoretical and empirical analysis of quality performance of police-citizens relationship, and citizens' satisfaction with the police work is not present in domestic scientific articles. The above stated indicates the direction of future researches that can contribute with their results to the efficiency of police work which is measured by citizens' satisfaction. In relation to that, researches conducted by civil society organizations in Serbia, which relate to domestic violence victims' satisfaction with the relationship of the police with them¹³, represent an acknowledgement of the right path that should be taken by all institutions, police as well, having in mind victim's interest as one of their target groups.

THE POLICE RESPONSE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN 1960-1980

In sixties of the twentieth century, it was believed that police work involved discretionary decision making and that it did not depend only on the law.¹⁴ Discretionary decision making does not imply a possibility of arbitrary action of police officers, but legal authority to choose between several legal possibilities and thus partial or incomplete legal connection. Whenever such cases are treated, there is a connection with given legal alternatives, other legal restraints, legal principles, principles of lawfulness and restraints of ethical nature.¹⁵ It implies that acting by discretionary authority requires high professionalism of police officers. Likewise, it implies that discretionary decision making depends on cultural and situational perception of police officers – operational officers.¹⁶ At the same time, police officers in a large number of cases of patrolling carry out work in which law is not directly implemented. That is, for instance, work in relation to the control of criminality and law implementation, and other activities, such as certain administrative activities, regulating traffic, providing assistance in urgent cases, crime prevention, solving conflicts, etc.

Researches of the police response to domestic violence, in the period between 1960 and 1980, indicate that police officers were rather “constables of peace” than “constables of law”. When the police intervened in domestic violence cases, it mostly tended to maintain peace, taking over the role of a peacemaker.¹⁷

outcome satisfaction in police-citizen encounters. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 24(1), pp. 88-99; (5) Skogan, W. 2005. Citizen Satisfaction with Police Encounters. *Police Quarterly*, 8(3), pp. 298-321; (6) Tyler, R.T., Folger, R. 1980. Distributional and Procedural Aspects of Satisfaction With Citizen-Police Encounters. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 1(4), pp. 281-292.

11 Milanović, B. 2014. The Relevance of Marketing Logic and Marketing Philosophy in The Police as a Citizens'. *Security*, 56(2), 50-64, p. 54.

12 Search by means of stated terms in the heading, resume and key words in articles in this base.

13 For example: Nikolić-Ristanović, V., (yp.). 2010. *Domestic violence in Vojvodina*. Belgrade: Victimology society of Serbia.

14 This position is supported by culture theoretician. See: Banton, M. 1964. *The Policeman in the Community*. London: Tavistock Publications, p. 2.

15 Milosavljević, B. 1997. *Science on police*. Belgrade: Criminal and Police Academy, p. 189.

16 Hoyle, C. 2000. *Negotiating Domestic Violence, Police, Criminal Justice and Victims*. UK: Oxford University Press, p. 18.

17 Reiss, A.J.Jr. 1971. *The Police and the Public*. New Haven: Yale University Press, p. 18.

Among legal rules and police practice, there was a significant gap, which was a result of the existence of such laws that provided for flexible and indulgent structure within which police worked.¹⁸ Police officers encountered, and still do, a diversity of cases and situations, which are not a standard, and which are unpredictable, variable and mutating in time, so that it is not possible to specify them in regulations in advance. For this reason, police is left a certain space for taking actions, in which it acts based on a discretionary assessment.

In the largest number of developed countries, in seventies of the twentieth century, offences against marriage and family, especially domestic violence, were finally accepted as a problem of the state, and not only of family or society. Since then, Government officials, activists and psychologists have argued on the best way of providing fast and efficient response to domestic violence.

POLICE RESPONSE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN 1980-2000

According to researches conducted by mid eighties of the twentieth century, three forms of police response to domestic violence were identified: 1) mediation; 2) optional apprehension; and 3) obliged apprehension.¹⁹

Mediation was realized in situation when the police, in a “peacekeeper” or adviser role at the very scene of the incident where they speak with an offender, remain at the scene until he/she calms down or a situation becomes quiet in some other way, or until they refer him/her to an institution for social help. Most frequent response of police officers to domestic violence complaints was brought down to “reconciliation” of a bully and a victim.

Optional apprehension arose from a decision on apprehension made by police officers. However, a decision on apprehension cannot depend only on arbitrary decision of police officers. Besides discretionary and authoritative decision making, there are also other reasons for which police did not apply legal provisions in practice, such as: the so-called gaps in law; non-regulated certain specific situations that take place in reality; irregular interpretation of law. Another reason is that women – domestic violence victims were often unsatisfied and additionally victimized by inadequate police treatment. With the aim of removing stated flaws, introduction of trainings for police officers was suggested in order to overcome stereotypes and prejudices and create conditions for promoting good practice in activities of the police.²⁰

Obligatory apprehension was carried out in cases envisaged by law.

In nineties of the twentieth century, empirical researches of criminal offence domestic violence were intensified. It was determined that police still treated domestic violence as less important, less dangerous, primarily a private problem. Researches show that police officers in this period were very rigorous when implementing the law, except for cases of domestic violence, when they rarely intervened. However, when they did so, they usually tended to calm the situation down and insure peace.²¹

18 McBarnet, D. 1983. *Conviction*. London: Macmillan, p. 12.

19 Konstantinović-Vilić, S., Petrušić, H. 2005. Response to domestic violence – theoretical framework and foreign experiences. *Temida*, 8(1), 3-11, p. 6.

20 Konstantinović-Vilić, S., Petrušić, H. 2005. Response to domestic violence – theoretical framework and foreign experiences. *Temida*, 8(1), 3-11, p. 7-8.

21 More in: Edwards, S.S.M. 1989. *Policing Domestic Violence: Women, the Law and the State*, London: Sage.

Without any doubt decision making by the police depends on circumstances of each specific situation, from information they have and receive at the spot to behavior of bullies, from a degree of victim's vulnerability and other factors, but it is impermissible to *a priori* observe a case as unworthy of special attention. A police officer should see through a complex family situation that is very dynamic and changeable, to gather necessary notifications from all involved actors, find out what has happened, ask for necessary explanations from both victim and bully.²² It is clear that police officers and society were missing special sensibility necessary for the understanding of domestic violence as a complex phenomenon, and not as a "family quarrel", which applies in modern era, as well.

Police officers "welcomed" when victims of violence most often gave up prosecution, especially because the rational and emotional conflict between woman and mother in them and fight of conscience and sub conscience resulted most often in them not requesting the apprehension of the offender. This is also confirmed by results of many researches: domestic violence victims had dominant influence on the decision of police officers to apprehend the offender – they did not request prosecution and criminal sanctions.²³ They prevented the apprehension of a bully referring to personal reasons, such as lack of incomes, joint care of children, etc. women – victims of violence often blamed themselves for violence, reduced its significance and danger hoping that police officer would give up apprehending the offender. Such policy was called "patriarchic policy of apprehension", which would provide for exchanging the power of state and law with power of the offender realized by means of their victims.²⁴ This was an incentive to move focus from bully to victim's interest and his/her empowerment.

POLICE RESPONSE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN 2000-TODAY

Researches on the police response to domestic violence in this period were focused on the influence of police subculture on domestic violence committed by police members in their family, but also on determining causes of failing to report violence taking part of the victim, and those factors that reduce the efficiency of police response to domestic violence taking part of police officers.

On a sample of police officers from four departments in the south part of the USA, the influence of traditional police subculture on domestic violence was examined. Results of this research confirmed that two aspects of traditional police subculture - burning down as a result of frustration and stress in a working place and authoritativeness significantly connected with psychological violence of police officers in their families.²⁵

22 Konstantinović-Vilić, S., Petrušić, H. 2005. Response to domestic violence – theoretical framework and foreign experiences. *Temida*, 8(1), 3-11, p. 7.

23 Hoyle, C., Sandres, A. 2000. Police Response to Domestic Violence. *B.J. Criminology*, 40(1), 14-36, p. 14.

24 Mills, L.G. 1998. Mandatory arrest and prosecution policies for domestic violence: a critical literature review and the case for more research to test victim empowerment approaches. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 25(3), 1998, 306-318, p. 306.

25 Blumenstein, L., Fridell, L., Jones, Sh. 2012. The link between traditional police sub-culture and police intimate partner violence. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 35(1), 147-164, p. 147.

In one of recent studies²⁶, there was confirmed a direct link between physical police officers abuse when they were children and subsequent domestic violence committed by those police officers against their wives and children. This study stresses the significance of recognizing physical maltreatment and its consequences for children, which would contribute to raising knowledge on the cycle of violence in police families.

Violence committed by police members in their families is increasingly recognized as an important social and legal issue. It is characteristic of all police services, ours as well.

One research in the USA determined that 41% of surveyed men – police officers confessed that at least one incident of physical aggression happened in their marital relationship in the last year, whereas 8% of them committed physical attack, including suffocation, strangling, and/or use or threatening using knife or a gun.²⁷

According to latest research²⁸, 324 cases were identified in which police officers were accused of criminal offence of domestic violence. In 281 cases, police officers were arrested (they were employed in 226 police agencies). Most of them were males (96%). One third of victims are currently wives of arrested police officers. Almost one fourth of victims are children. There were also 16 victims, who were also police officers. Attack was the most serious offence and approximately 40% officers were accused of it; severe bodily injury 20.1%, rape 9.9%, intimidation 7.1%, murder/involuntary manslaughter 4.6% and forced caressing 3.7%.

Most researches on police members as domestic violence executors were conducted in the USA. However, great problem still is a lack of empirical data on domestic violence committed by police members in other countries, which refers to Republic of Serbia, as well. There is an assumption that police keeps information on reports of incidents of police officers' violence within their families, so all pieces of information usually belong to internal units hard or even impossible to access.²⁹

Police work implies that police officers are exposed on a daily basis to a wide range of violent episodes. Researchers suspect that high degree of domestic violence among police officers is a consequence of the so-called "effects overflowing" syndrome.³⁰ This is justified by stress that police officers who are involved in domestic violence cases are exposed to.³¹ Problem with alcohol that, because of stress, police officers resort to is another aspect of "effects overflowing" syndrome, which contributes to the frequency of violence in their families committed by police officers.³² Besides these moments, it is believed that authority, which is by nature of work a privilege of police officers, contributes to their resorting to violence in their families.³³

26 Zavala, E. 2013. Testing the Link Between Child Maltreatment and Family Violence Among Police Officers. *Crime & Delinquency*, 59(3), 468-483, p. 468. This study is based on a previous study on domestic violence by the police, that is, research done in police directorate of Baltimor between 1997 and 1999.

27 Neidig, P.H., Russell, H.E., Seng, A.F. 1992. Interspousal aggression in law enforcement families: A preliminary investigation. *Police Studies: The International Review of Police Development*, 15(1), 30-38, p. 32.

28 Analysis of newspaper texts – data were gathered by using *Google News TM search engine and Google Alerts TM email update service*. More in: Stinson, P.M., Liederbach, J. 2012. Officer-Involved Domestic Violence, Research in brief. *Police Chief Magazine*, 79(9), 139-163.

29 More in: Gershon, R. 2000. *Project shields: Final Report* (NCJ 185892). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice.

30 More in: Johnson, L.B., Todd, M., Subramanian, G. 2005. Violence in police families: Work-family spillover. *Journal of Family Violence*, 20, 3-12.

31 More in: Gershon, R. 2000. *Project shields: Final Report* (NCJ 185892). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice.

32 More in: Dishlacoff, L. 1976. The drinking cop. *Police Chief*, 43(1), 32-39. Слично и: Nordlicht, S. 1979. Effects of stress on the police officer and family. *New York State Journal of Medicine*, 79(3), 400-401; Stinson, P.M., Liederbach, J., Freiburger, T.L. 2012. Off-duty and under arrest: A study of crimes perpetrated by off-duty police. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 23(2), 139-163.

33 Johnson, L.B., Todd, M., Subramanian, G. 2005. Violence in police families: Work-family spillover. *Journal of Family Violence*, 20, 3-12, p. 4.

It cannot be expected that police officers, who committed violence against their family members, to adequately react in cases of domestic violence. An example of good practice for the prevention of the above-stated would be special departments in police directorates specialized only in domestic violence the perpetrators of which are police officers. Those departments cooperate with prosecutor's office in charge of prosecuting offenders of domestic violence when the accused are in "high positions"³⁴, where police members belong, too.

In modern circumstances, trend of domestic violence victims' "resisting" to report violence and prosecute offenders is continued. Practice has shown that domestic violence victims much rarely address police than victims of other forms of violence, which is linked to their desire to protect privacy, with concern, fear of revenge, but also their wish to protect offenders.³⁵ However, lack of victims' trust in the system should not be neglected, as well, especially in the police which are usually first called for help or who come first to the crime scene. Also, complaints are often not based on evidence or a described offence is not qualified as a criminal offence.

Overcoming of a problem in qualifying cases of domestic violence can be realized by a stronger, continuous, systematic cooperation between police and prosecutor's office. In our country, an example of good practice is the cooperation between police and prosecutor's office in Zrenjanin.³⁶ Zrenjanin model should be accepted as a unique national model of inter-sector cooperation that is of extreme use in protecting victims of violence, but also for more efficient action of all institutions, and police with that, as well.

No less important is the example of good practice of Social Work Center of Lazarevac, where a "mobile team" was founded and system of permanent contacts and joint meetings of representatives of social work center, police, health center, public prosecutor's office, misdemeanor authority, social service and non-governmental organizations were established.³⁷ Since it is insisted on preventive measures, the example of good practice from Lazarevac indicates also the benefits of repressive measures, especially because the police are an institution that a bully "abhors" most, that is, fears most.

Team work of institutions involved in domestic violence cases regarding each case of violence is a good direction of changes of police response to domestic violence and other crimi-

34 Fukuroda, M., p. 134. in: Đan, A. 2013. *Partner violence with official badge: police members as partner violence offenders in Serbia*. Belgrade: Belgrade center for security policy, p. 2.

35 Felson, B.R., Messner, F.S., Hoskin, W.A., Deane, G. 2002. Reasons for reporting and not reporting domestic violence to the police. *Criminology*, 40(3), 617-648, p. 617; Слично и: Wolf, E.M., Ly, U., Hobart, A.M., Kernic, A.M. 2003. Barriers to Seeking Police Help for Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 18(2), 121-129, p. 121.

36 Cooperation between prosecutor's office and the police in Zrenjanin is a result of perceived omission – in domestic violence cases with all marks of a criminal offence misdemeanor proceedings are mostly launched instead of criminal proceedings. Weekly coordination meetings of the representatives of prosecutor's offices, police, center for social work, health center, and misdemeanor court serves for information exchange on each individual case of domestic violence reported in the previous week and decision making on the measures that shall be undertaken by each of stated institutions. The activity of the prosecutor's office beyond criminal proceedings also became regular part of the model of adequate institutional reaction to domestic violence in Zrenjanin, which is of great significance. According to: Mršević, Z. 2014. Violence and ourselves – towards society without violence. Belgrade: Social Sciences Institute, p. 69-71.

37 Experience from Lazarevac indicates that, regardless of the institution victim addresses, information are exchanged followed by instructions: police patrol and mobile team of the center immediately intervene. No matter whether criminal proceedings are launched by a prosecutor and verdict reached by the court, practice showed that the whole proceedings impact the bully to change his behaviour in many cases. In case bullies do not change their behavior conferences of cases are convened. In such conference the following participate: case leader from the center for social work, psychologist and pedagogue as well, police officer in charge of monitoring violence and other experts necessary for closing the circle of protection (psychiatrist, magistrate, social workers of companies where the actors are employed). In that meeting it is jointly assessed what measures will be taken by each institution. According to: Radosavljević, M. 2010. How to counter domestic violence, We have a mobile team. *Politics*, 30th March, p. 10.

nal offences against marriage and family. This is a motive for the police as an institution to get more active in a sense of self-initiative regarding undertaking activities of cooperation and coordination with other institutions in each and every domestic violence case.

In researching influence of reported domestic violence and arrest of the offender, it has been determined that best ways of deterring from further violence linked to stimulate victims and third persons to report violence.³⁸

Other researches indicate that home visit by police officers has a positive effect on reducing domestic violence or encouraging potential victims to address police before violence occurs.³⁹ Efficient police reaction affects reducing the repeating of violence in cases of high risk violence.⁴⁰ Even though police intervention represents primary response to domestic violence, it has been determined that it does not guarantee future safety of victim that should be a priority.⁴¹ What remains is to conclude that support of others and remoteness from the partner can contribute to victims feeling safer.

Victims of domestic violence, most often for fear of the offender, perceive the arrest of the offender as a solution of the problem at the moment when the act of violence is finished, whereas later on they regret the decision. They often tend to protect the offender from the arrest, representing the problem as insignificant and blaming themselves. Reasons for such relation of victims to violence and the offender are different: desire for revenge and satisfying justice fades in time because of the duration of proceedings, existence endangering, fear of revenge, as well as secondary victimization and lack of trust in the system.⁴²

Victims most often call the police: (1) when the offenders are known to the police by previously committed act of domestic violence; (2) when they were injured by a bully; (3) when a bully uses weapons and when he is drunk at the time of committing domestic violence.⁴³ In women-victims' opinion – barriers for victims are present in the area of situation factors and personal factors, fears and negative experiences with police reaction, as well as fear of possible consequences.⁴⁴

Problems in efficient and effective police intervention in domestic violence, according to positions of victims of violence, lie in police officers treatment of victims. They usually do not have a good experience with the police intervening in the family. They believe that police officers most often diminish seriousness of a situation and thus contributing to victims feeling humiliated, shamed, and even guilty. Most women-victims believed that police officers verbally changed their statements in the course of transmitting information to a third person. In a large number of cases, victims felt as accomplices in the violence they suffered. That feeling is a consequence of threats of police officers that they themselves will be arrested. In that case,

38 Felson, B.R., Ackerman, M.J., Gallagher, A.C. 2005. Police intervention and the repeat of domestic assault. *Criminology*, 43(3), 563-588, p. 563.

39 Casey, L.R., Berkman, M., Stover, S.C., Gill, K., Durso, S., Marans, S. 2007. Preliminary Results of a Police-Advocate Home-Visit Intervention Project for Victims of Domestic Violence. *Journal of Psychological Trauma* 6(1), 2007, 39-49, p. 39; Слично и: Stover S.C., Berkman, M., Desai, R., Marans, S. 2010. The Efficacy of a Police-Advocacy Intervention for Victims of Domestic Violence: 12 Month Follow-Up Data. *Violence Against Women*, 16 (4), 410-425, p. 410.

40 Belfrage, H., Strand, S., Storey J.E., Gibas, A.L., Kropp, P.R., Hart, S.D. 2012. Assessment and management of risk for intimate partner violence by police officers using the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment Guide. *Law and Human Behavior*, 36(1), 60-67, p. 60.

41 Dichter E.M., Gelles, J.R. 2012. Women's Perceptions of Safety and Risk Following Police Intervention for Intimate Partner Violence. *Violence Against Women*, 18(1), 44-63, p. 44.

42 Felson, B.R., Messner, F.S., Hoskin, W.A., Deane, G. 2002. Reasons for reporting and not reporting domestic violence to the police. *Criminology*, 40(3), 617-648, p. 617.

43 More in: Hirschel, D., Hutchison, I.W. 2001. The relative effects of offense, offender, and victim variables on the decision to prosecute domestic violence cases. *Violence Against Women*, 7(1), 46-59.

44 Wolf, E.M., Ly, U., Hobart, A.M., Kernic, A.M. 2003. Barriers to Seeking Police Help for Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 18(2), 121-129, p. 121.

victims resist addressing the police, because they expect disrespect and arrogance of police officers. In accordance with the above stated, four categories of police officers' attitude towards women-victims were identified: (1) attitude according to which the gravity of family situation (violence) is diminished; (2) attitude according to which they do not trust victims of violence; (3) attitude by system "we do not care"; (4) attitude of a "macho police officer". Depending on the attitude that is taken, victim perceives treatment by a police officer.⁴⁵

Behavior of police officers in the Republic of Serbia, according to the assessment of domestic violence victims is also inadequate.

Research conducted in our country in 2001⁴⁶ indicates that reasons for failing to report domestic violence to the police by victims are numerous: (1) victims of violence believe that last violent incident was not serious to that extent that it would require a police intervention; (2) victims of violence feel shame to report violence to the police; (3) they were scared of violence escalation; (4) they did not have trust in police help; (4) they had previous experience when police did not want to interfere in family relations.

Research conducted in our country in 2009 confirms results of previous research on the position of domestic violence victims on the police⁴⁷: (1) police is inert and insufficiently interested to respond; (2) police intervention is non-efficient; (3) police officers are insufficiently trained for working with victims of violence.

The existing knowledge of police officers on the need of protecting victims and the understanding of domestic violence problem is on a unsatisfactory level. The police usually take care of how to close the case and in what way the victim will contribute to the prosecution of the offender, instead of focusing on the victim's protection in order to be more ready and interested in assisting the prosecution and more willing to take part in the proceedings. There has been observed lately the change in the relationship and reaction of the police towards domestic violence and in general towards criminal offences against marriage and family. They get adjusted and improved in accordance with changes in society, at both local and national level. Changes are aimed at taking over the control in providing evidence and victim's protection in order to act in interest of victims and society, and based on recommendations of international community and legal regulations of the Republic of Serbia (referring to prevention and fight against domestic violence and protection of children and minors).

In police officers' opinion, insufficiently efficient police intervention in domestic violence cases is a consequence of: (1) unsolved conflict between partners; (2) weaknesses of legal provisions that cannot prevent criminal offence of domestic violence; (3) lack of resources and motivation; (4) inadequate position of lawyers and judges who perceive domestic violence as a single event and not as a series of entangled fibers interwoven in the community tissue or who cannot punish perpetrators without evidence.⁴⁸ Police officers feel helpless when they realize that certain perpetrators are not punished because of the lack of cooperation by victims or their inability to appear in court. Rage of certain perpetrators is intensified per pronounced prison sentence, which makes police officers catalyst for further violence.⁴⁹ In this case, both

45 Stephens, B., Sinden, P. 2000. Victims' voices domestic assault victims' perceptions of police demeanor. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 15(5), 534–537, p. 534.

46 *National strategy for the prevention and suppression of violence against women in a family and partner relationships*. 2011. „Official Gazette of RS“, no 27/2011, p 12.

47 Nikolić-Ristanović, V., (yp.). 2010. *Domestic violence in Vojvodina*, Belgrade: Victimology Society of Serbia. p. 92–94.

48 More in: Horwitz, H.S., Mitchell, D., LaRussa-Trott, M., Santiago, L., Pearson, J., Skiff, M.D., Cerulli, C. 2011. An Inside View of Police Officers' Experience with Domestic Violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 26(8), 617–625.

49 Hirschel, D., Hutchison, I.W. 2001. The relative effects of offense, offender, and victim variables on the decision to prosecute domestic violence cases. *Violence Against Women*, 7(1), 46–59, p. 46–59.

police officers and victims feel powerless. Women-victims do not call police, because they know that they would be exposed to violence for this reason. And if they do not call the police, how can the police protect them? Justice often gives up a case when victim's testimony is left out, believing that the victim has given up further prosecution. For this reason, police officers do not take measures for victim's protection. These allegations cannot be completely accepted in a system that applies an approach based on evidence, because victim's statement is not the only one and most important evidence. That is why we should insist on the policy of "prosecution based on evidence" that does not overstress the significance of victim's statement⁵⁰, but is based on thorough solving of a case and gathering of evidence that would enable prosecutor's office to continue proceedings without victim's testimony. In compliance with it, police members have to possess inter-personal and communication social skills⁵¹ and knowledge on characteristics of a phenomenon they encounter.

In one of the recent foreign relevant researches⁵² it was determined that police officers more emotionally experience domestic violence cases in relation to other criminal offences, but they also believe that their contribution to the prevention of domestic violence would be higher: (1) when accusations would be based on evidence; (2) if they are more qualified for recognition of domestic violence; (3) when they would have more possibilities to take advice and after a domestic violence case speak between each other and share opinions in relation to cases; (4) when they would have higher degree of cooperation with other professional groups (from other institutions). It can be concluded that police officers' opinion is a good signpost for improving role of the police in the protection from domestic violence.

Better cooperation with other institutions, especially those from the sphere of social protection, would be welcomed by the police in prosecuting this criminal offence, and especially in its prevention. Researches of the relationship between police and services for the protection of children and reaction to incidents of domestic violence conducted in Great Britain indicated that communication between these two institutions is unsatisfactory and that social workers do not have necessary findings on violence against children. Approximately 40% of families said that they had previous contact with services for the protection of children in this area, but those cases was already opened. Reports of new cases comprised only 5% of the total number of cases. This research identified a series of innovative approaches for the improvement of coordination of police and services for the protection of children regarding the exposure of children to domestic violence.⁵³ Since domestic violence and exposure of children to violence are most often concealed, necessary cooperation between police and social services was suggested.

CONCLUSION

With the development of modern concepts of the police, such as *community policing* and *socially obliging concept* of the police, preventive role of the police is emphasized, which implies their role in domestic violence cases, as well.

50 More in: Davis, R., O'Sullivan, C., Farole, D., Rempel, M. 2008. A comparison of two prosecution policies in cases of intimate partner violence: mandatory case filing versus following the victim's lead. *Criminology and Public Policy*, 7(4), 633–662.

51 Ilić, Z. 2003. Government authorities and prevention of minor delinquency at the local level, p. 21, in: Radovanović, D. (ur.), 2003. *Strategy of state response to criminality*. Belgrade: Institute for criminology and social researches, 3-6 June.

52 Horwitz, H.S., Mitchell, D., LaRussa-Trott, M., Santiago, L., Pearson, J., Skiff, M.D., Cerulli, C., 2011, An Inside View of Police Officers' Experience with Domestic Violence, *Journal of Family Violence*, 26(8), 617–625, p. 617.

53 Stanley, N., Miller, P., Foster R.H., Thomson, G. 2011. Children's Experiences of Domestic Violence: Developing an Integrated Response From Police and Child Protection Services. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 26(12), 2372–2391, pp. 2372–2373.

Most often response of police officers to a domestic violence complaint, until early 21st century, was brought down to “reconciliation” of bully and victim. Its causes can be found in the area of legislature (that allowing by discretionary law in taking actions) and in patriarchic pattern of social relations.

In modern circumstances, as well, domestic violence cases are often treated as family issues and thus are concealed, and in case they become transparent, victims of violence – most often women and children tend to justify it in order to avoid prosecution of the offender. On the other hand, police officers cannot avoid subjectivity in assessing a case they most often qualify as “everyday family quarrel“. Police officers lack special sensibility that is required for understanding domestic violence as a complex phenomenon, and not as a “family quarrel“. Their focus on the protection and strengthening of domestic violence victims is missing.

Lack of trust of domestic violence victims in the police is still significantly present. There are mechanisms that assist that a victim perseveres in the proceedings. One of them is fair police treatment of a victim of violence, and the other is a fair relation of other institutions assisting and protecting victims. Victims very much appreciate human and not only professional relation of police officers to them. Most authors conclude that procedures have less influence on the victims’ opinions on the police, whereas the relationship between police officers and victims of domestic violence has a prevailing influence. The behavior of the police in establishing domestic violence victims’ trust is very important.

Police officers believe that they can do their part of the job efficiently by applying regulations protecting public security, but they cannot influence the coordination of activities in a community the aim of which is the prevention of violence and protection of domestic violence victims. It is completely clear that relation of the police towards domestic violence and victims cannot be applied without a radical change in society.

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THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES ON PERFORMANCE AND BEHAVIOR OF POLICE OFFICERS¹

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Abstract: Organizational changes in police organizations usually have an impact on police officers who work in them and this interdependence is very important for the final result which will the police organization achieve, as well as the achieved level of security of the citizens and other protected values. Back in the past, during changes in the police force, little attention was paid to employees to whom they directly related. Police organizations are complex systems and the implementation of organizational changes in such systems requires exceptional expertise of those who implement them. Politicians often consider themselves to be competent for this process, but final result is not consistent with the expected outcome. Using different indicators it should be possible to follow the impact of organizational changes on performance, as well as on job satisfaction and motivation of police officers. Additionally, it is important to take into account the resistance of police officers on organizational changes, as a way of their response and behavior to the new conditions of work and functioning.

Key Words: organizational change, performance, indicators, police officers, resistance

INTRODUCTION

The organizational change implies any change in the organizational system that leads to higher levels of efficiency and effectiveness of the functioning. Specifically, everything leading to a higher level of utilization of human, material and financial resources and compliance with the environment may be called an organizational change.³ A recurring theme of many writers is that the effects and consequences of organizational change can be widespread, even from the most seemingly insignificant alteration to a task or procedure to major organizational re-structuring and re-sizing. Today, organizational changes may take several

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³ Jaško, O., Čudanov, M., Jevtić, M. and Krivokapić, J., (2014). Designing of organization. Faculty of organizational sciences. Belgrade, p.230.

different types. The relevant literature most often mentions classifications on planned and unplanned, structural, technological and behavioral changes, then incremental and strategic changes.⁴ Moreover, in accordance with the characteristics, organizational changes can be classed as those related to organizational development, organizational transformation and reengineering. At the present time, when the effects of the global crisis have consequences on all segments of society, an often mentioned term is downsizing which refers to the reduction of the number of employees on the operating payroll. When we talk about changes in police organizations, it is suggested that in order to understand and describe the process of change in police organizations it is necessary to consider both the human reactions to change, as well as the mechanistic organizational functions and processes that bring about those effects in humans. Organizational changes in the police force basically do not have many similarities to those carried out in the private sector, more precisely in the business entities. "Police reform is risky and hard, and efforts to innovate in policing do not always provide the expected and desired results."⁵ Due to many reasons, such as a large number of involved subjects in police reforms or pressure made by leading political parties, it is necessary to be clear-eyed about the difficulties regarding innovations in police organizations. Experience shows that holders of organizational changes in the police force often forget what impact they will realize on performance of police officers. Incongruity between the expected outcomes after the changes and the performance of employees may cause resistance of employees which is manifested in various ways. Through recommendations the authors will give few options which could be very useful for the proper implementation of reforms in organizational terms whereby there will be no negative impact on the performance of employees.

DO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES AFFECT THE PERFORMANCE OF POLICE OFFICERS?

When speaking about the classification of organizational changes, as stated in the previous part of the paper, the most common ones are structural, technological and behavioral. Within the structural approach, the emphasis is on the changes of certain dimensions of the structure that contribute to the efficiency of the organization. The technological approach to organizational changes takes into account the connection between technology and organization, and the current trend of their uniting in modern flexible production systems, computer integrated production and similar. The behavioral or human approach to organizational changes is based on the hypothesis that the functioning of an organization can be improved through changes in people, their behavior and knowledge.⁶ In the case of police organization, most changes refer to structural changes while the least attention is paid to changes in people who are part of it. Examples from practice show that these changes reflect on the new division of labor or a greater degree of centralization or decentralization and can have either positive or negative effects on the performance of police officers. The positive effect is reflected in the fact that, for example, through better division of labor, police officers can better perform their tasks. It happens that within one organizational unit a certain group of police officers is overloaded with work. As a consequence, that organizational unit constantly achieves poor results which may adversely affect the safety of citizens. A better division of labor is suggested, e.g. some jobs may be transferred to the jurisdiction of another group of workers in same organizational unit who do not have so many duties. Thus, the organizational change should have positive effect on the performance of police officers. But, on the other hand, there is a tendency within

4 Ibid.,p.231

5 Skogan,W.G., (2008). Why reforms fail. Policing & Society. Vol. 18. No. 1. 2008. p.23

6 Ibid.,p.233-234.

police organizations to achieve as high as possible degree of centralization. That practice, which can be achieved by shifting the place of the decision to a higher level, may adversely affect the results of police officers. The implementation of organizational changes that will lead to a greater degree of centralization can greatly slow down the performance of some types of police operations, which cannot be allowed, especially in part of prevention and suppression of criminal acts. If, for example, organizational change specifies that about the realization of the arrest which does not require special measures, the decision reached by the top management of the police organization, can greatly slow down the realization, and also reduce the performance of police officers. One of the frequent organizational changes in modern police organizations is downsizing. In the literature, this term is used to describe the process of reducing the number of employees in order to increase business efficiency. The basic goals of downsizing generally lead to the cost reduction, the implementation of technology that does not require an existing profile and number of workers and raising the competitiveness of the company.⁷ In case of police organizations in modern conditions the main reason for downsizing will be reducing the costs. The Government of a country, within the national budget, has to find enough funds for all costs for normal functioning of the police organization taking care that the safety of citizens is on high level. However, economic crises affect many countries trying to manage national financing as better as possible. Consequently, they need to reduce costs and one way is to have fewer people who will have their salaries paid from the national budget. Police officers belong to one group of those people. In some countries, ministries who are in charge of the police organization were obliged to reduce the number of police officers. An example is the Republic of Serbia where at the beginning of 2016 the Ministry of Interior was obliged to reduce the number of employee among whom were police officers. Can downsizing have negative effects on the performance of police officers? The answer is *yes*. One study showed that only 22 percent of implemented restructuring in this way adequately raise productivity. According to another study that relates directly to the police organization, that number is 34 percent. Commenting these results Perry notes that downsizing affects employees with specific skills which they implemented and develop only in the certain organization thus leading to decreasing in performance of tasks of the dismissed worker.⁸

PERFORMANCE INDICATORS FOR TRACKING THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES ON THE POLICE OFFICERS

It is very important to track the impact of the organizational changes on the effects of police officers and to determine the indicators by which this process will be realized. As the police provide a variety of services, several nations have moved towards recommending a selection of performance measures corresponding to the various services or activities. Performance is multidimensional; therefore its measurement must be such as well.⁹ Despite the richness of the frameworks presented in these and other materials, a significant proportion of today's police organizations seem to remain narrowly focused on the same categories of indicators that have dominated in this field for decades, such as:

- Reductions in the number of serious crimes reported,
- Clearance rates,

⁷ Ibid.,p.393.

⁸ Perry,L.T., (1985). Cutbacks, Layoffs and other obscurities – Making human resources decisions. *Business horizons* 28 (4), p.68-75

⁹ Roche,S., (2008). *Performance management in France: A Police or an Electoral Issue?*. Policing-Oxford University Press, p.336

- Response times,
- Measures of enforcement productivity (e.g. numbers of arrests, citations or stop-and-frisk searches)¹⁰

All of indicators mentioned above could be traced before and after organizational changes and the difference between those values should show whether the effects from the implemented change affect the performance of police officers in a positive or negative way. Currently, great attention is paid to community policing. Therefore, the satisfaction of citizens with police engagement could monitor the performance of police officers. Indicators relating to the quality of service or to equality of access to the police are often absent from different researches. A few police organizations in the world use citizen satisfaction surveys as an indicator for measuring the performance of police officers on a regular basis, but most do not. Furthermore, in order to estimate the efficiency of police organizations, as well as the work of their officers, appropriate indicators should be based on costs. The key efficiency indicator demonstrates the efficiency with which the police organization allocates its resources to the appropriate services (outputs) to create safer and more secure community.

As additional indicators during the monitoring of the impact of organizational changes on the performance of police officers, those relating to the job satisfaction and motivation to perform assigned duties should be considered as well. Through the indicators relating to the mentioned manifestation of organizational behavior, differences between performances before and after the changes cannot be directly traced, but we can indirectly make conclusion about the amount of effort the employees are willing to make, and what the consequences after performing the work which represents job satisfaction will be. Indicators such as work absenteeism and turnover may show the effect that is achieved through organizational change, considering that as a result of poor or better performance which may increase or decrease job satisfaction and motivation. In terms of absenteeism, to monitor the situation before and after the organizational changes is recommended global absenteeism index, as the ratio of the number of absences in a given period and the number of employees in the same period shown as a percentage.¹¹ In order to monitor fluctuation before and after organizational change, the ratio of the number of officers leaving the police organization to the number of employees in percentages may be taken into account.¹²

We should be very cautious with the performance indicators of police officers in order to monitor the effect that a certain organizational change has made. For example, crime rates are in general very corruptible indicators. For many crimes, changes in rates should be a reflection of changes in the activity of the police rather than changes in the number of criminal acts. This is the situation when crime rates are used as appropriate indicators. On the other hand, criminologists and other evaluators of police performance, who tend to use changes in the aggregated reported crime rate as the outcome variable in their analysis, may not recognize best practice, as the crime reductions visible at the aggregated level may not be statistically significant or may not be present at all.¹³

10 Sparrow, M., (2015). Measuring performance in a modern police organization. *New perspectives in Policing Bulletin*. Washington p.2

11 Mihailović, D. and Ristić, S., (2009). *Organizational behavior*. Faculty of organizational sciences. Belgrade, p.513

12 *Ibid.*, p.518

13 Sparrow, M., (2015). Measuring performance in a modern police organization. *New perspectives in Policing Bulletin*. Washington p.17

RESISTANCE OF POLICE OFFICERS TO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES

Usually the resistance to changes is assumed as negative phenomena, and most employees perceive it frequently in that way. Organizational changes in police organizations are reality and necessity in the present tense, but most police officers cannot find justified reasons for the changes. Private companies as dominant organizational culture support innovation, ideas of every member of the organization and are focused on adapting to the influences from outside. However, employees in police organizations, regardless of the real needs, perceive only the phenomena corresponding to them and develop relationship to changes which reflect the characteristics of their previous organizational model. In this way they develop resistance to changes in a situation where it is necessary to implement new methods and procedures, especially before starting to work in new way. There are a lot of factors which contribute to resistance and they can be presented as:

- psychological factors,
- psycho-social factors,
- sunk costs,
- personal strategies,
- confusion¹⁴

According to one group of authors, the main obstacles to organizational changes are reward system which enforce the old way of work, then threats to current balance of power and intergroup conflicts which interrupt cooperation, and finally incompatibility between the process of changes and organizational culture and huge investments in previous decisions and directions of action.¹⁵ In the case of police officers who are faced with organizational changes, they will not be easily adapted to the same. The most dominant reasons for the changes in their behavior and resistance belong to a group of psychological factors. Lack of confidence, anxiety, fear and stress are real examples of the previously mentioned. In the modern times most of organizational changes in the police organizations are manifested through worse labor conditions than before. The loss of job position and smaller salaries are usually characteristics which follow organizational changes in police. Moreover, the loss of status in police service and transfer to a different department where the employee have less authority than before will cause resistance. Police officers in this situation will be under stress, frightened and without confidence. In the period before implementing organizational changes with negative consequences to police officers, they will think more about their individual position than about job duties. During the working hours they talk about their expectations, rumors spread and their concentration on primary engagement is on a very poor level which could cause serious problems for the safety of citizens. As mentioned before, due to the pronounced effects of psychological factors, resistance to changes will appear among staff. For the police organization it is typically that the methods of work are used for many years without any changes. New developments in the field of information technology represent the support to new models of police organizations with the use of appropriate information systems. For someone who has been working for decades in a certain way and who do not know for other job techniques a big problem is the transition to a new way of working, especially when it comes to the use of modern technologies. Examples are particularly striking in this regard where technology has dramatically altered the nature of certain tasks and change implementation has been

¹⁴ Hart, J., (1996). The management of change in police organizations. College of Police and Security Studies. Slovenia

¹⁵ Jaško, O., Čudanov, M., Jevtić, M. and Krivokapić, J., (2014). Designing of organization. Faculty of organizational sciences. Belgrade, p.370

resisted at a high cost to the all concerned. Resistance to this kind of organizational change among police officers can occur as adopting a 'closed mind' which selectively rejects any input associated with the subject of change, in this case implementing a new information system for example, and it is possible for the individual to ignore any issues that are likely thought to be conflict or troublesome for future working.¹⁶ It is very hard to force them to work in new conditions and implementers of reengineering should be very careful especially with police officers who have worked for a long time. Younger colleagues will accept new methods of work more easily and there is small probability that they will resist new technologies. Police officers, especially those who are in management positions, possess a certain power and influence within police and also in society in general. During the time they develop complex relations which are exactly based on their power and influence. Organizational changes in the police organization usually require replacement of employees, change of power and different layout of resources in organization, while current relations among people often change during the process of organizational changes. It happens that a police officer who was a chief of some department loses his or her position because of the organizational transformation and is to become an ordinary official. Normally, this person will oppose to the organizational change because of the loss of authority. In addition, police officers who are in this position and will lose their managerial positions make strong groups which try to stop the implementation of organizational changes. Because of their relations, sometimes with political authorities, they can be the main obstacle for changes. Secret meetings and lobbying to give up organizational changes are the advents characterizing the behavior of police managers - opponents to changes. As mentioned above, rumors are common advents which follow organizational changes in the police organizations. Media statements by politicians, representatives of the police unions and various analysts may contribute to confusion among police officers that are directly related to the change. Crucial is the importance of confusion or uncertainty about what lies ahead. In the absence of any knowledge about the changes that have taken place, or which are about to take place, rumors and speculations regarding negative consequences are almost certain to develop.¹⁷ In the case of changes in the police organizations, the most common initiators are political leaders who are in power. On the other hand, police officers often think that their attitudes cannot change anything in relation to the attitudes of politicians regarding the changes in the police. Therefore, their behavior can be subsumed under tokenism or a more sophisticated version of simply doing nothing. Typically the individual will agree to changes, debate implementation programs etc., but practically, only the most superficial change will occur. This avoidance method is often associated with an apparently highly active approach to the changes, designed to persuade others that change is progressing.¹⁸ One of the causes of resistance to change among police officers may be representatives of police union who are supposed to represent the views of police employees. Organizational changes in the police organization may bring the innovations that will improve the work and status of police officers. The impact of the police unions on the employees in some countries is especially strong, which is particularly noticeable in the former Yugoslavia. As a result, regardless of whether the organization change is beneficial, when the position of representatives of police union is threatened they will deliberately work against implementation of a better solution. This can create resistance to organizational changes among some groups of employees in police who believe in attitudes of the police union. However, if the representatives responsible for the implementation of changes in the right way demonstrate the benefits, employees' attitudes will quickly turn from resistance to a positive attitude towards changes.

16 Hart,J.,(1996).The management of change in police organizations. College of Police and Security Studies. Slovenia

17 Ibid.

18 Ibid.

CONCLUSION

It is clear that innovation within the police organization is not a simple and easy process. It is necessary to be clear-eyed about the difficulties with implementing the changes in police organizations. With an effort to do the best for the police organization, management who is responsible for introducing changes very often try to change organizations although they hardly understand how they work and they dream of improving things by changing the organizational architecture which leads to permanently negative effects that influence the performance of police officers and their behavior. Moreover, the minister of internal affairs and his associates immediately after taking over the ministry in charge of police work, often touch upon cultural identities without being aware of it, try to innovate without deeper analysis and consultation with the scientific research institutions in this field and because of that they trigger resistance against changes and do not know where it comes from. One of the problems that occurs and which is typical for developing countries or some accessing to relevant world institutions such as the European Union is that police representatives falsely assume that police cultures and practices are basically the same all over Europe and they try to improve things by looking for best practice without taking into account the cultural and organizational context.¹⁹ In order to prevent negative phenomena relating to the impact of organizational changes on the performance and behavior of police officers, certain actions are recommended. Through adequate communication and education of police officers they will be consistent with the goals of changes and in most cases help finding as simple as possible way for implementation. During the period before the implementation of changes it is common that police officers have lack of information or receive incorrect data. Through adequate communication, they should be explained the reasons for the change, the manner of their implementation and the benefits that they will get. Police organizations have a large number of employees. However, changes in these organizations do not affect all police officers. According to this, it is possible to use participation and involvement of those who will be directly exposed to a new approach to organization or work. In this way, these police officers who will actively participate in implementing changes will apply those more easily later. As outlined in the previous part of the paper, the resistance of the police officers towards change can appear in some cases. Sometimes an easy way to avoid this phenomenon is negotiation and agreement, especially if the source of resistance is the police union. One solution could be the replacement of the person or group with strong power and impact on the attitude of police officers. Management support is also very important, but not only as a situation where change in view of the senior management cannot be assumed to be consistent with the views of individuals at operational or intermediate levels. On the other hand, the active support of senior and intermediate managers is essential to adequate and progressive changes at all levels in the police organization. In extreme cases, if another tactics does not work, or is too expensive, manipulation or the explicit and implicit coercion can be used. This way, as the auxiliary resource to overcome the resistance, it can be a quick and cost effective solution, but it can lead to future problems if the police officers feel that they have been manipulated. Certain organizational changes can have both positive and negative impact on the performance of police officers. In addition to the detailed analysis conducted to prove the justification of changes, one of the recommendations to reduce the possibility of errors is to test the changes in one organizational unit. Thus, deficiencies resulting from the implementation of organizational changes can be corrected since the safety of citizens, material and cultural assets do not suffer the consequences of bad estimation from those who support the changes in the police organization.

19 Zeyse-Christe,J.,(2014).Effective change management in the police-Insights from a European research project. Fachhochschule der Polizei Brandenburg

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ABOUT THE SYSTEM OF OPERATIONAL- INVESTIGATIVE POLICE EDUCATION

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Abstract: The paper is dedicated to the system of operational-investigative education of police officers. Considering the specifics of serving in different police units, studying the course of “The operational-investigative activities (further – the OIA) basics” at the police high educational establishments is proposed.

The conclusion is held about the necessity of dividing the OIA police unit’s employees into inspectors and detectives, which would give a possibility for selecting the most experienced ones for producing the OIA and, consequently, improve the efficiency of detection of crimes.

The detectives’ significant activities involve taking part in secret searching events to get the investigation information, and the processing the OIA cases.

The inspectors’ significant activities are to help the detectives (e.g. checking and formalizing incoming information from the detectives, taking part in public search events).

Necessary terms for an inspector’s promotion to the rank of a detective should be such as demonstrated ability for the OIA work, OIA unit work experience not less than three years, received specialized training in the internal affairs system educational establishment in accordance with the specialization of the police unit, successfully passed exam in the operational-investigative activities course.

Keywords: police, studying, operational-investigative activity, two-staged training course, criteria for the detectives’ selection.

INTRODUCTION

By the mid-1990s, after the transition to a market economy, in the conditions of reducing the financing of public higher education institutions these establishments were allowed to provide paid services on a contract basis, which caused a significant increase in the number of students wishing to enter the most popular specialty. The desire of state universities to earn money has provoked a sharp increase of the number of students on contract. At the same time higher education institutions were not ready to significantly increase the number of students: lack of qualified teaching staff, classrooms, training and methodological support, etc. all led to a decrease in the quality of the specialists’ training, reducing, in turn, their demand by prospective employers.

At the same time, there was a reduction of requirements of the state to the educational system as a whole. In particular, requirements for the opening of new universities and faculties

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decreased, and the level of monitoring compliance with the license conditions for providing the educational services was reduced².

RESEARCH AND METHODS

The research is based on the materials of the international practice of operational and investigative training for police. It also focuses on the historically formed, pro-Soviet system of training of police officers.

DATA FOR DISCUSSION

In connection with the system crisis in the economy at the end of the last century there was mass closure and bankruptcy of enterprises of industrial and agricultural complex, leading to job cuts, lower the prestige of technical professions, the collapse of the network of vocational schools. The attitude of citizens to work has changed – the prestige of working professions has fallen, reduced the attractiveness of technical education. A significant part of the population held the illusion that after graduating the high education (mainly economic and legal profile) a person can immediately qualify for high-paying, “white-collar” jobs.

The boom education business has started. By this time in Ukraine (like almost in all countries of the former USSR) there was the mass of opening the legal and economic faculties at the universities of non-core: agricultural, industrial, educational, etc. As a business projects, in all regions were opened private universities in the form of institutes and universities, often have neither their own training facilities nor the qualified teaching staff.

The owner of departmental educational institutions of Ukraine - Ministry of the Internal Affairs (further - the MIA) hasn't stayed away from these negative processes. The harmonious system of training cadets for the MIA units, which basis were the average police schools, was destroyed. The system of MIA had the impression that every law-enforcement officer should be a lawyer with a higher education.

Proceeding from these considerations on the basis of secondary schools and colleges of the initial training of the police units employees through several reorganizations were established institutes and universities of the MIA. And none of the departmental universities had a clear specialization in a police profession, and classification some universities along the lines of the basic training of specific police services: the economy, search, protection of public order, traffic police, etc. – had a declarative character. This approach did not contribute to the professionalization of teaching, as well as the emergence and development of scientific schools in the field of law enforcement. Department of Education and Science of the MIA has lost its coordinating role in the educational process in the subordinated universities. This is evidenced by the fact that during the operation no unified curriculum for core subjects was developed such as the OIA, administrative law and procedure, criminal law and process, special equipment, etc. There was a constant confusion with the training program: at first there were immediately introduced and canceled state exams in Ukrainian and foreign language, then hastily began to study the course “Rhetoric”, “Bologna process”, “Protection of human rights.”

² Shelukhin N. About an up-to-date approaches in training programs of the operative employees of the Ministry of internal affairs in the higher education establishment of the internal affairs' system / N. Shelukhin // The role of science in the raising of quality of the law-enforcements' activities: sourcebook of the international scientific conference. – The publishing house of the Almati academy of the Ministry of internal affairs of Kazakhstan Republic, 2011. – P. 113-118.

Universities have become regional centers for training of personnel for the regional police units at their place of dislocation, but the needs of the number and profile in the training of future police officers considered very concerning.

The authorization to take to the universities cadets immediately after high school graduation had quite negatively effect on the quality of the recruitment for teaching in higher education and further work in the MIA. The police schools received a significant portion of the students without enough solid professional orientation. Incentives to enter the MIA system's Institutes were not only positive reasons connected with the desire to stand on the protection of public order in a very modest fee, but also negative, such as: obtaining a higher legal education with minimum material costs, avoidance of service in the army, software during the future work of the high standard of living due to corruption, the early retirement age, and for women the opportunity to build personal life, associated with the birth and upbringing of children, while serving in the police unit while on leave for child care and claiming a pension for achieving a total of 20 years of service.

Since 2010, MIA officials several times have told statements about the need to reform the system of departmental education. Moreover, because of the lack of the concept of reforming its ways and methods are not defined yet. Constantly there is talk of the future, the number of universities, the number of entering students, about carrying out all sorts of experiments - but no official explanation from the MIA, that baffles the administration and teaching staff of the MIA universities - what happens next? While it is known only one - in MIA universities there is a cut, as in all MIA units.

However, it is clear that the system of training of future police officers will be thoroughly restructured in the direction of enhancing their law enforcement specialization, mastering complex of skills needed for everyday performance of their professional duties at educational levels "bachelor" and the specialty "law enforcement".

In our opinion the rejection from the system of all-over training of jurists in process of reforming the internal affairs system along with the course of the three-year training specialists in law-enforcement would increase the young men's motivation for entering the specialized internal affairs system educational establishments.

Considering the specification of the serving in the different police units in ideal it would be positive if the first two years the future policemen study the unified program and the specific subjects (including the OIA) considering the service line would be studied on the third course.

Speaking about the study of the subject of specialization, I would like to make some comments on the study of a special training course one of the basic "police" subject - "Operational-investigative activity".

In recent years, crime situation in Ukraine is worsening due to declining living standards linked to socio-economic instability, which distorts human values, undermines the economy, constantly threatening the lives and well-being of everyone. And the danger in its historical aspect of development of society is increasing and requires constant revision in the use and improvement of technical tools, techniques and methods that contribute to a more complete and rapid detection of crimes, as well as prevention and crime prevention.

Modern reality in sphere of the impact on crime is strongly dictates admit for decades the current tacit scope of protection of man and society from criminal attacks not only as a united and independent type of socially useful legal activity, but also subject to legal regulation on common rules.

This activity, which is fragmentally submitted in a complex of some sort of the state and all-other juridical activities (counterintelligence, criminal procedure, criminal execution, ad-

ministrative and de-facto private security activities), in which specific operational-investigative legal relationships are emerging, needs to be studied with the unified law positions. The OIA course should be conditionally divided in two sections:

- public (the OIA basics);
- secret (the OIA as a police activity).

The MIA Institutes prepare future police officers to work in practical units in different services as: investigators, detectives, employees of traffic police, etc. For work as a detective, i.e. employees who will be engaged in full agent-operational work, would be prepared for a quarter of graduates. Also, please note that during the first 2-3 years, half of young officers MIA quit. Besides, not everyone future police officers would need the fundamental knowledge about the secret section of OIA. So when we teach the secret section of OIA dedicated working with secret informers, withdrawal information from communication channels, working with the OIA cases etc. the cadets of allover lines of training, we groundlessly raise the round of citizens who is admitted to the secret information; and secondly, considering the large percentage logoff young officers, we train a professional contingent that can actively counteract the activity of OIA units of the police and other security services.

Considering the above, obviously, in the MIA education establishments cadets must be taught only the first section of the OIA course – “The OIA basics”. The same part of the course law students should be taught.

It should be noted that a lot of experience teaching public course “Fundamentals of OIA” is gained for students of higher educational institutions of the MIA of contract and for students of higher civil educational institutions of the Russian Federation and Ukraine. This is due, primarily, the fact that numerous aspects of operational and investigative activities have been the object of research and have received coverage in the open teaching methods and research, including monographs, literature as well as in articles of periodic legal publications. Works devoted to operational and investigative issues, included in the collection of scientific papers and abstracts of papers presented at scientific conferences.

Teaching the course “Fundamentals of OIA” should be of theoretical-applied character and suggests familiarizing students with the basics of the OIA. The study included in the program provides the basic knowledge about: the notion of OIA and its legal regulation; history and contemporary content of OIA; legislation in the field of OIA as a new regulatory and legal formation; legal status of OIA subjects of their duties, rights and responsibilities; legislative regulation of decisions and actions taken in the process of OIA; OIA maintenance of criminal proceedings.

The assimilation of this material is the basis of training the modern lawyer. Deep and strong knowledge of the theory of OIA and skills of law enforcement standards of OIA laws are needed primarily in activities of every police officer, regardless of their position. This knowledge is useful for the organization of the lawyer, investigator, prosecutor, judge. Without an understanding of the main provisions of OIA other representatives of the legal profession can't get along.

The purpose of this course is: formation of students' holistic understanding of the OIA as a special, quite specific form of the state of law enforcement, but at the same time closely interconnected with other types of public law enforcement; clarification of the role and place of the theory of OIA in the fields of law and jurisprudence; formation of students' understanding of the nature and value of legal rules governing the OIA; students' awareness of social conditioning and social significance of OIA. A look at the OIA as a legal theory of an independent branch of law has finally emerged and became widespread.

It is significant that at the international conference, which was held in May 2011 in the Donetsk Law Institute, one of the speakers of visitors - the governing officer training school of police of the MIA of Bavaria was confused by the questions given from the audience on how to prepare police officers involved in the OIA. He had a long evasive and tried to explain that this is absolutely not accepted in a police environment even speak about it; that OIA training is not included in the training of police officers; that practical knowledge of the OIA receive only selected employees who have been working in the police and have shown the ability to this kind of law enforcement. Knowledge of the secret police activity these specially selected and experienced employees are taking on special courses at police schools.

Stating the inadmissibility of teaching the secret section of the OIA course in the police education establishments during the training the Ministry of internal affairs officers (educational level of bachelor) we draw a conclusion about the necessity of deep reforming the training program of the detectives.

The OIA part of work of the operative units is not the result of their activities but the most significant instrument to goal the legally definite purpose of the searching and fixation the facts about the illegal actions of the specific persons and groups, which cause the criminal responsibility.

Thus, the everyday work of the detective composed of the public and secret activities. Analyzing the worktime costs of detectives we draw the conclusion about the only one third of the detective's worktime is engaged on the search of information which has the significant meaning and the working with the OIA cases. The rest of the working hours are dedicated to checking the incoming information, formalization the confirmed information for transfer to the investigation units, and taking part in different operative-duty events.

In addition, the young police officers (generally at the age of 21 years) is quite difficult from the first day to engage in practical subdivisions of OIA in full due to: difficulty of establishing psychological contact with people because of their relatively small age, lack of life experience and social maturity; fear of abuse of disciplinary action by the unit's chief of the lowest rates in the operational work. These two main reasons force young employees to falsify the results of the operational activity, which leads to its imitation, lack of skills conspiracy and work with OIA cases³.

RESEARCH RESULTS

So we can identify two employee groups from the rest of the OIA police units:

- detectives – more experienced (and high-paid) employees, whose significant activities are the taking part in the secret searching events to get the significant investigation information, also the processing the OIA cases;
- inspectors – young employees, whose have the experience less than three years and their purpose is to help the detectives (e.g. checking and formalizing incoming information from detective, taking part in public searching events).

Necessary terms for inspector's moving to the detective's chair should be:

- demonstrated ability for the OIA work;
- OIA unit work experience not less than three years;
- receive specialized training in the internal affairs' system educational establishment in accordance with the specialization of the police unit;

³ Minchenko S. The juridical culture as the term of the human rights security during the operational-investigative activities / S. Minchenko// Law of Ukraine. - 2012. - № 2.

- successful pass exam of the OIA course.

In the future, the transition of employees from one operational service to another should take place no more than twice a year, in accordance with the schedule approved by the MIA, linked on a mandatory weekly training this category of operative employees. The proposed procedure will provide an opportunity to stabilize the composition of the operational services of practical police units⁴.

Thinking about the correlation of detectives and inspectors in the operative police unit as it seen any operative unit would have the groups including one detective and two or three inspectors. Such groups may independently solve the significant part of the tactical operational-investigative purposes.

CONCLUSION

Taking into account the above, the operational system of training of law enforcement officers should look like this:

- training of inspectors for the OIA units. Studying at university basic course "Fundamentals of OIA";
- training of detectives. A study in the universities special course "OIA of the MIA units";
- retraining of detectives during the transition from one service to another. A study in the universities special courses "Features of OIA" by line departments;
- improving the qualification of detectives. A study in the universities the special course "Innovative technologies in the OIA", holding seminars for exchange of experience in practice;
- improving the qualification of detectives and inspectors in schools improving operational skills (SIOS) at the place of service.

Summing up the results of research of improving the quality of training employees for the police department and the efficiency of the employees of OIA divisions we might make a number of conclusions.

1. Each future officer of MIA must undergo military training in the armed forces of Ukraine and internal troops.
2. Preparation of the future law enforcement officers in the universities of the MIA should take the same for all universities programs.
3. Within cadets, law enforcement officers the training course "Fundamentals of OIA" should be taught to lawyers and civic students in higher education institutions of the MIA.
4. The dividing OIA unit's employees on the detectives and inspectors would give a possibility for selecting the most experienced for the producing the OIA, consequently, improve the detection of crimes efficiency.
5. The two-staged training course of employees in sphere of the OIA would be held only in the internal affairs system's educational establishments. This would prevent the declassification the forms and methods of providing the OIA.

The proposed two-staged system of university training of OIA divisions' employees would strengthen the connection with the practice of higher education institutions and will

⁴ Shelukhin N. About an up-to-date approaches in training programs of the operative employees of the Ministry of internal affairs in the higher education establishment of the internal affairs' system / N. Shelukhin // The role of science in the raising of quality of the law-enforcements' activities: sourcebook of the international scientific conference. – The publishing house of the Almati academy of the Ministry of internal affairs of Kazakhstan Republic, 2011. – P. 113-118.

strengthen their responsibility for the quality of practitioners, will provide an opportunity for research on specific topics and practical together with practices that will significantly raise the scientific status of the high school of MIA.

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NEW POLICE LEGISLATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA - TOWARDS A NEW HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM¹

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Abstract: Bearing in mind that the European Union accession is a strategic goal of Serbia, one of the fundamental requirements is to strengthen administrative capacities and accelerate approaching the European Union. The main objective of the paper is to review new police legislative framework (Police Law) introducing a modern human resource management and career development. Essentially, career system is to encourage recruitment and promotion due to employees' educational background and professional experience/performance appraisal. The system of career tends to be highly competitive, self-motivated and resistant to political pressure. Considering excessively complex police functions, organization and management, it will create the legal basis to provide professional, efficient, effective and high quality police operation. Inevitably, new legislation requires new organizational climate and employees' awareness and support. Consequently, the paper restricts itself to the following elements: new job classification system, personnel planning, job description, principle of transparency/non-discrimination and equal access to working posts, system of mandatory internal/open competition, competitive and objective selection of candidates based on merit and on transparent criteria, evaluation of performance based on determined criteria, promotion based on merit (performance appraisal), professional training, legal protection of police officers, pay system. In order to effectively implement the reform, it is also necessary to introduce management instruments which will fill in the gaps between formal rules and informal practice and build administrative capacities in the Ministry of Internal Affairs, with special focus on the newly created Human Resource Management Unit, which should be the leader in human resource management processes. Significant efforts still need to be invested in order to implement and sustain this ambitious reform program.

Key words: Serbian Police Law, Human Resource Management, professionalism, efficiency, career development.

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INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The concept of modern police is primarily focused on the adherence to the rule of law, primacy of the public interest over private, citizens safety, fight against organized crime and terrorism and corruption, as well as strengthening economic and social responsibility. Police officers need to perform their duties with integrity, impartially, professionally, in accordance with ethical standards. Due to the character of police functions and excessively complex organization and management, legal status of police officers is regulated in an exclusive manner, intensifying the divergence within national civil service system. However, it is indispensable to adopt and efficiently implement modern civil service principles such as legal certainty, professionalism, transparency, responsibility, and efficiency. Police civil service system as a typical career system, requires implementation of human resource management institutes which will support full realization of the mentioned principles.

Programs of the European Union are strongly focused on harmonizing with EU *Acqui* on Chapter 24 and on specific support for the police to carry out complex tasks. According to the *National priorities for the international assistance (2014-2017)*, the priority areas for the future development are professional police, organization and management, safety of citizens and of the state, cooperation at national, regional and international level, developing citizens' trust, external and internal control and transparent work. Improvement of working methods and principles of police operation with focus on the strategic planning and human resource management are highlighted priorities. Integrity systems have been incorporated into the civil service and officials should be aware of their obligations and of the ethical behaviour expected of them. Trained and motivated police officers should be capable of applying sound administrative procedures in line with European principles thereby offering legal certainty to citizens. Furthermore, the most important European civil service standards referring to professionalism and merit-based civil service system and its elements - equal access to working posts, obligatory public competition, open and competitive selection based on transparent criteria, legal protection of candidates, promotion based on performance appraisal, fair salary system, career opportunities, effective disciplinary and penal remedies, are expected to be incorporated in new legislation and effectively implemented in practice.³ Nevertheless, a need for a comprehensive police legislation reform has been recognized in order to provide a basis for further reforms and effective implementation of national and European policies.

In the context of the overall public sector reform in the Republic of Serbia, the reform of police civil service system started by the adoption of the new Police Law,⁴ containing contemporary rules on mandatory open/internal competition, job analysis and competences, transparent and fair selection procedure, promotion based on merit, training, performance appraisal and professional exams, new remuneration system. However, significant efforts still need to be invested in order to implement and sustain this ambitious reform program. In order to effectively implement the reform, it is necessary to introduce human resource management instruments which will fill in the gaps between formal rules and informal practice and build administrative capacities of the Ministry of Internal Affairs.

³ See: OECD, *Sigma Baselines, Control and Management System Baselines for European Union Membership*, 1999; J. Hinrik Meyer-Sahling, *Sustainability of Civil Service Reforms in Central and Eastern Europe Five Years after EU Accession*, Sigma/OECD, Sigma Paper No. 44, GOV/SIGMA (2009/1), Paris, 2009.

⁴ "Official Gazette of the RS" No. 6/16.

INTRODUCING NEW HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICE – AMBITIOUS REFORM?

The main objective of the new regulation is to introduce human resource management institutes corresponding to contemporary standards. Furthermore, it is viewed as a request in the overall process of capacity building of the Ministry for the efficient implementation of the European policies. Additionally, it will also accelerate approaching the European Union.⁵ However, the merit system in police is still hampered by the long lasting cultural and traditional habits. Not applying the rules on the job classification system, equal access to working posts, obligatory public competition selection, legal protection of candidates, promotion based on performance appraisal, fair salary system, ignores the need for recognizing fundamental civil service principles. The inherited practice is in harmony neither with constitutional provisions, nor with mainstream European principles.

In accordance to the requests of the international organizations and comprehensive public administration reform in Serbia, Police Law clearly points to the new functions and strategic priorities, resulting with a new organizational structure of the Ministry. The crucial novelty of the Law is related to the introduction of human resource function which is to provide the essential elements of professionalization and de-politicization. It considers many elements such as: obligatory open competition, competitive and objective selection of candidates based on merit and on transparent criteria, job classification system based on functions, promotion based on merit, career development, new performance appraisal system, stimulating pay system, individual responsibility of civil servants, prevention of corruption, impartial performance and responsibility. Ensuring implementation of new institutes is viewed as an integral component of the strategic planning in the Ministry, aiming to develop human resource planning, recruitment, development and retaining of employees, in accordance with police functions and objectives. New functions will significantly support efficient police operation and also improve the legal status of police officers.

Moreover, for the purpose of efficient execution and coordination of human resource management functions, a new Human Resource Management Unit has been established.⁶ The main tasks of the Unit are strongly focused on formulation of the human resource management strategy, personnel planning, job analysis, open and internal competitions, selection procedure, performance appraisal, permanent professional training, mobility, and legal tasks concerning labor relationship with the Ministry. It is also in charge of efficient coordination of these functions within the Ministry and cooperation with other ministries and state bodies, regarding harmonization of human resource management practice within central Government and equalizing legal status of civil servants. Consequently, building capacities of the Human Resource Management Unit will certainly contribute to successful discharge of new functions. The education of all managerial staff is of crucial importance since their knowledge and competences shall influence the efficient implementation of the policies.

One major novelty of the Police Law refers to the issue of job classification system. It has to be taken into account that the job classification system (for officers) ensures the preconditions for the recruitment and vertical promotion in accordance with one's professional ability (merit-based principle), transfer (mobility), objective and fair appraisal, systematic monitor-

⁵ See: J. Hinrik Meyer-Sahling; T. Veen, *Governing the post-communist state: government alternation and senior civil service politicization in Central and Eastern Europe*, Routledge, London, East European Politics, 2012.

⁶ See: *Strategy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia Development 2011-2016*, 2010; *Human Resource Management Strategy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia*, 2014, available on: <http://www.mup.gov.rs/>.

ing, professional development and the employee remuneration system.⁷ The Law is to ensure that the job descriptions are based on the complexity of duties, the necessary degree of independence in the performance of duties, the required skills, the scope of supervision over the operations, the required educational background and relevant professional experience and required competences. The system should actually express the expertise of the employees and their ability to perform the duties of a certain degree of complexity, or whether it links the rank of the employee and his/her duties in the job, as the ultimate effect of this system could be that the salary does not reflect the complexity and responsibilities, which would be a disincentive to employees.

The new Law has established the division of police job positions into: managerial and executive. Managerial job positions are classified into four categories depending on the complexity of work, education, rank/title, level of responsibility and decision-making power, as well as independence in work, notably into managerial positions of: strategic, high, middle and operational level. These positions, under Article 148 of the Law, include managing and commanding activities, which comprise: planning, organisation, coordination, control, assessment, analysis, performance evaluation and information, and other activities relevant to the required level of competences. Unlike managerial, the executive job positions are all positions that involve direct performance of the police and other internal affairs duties and the advancement within the range of appropriate ranks/titles. Besides the titles of civil servants, which represent a novelty in the Ministry of Internal Affairs, new titles and ranks are also introduced for police officers. These titles and ranks are divided into three levels: strategic, middle, and operational. The classification of titles and ranks is one of the elements of the career development system. The issue of classification of managerial job positions has to be more precisely regulated by by-laws. It is also of particular importance to establish the classification of job positions and determine their salary groups and salary classes. Proceeding from the description of duties and status of a job position, salary groups will be specified in greater detail based on the catalogue of job positions in the Ministry.

To reinforce a professional and depoliticised work of the Ministry, the new Law bases the staff selection and recruitment procedure on the principle of merit, which is supported by the principles of equal access to job positions and non-discrimination. This makes it possible for candidates to access job positions under equal conditions and ensures transparency in the selection process, given that the candidates are familiar with the requirements for admission to employment. Since public competitions constitute an essential element of a transparent employment process, the Police Law introduces a novelty by prescribing as mandatory the holding of competitions for entry into employment and filling of vacant positions. This novelty is indicated by Article 135 of the Law, under which 'labour relationship with the Ministry shall be established through a public competition'. Labour relationship of a civil servant can exceptionally be established by way of transfer, or taking over of an employee from another state authority based on the takeover agreement. The purpose of this rule is to reinforce the internal mobility of civil servants and more efficiently fill vacant positions in accordance with the needs of the authorities. Article 135 provides for exemption from the mandatory competition requirement with respect to candidates from higher education institutions, set up under special study programmes to meet the needs of the Ministry, whose studying was financed from the budget of the Republic of Serbia and who had concluded contracts thereof with the Ministry for each respective year of study. In the transitional and concluding provisions, the legislator indicates that these candidates will have priority during the competition procedure as long as they meet general and special requirements of entry into employment with the Ministry. In keeping with international and European Union standards, it is evident that

⁷ See: 3. Вукашиновић Радојичић, *Правна питања службеничких односа*, Монографије, Књига 25, Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, Београд, 2015.

the new Law promotes the significance of high police education. To avoid the infringement of general principles and favouring of one candidate over another from the same university and with the same qualifications, it is expected that the competition and selection rules will be more precisely specified, in accordance with the human resources needs of the Ministry. Additionally, it is in line with the spirit of the career system that these individuals take upon entry level positions in the Ministry, in accordance with their educational level and other criteria required for a particular job position.

The filling of all positions must be consistent with the adopted human resource plan, which points to the development of the practice of planning human resource needs and the prevention from recruiting greater number of employees than that corresponding to the means planned for this purpose under the Budget Law. Bearing in mind the dynamism of the modern society – changing working goals and functions of the administration, an ongoing revision of job position functions must not be omitted. Since the basic instrument of human resource planning is the systematisation (a systematisation act) defining job positions and appropriate titles/ranks, appointed positions, it represents a comprehensive analysis of tasks and activities of particular authorities, according to the character and type of work, as well as the scope and frequency of certain types of duties. Compliance of filling vacant positions with the rulebook governing internal organisation and systematisation of job positions in state authorities and the human resource plan is supervised by the administrative inspectorate.

The previous non-transparent practice of establishing employment relationship was in contradiction with the generally adopted domestic regulations and international standards, given that citizens must be guaranteed the freedom and right to employment in the civil service and equal treatment in the selection procedure. The tendency towards recruiting candidates according to the 'political' criteria rather than knowledge and professional skills seriously hinders the application of the merit principle. The previous Law failed to regulate the procedure for admission to service without competition ('upon the so-called citizen request'), thus placing the citizens in an unequal position, since, by way of general acts that are published in the official gazette, they could not have been informed of the terms and procedure of employment. Specifically, it is the right of a candidate to be 'duly' informed of the course of the competition procedure and made aware of the reasons for being deemed 'unfit' for employment. The Serbian Constitution and laws, the recommendations of the Council of Europe, the recommendations of independent institutions, all prohibit discrimination in the domain of labour, that is, the violation of equal opportunities for gaining employment or enjoyment of all rights under equal conditions. Transparency in the procedure, at the same time, affirms the possibility and the right of a dissatisfied candidate having participated in the selection procedure to lodge a complaint thereof and initiate administrative dispute. With the system of public (internal) competitions in place, and transparent and objective selection of candidates, conditions are created for the recruitment, allocation, and career development on the basis of professional competences, while political, personal and other influences are weakened. Professional and proper discharge of duties and tasks within the service and at the service of the citizens is the only criterion that affects the improved capacity to make legal and legitimate decisions. At the same time, it promotes the effective implementation of Government policy.

In regard to filling vacant managerial positions, the Law provides for holding of internal competitions, which is in line with the spirit of the career system. Another novelty is the rule providing that managers at all levels must be appointed following the internal competition, on the proposal of the head of the organisational unit concerned, and on the basis of the reports and ranking of a candidate. By imposing the obligation for conducting internal competitions for all managerial positions and for transparent and impartial selection procedure, assumptions are created for the recruitment, allocation and promotion on the basis of professional

skills, experience and performance. This process can be realised only in the settings of minimised political and personal influences on the work of officers. Therefore, it is particularly important to establish clear rules on the selection procedure, testing the knowledge and skills of candidates and ranking them. This issue is particularly relevant with respect to appointing individuals to certain positions (Director General of the Police, State Secretary of the Ministry and Assistant Ministers) and where, under the Civil Servants Law, the conduct of internal or public competition is mandatory. The Competition Committee is formed for each individual case, and its members include professionals from specific fields, members of the High Civil Service Council, and one member from the Ministry. In this context, under Article 149 of the Police Law, the Director General of the Police is appointed by the Government, with a term of office of five years, following a public competition and in the manner prescribed by regulations governing labour relations applicable to the Ministry.

Special novelty is the introduction of career advancement of employees of the Ministry, which is aimed at establishing a career system that will, primarily, be based on the achieved results, appraisal and professional development, and not just 'time spent serving at the previous rank'. This would ensure the preconditions for de-politicisation, the managerial positions would have to be filled through an internal competition, based on professional skills, which would strengthen professionalism and provide stability and continuity.

Since the career systems give priority to professional qualifications when selecting and promoting candidates during their career, recognising professional potentials and facilitating the conditions for acquiring higher ranks will positively affect the motivation of officers and better performance. In addition, the career system recognises the particularities of the police work, its tasks and goals – it provides stability and guaranteed quality of service due to extensive working experience of employees, along with the possibility of continuous training. Despite the current trend towards staff retention, the principle of internal mobility is fully applied. Movements during the career – change of job positions or promotion within the same job position and acquisition of higher ranks, professional development, taking of professional exams to advance to a higher rank/title, transfer due to operational needs or on personal request – positively affect the organisational climate, the emergence and promotion of the working spirit of officers and the improved quality and productivity of work.

The system of career development of police officers was not properly regulated; thus, the employees, who had performed non-police duties for years, notably with lower educational attainment, were given the opportunity, by way of further education (most commonly at faculties other than those concerned with police, criminalistic, security or legal sciences) and with no police training, to be assigned to the highest managerial positions within the police. That was, unfortunately, a common practice, because the years of service used to be taken into account for the rank/title (in some cases even the period of the leave taken for purposes of schooling – when a person was employed, but referred to further education), and thus such employees used to receive as their first police rank/title the rank of a major, lieutenant colonel or colonel, or chief police inspector, police adviser or chief police advisor. The new Police Law excludes such a possibility and introduces clear and precise criteria for career advancement of police officers.

Moreover, the new Law creates the conditions for filling the positions in the hierarchical structure according to the principle of merit – by prescribing clear promotion conditions that favour professional development and training. Additionally, it provides that the acquisition of the subsequent title (rank) within the same level is conditional upon the appropriate educational attainment – level of education, years of service at the previous title/rank, successfully completed professional training for the relevant title/rank and the appropriate annual appraisal whose three-year average mark must not be lower than 'outstanding – four'. The in-

introduction of these rules strengthens the relation between the professional development and training and the career advancement, while the institution of appraisal becomes significant in many respects. The new Law clearly points to the connection between the officers' performance and contribution and their advancement, although the advancement is just one of the appraisal objectives. Advancement can be achieved on the basis of a three-year average mark that cannot be lower than 'outstanding - 4'.

Another novelty is the introduction of the obligation to perform appraisal in two cycles, but with one final mark (from 'unsatisfactory - 1' to 'particularly outstanding - 5'). Promotion to a higher rank should be based on monitoring of an employee's operational results by immediate managers, measuring employee performance and the received marks. This is at the same time the main idea of the new Law, which aims at creating conditions for the police officers' career development – promotion within the service, mobility, professional development and fair remuneration. Since the appraisal is clearly stated as a reason to terminate the employment contract, by providing that employment of an officer ceases if given a negative mark ('unsatisfactory - 1') for two consecutive times, it points to the need for training managers in charge of the appraisal, specifying clear criteria and objective monitoring of employee performance throughout the year.

Given that the managers at all levels within the Police Directorate can be dismissed from duty if they fail to perform within the competences of their respective job positions, prescribing clear appraisal criteria becomes significant in many respects. This solution is directly related to the preparation of thorough job descriptions and amendments to the act on internal organisation and systematisation of job positions.

To receive the subsequent title/rank of immediately higher management level, besides the above conditions, a candidate is envisaged to pass a professional exam. This mechanism strengthens the relation between the development and training and the advancement within the Ministry. Another mechanism is the holding of competitions for filling job positions which will give the employees the opportunity to apply for posts for which they consider they have appropriate competences. These solutions are in line with the spirit of professionalization and de-politicization, and thus minimise the discretionary powers of managers while promoting candidates. This rule, being in line with strategic acts of the Ministry as well, implies that the advancement must be based on transparent procedures, with the application of internal competitions for filling higher- and middle-level managerial positions, and on the results and professional development, with necessary knowledge testing.

Under the new Law, control powers concern the work of police officers and other employees of the Ministry. The Internal Control Division obtains considerably broader powers and remains the institutional controller of the legality of work of the police, in particular regarding the observance and protection of human rights in carrying out police tasks and exercising police powers. With the new Law, the Internal Control Division also becomes the main anti-corruption mechanism within the Ministry and in this connection receives extended powers, including the 'integrity testing' and the control of changes in the status of the property of managers within the Ministry (database of managers' assets declarations), with the possibility to extend this control to other employees as well. This considerably increases the level of control and inspection of data on employees' property status for the purposes of fighting corruption whose content is modelled on that already in use by the Anti-corruption Agency. These instruments are an absolute novelty, and the aim of their application is to obtain a variety of data for further analysis and to propose measures to eradicate corruption from the Ministry. Such a solution is consistent with the National Anti-corruption Strategy of the Republic of Serbia for the period 2013-2018 and the corresponding Action Plan.

CONCLUSION

Over the past year, a lot of efforts have been made in order to review and create police legislation based on contemporary standards. The motivation for the reform has emerged from a need to strengthen professionalism, lessen political interference and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of police operation. Furthermore, one of the key drivers for reform was the objective to meet the European Union accession requirements. New human resource management practice is to accelerate European integration process and support efficient performance of police functions.

Introducing new human resource management practice is expected to be a challenge for managers and all employees. A new institutional structure to support the implementation has been also put in place. The main tasks of the recently established Human Resource Management Unit shall cover the most important human resource functions: personnel planning, job analysis, recruitment, selection based on open and internal competition, career development, performance appraisal, permanent professional training, remuneration, and other issues which appear as key challenges in police civil service system. This will improve the legal status of police officers at all levels which is in accordance with legality and legal certainty of employees. In addition to this, it will also encourage harmonization of the administrative practice and equalize civil servants' status. Therefore, it will be necessary to upgrade police civil service system by developing strong mechanisms of coordination and cooperation.

Inevitably, the new Police Law has created a legal basis which should provide professional, efficient, effective and high quality work of police. Moreover, in order to develop an integrated operation of the police civil service system, it will be also necessary to adopt new by-laws. However, the set of regulations in itself is not the guarantee for successful civil service development. In order to develop efficient and professional structures, these regulations have to be effectively implemented in practice. Accordingly, in order to implement modern human resource management practice we have to build administrative capacities and adopt best practice of modern and developed civil service systems. Appropriate and adequate mechanisms for the efficient implementation of management instruments are required which will bridge the gaps between formal rules and informal practice. Indicatively, significant efforts need to be invested in order to implement and sustain the ambitious reform program.

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MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF POLICE IN REPRESSIVE TREATMENT - CURRENT STATE AND POSSIBLE IMPROVEMENTS¹

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Abstract: Organizational police units measure performance and thus show their efficiency in performing police duties. The measuring of performance of organizational police units in combating crime is based solely on the percentage of solved criminal offences with an unknown perpetrator or the number of detected (reported) criminal offences.

In police practice there are certain irregularities and unfairness in measuring the efficiency of police activities, all in order to show unrealistic results of achieved work. So the police are trying to show better efficiency by an incorrect reduction of the number of reported criminal offences with an unknown perpetrator and incorrect increase of the number of solved criminal cases. As a result of the practice of incorrect reporting, statistics in police records do not represent real data on the state of crime and the state of the achieved performance of organizational police units.

The authors in this paper aim to point out the present methods of “hiding” criminal offences in police records and ways of false representation of performance in combating crime. At the end of the paper, the authors propose some solutions for the improvement of the measurement system of the police performance in combating crime.

Key words: effectiveness of police, crime, performance, crime suppression.

POLICE ORGANIZATION PERFORMANCE

While in the private sector the main indicator of the success of an organization's work is profit, the indicator of the efficiency in the public sector is *performance*.³ Performance of a police organization is a measure of its efficiency. As every organization strives to fulfil its goals more efficiently, performance management represents an important content of management functions in a given organization. Performance management consists of *measuring the performance* and its *monitoring*.

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³ Subotic, D. (2015). Management of Police Organization in Preventing and Combating Threats to Security in the Republic of Serbia, Preliminary sketch of the scientific-research project, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade.

Something that is not measured cannot be improved, in the same way as something that cannot be seen cannot be measured. To measure the performance means to determine the value that allows the realization of efficiency of an organization. Such values are called performance indicators⁴.

Performance indicators are present in relation to the set objective (standard), which is a desired state i.e. a desired value (measure) to be achieved or saved. The comparison of performance indicators to set objectives (standards) gives us the answer to the question: *To what extent is the goal achieved?* Since the goal is achieved by taking appropriate actions and processes, performance indicators point to their (in) efficiency. In case of deviation of the realized and planned (desired) state, corrective actions are taken.

In democratic society there is a need for constant quality control of what the police are doing and in which manner they are doing their job. In this context, citizens and their democratically elected representatives, political authorities and other entities use the information on the performance of the police organization. In this way performance becomes an important element of achieving accountability of the police organization.

In addition to entities from outside the police organization, performance information is important for the execution of management functions within the police organization. Based on information on police officers' performance, police organization managers make decisions of importance for advancement of police officers' careers (e.g. promotion to a higher rank), the evaluation of their work (e.g. pay rise), and the like. In addition, the performance analysis has an important place in a periodic evaluation of employees. In addition to the performance of an individual in a police organization, performance of the organizational unit is also very important. Based on the data on the performance of organizational units, their work is estimated, as well as the work of those who govern them. Moreover, the performance assessment has a significant role in the assessment of efficiency of strategies, tactics and programs that are used in police practice.

Performance management in the police organization is also essential for the process of organizational learning. Organizational learning can be defined as a continuous process of creation and development of organization's skills in transformation⁵. Learning organizations are those organizations which take advantage of experience, including that which comes from other organizations, in order to improve their functioning. The assumption is that organizations can process information on performance, learn, and then transform. Without exact and relevant information on the performance and ability to process it, organizational learning suffers⁶. However, it is difficult to notice the deficit of the performance and take measures to improve it if accurate and relevant information on the performance is not available or if measures and actions are not taken in order to find it out.

Performance measurement within a police organization should include more indicators of what police do (outputs), how it is done (processes), and what has been achieved (outcomes)⁷. Unfortunately, benefits that are realized by performance measurement within the police organizations are not used in the manner and to the extent in which they can be used. Police organizations traditionally rely on a limited number of indicators for monitoring their performance, thus limiting their ability to learn and to improve.

4 Golubovic D, Radovic, M. *The Process of Measuring Performance of Processes*, Source: <http://konsultuj.me/wp-content/uploads/Postupak-merenja-performansi-procesa.pdf> (available in December, 2015).

5 Atlagic, M., Macura, M., (2013). *Management: learning organization and modern business*, CIVITAS, (5), p. 163

6 Performance measurement (police), What-when-how: In depth tutorial and information. Internet source: <http://what-when-how.com/police-science/performance-measurement-police/> (available in December, 2015).

7 ⁵Ibidem.

NUMBER OF RECORDED CRIMINAL OFFENCES AND PERCENTAGE OF SOLVED CRIMINAL OFFENCES WITH UNKNOWN PERPETRATORS AS INDICATORS OF POLICE PERFORMANCE

Criminality defined as a mass phenomenon, i.e. the set of all criminal offences (criminal offences at a given time and space) can be quantitatively and qualitatively traced in space (area, territory) and time by police units, and individuals responsible for crime prevention⁸⁶. The most commonly applied statistical criteria of efficiency of the police performance are *the number of reported criminal offences* and the *percentage of solved criminal cases*. Although at first sight attractive, these indicators contain some conceptual limitations. For example, the number of reported criminal offences cannot be considered a reliable indicator of police performance because police are not the only entity that has influence on crime. Police can have influence on crime, as well as many other factors that are outside of police influence (e.g., social, economic and political). If the increase in poverty in society and the unstable political situation lead to an increase in crime, we should not blame the police for such an increase. Similarly, although crime can be reduced as a result of measures and actions undertaken by the police, this can happen due to factors that have nothing to do with police work.⁹⁷ However, if we neglected the influence of these factors, and if police were considered the sole “culprit” for crime in society, this indicator would still not be enough for a comprehensive assessment of the performance of police. Namely, crime prevention does matter but it is not the only dimension of police work. For example, in recent decades, with the implementation of the concept of community policing and problem-oriented work, the police function has been expanded by many other contents. Focusing attention only on the efficiency of the police in the fight against crime, it leaves us without an answer to the question of how well the police fulfil other areas of their functions. The manner in which the performance measurement system in a police organization is measured (what is measured?) sends a message to police officers about what it is that the organization values. It can motivate them to concentrate their efforts on activities that are measured and valued, which can result in the neglect of other activities (tasks, goals) of the police work. This is reflected in the phrase “What gets measured gets done.” Furthermore, the number of reported criminal offences is not a relevant measure of the total criminal offences that exist in the specified area. It does not take into account the dark figure of crime i.e. crimes that are outside the focus of formal social control.

An increase or decrease in the number of reported crimes is not ideal, nor an “essential” indicator of police performance, as it seems at first glance. However, if you take into account that according to many this indicator points to the efficiency of the police in one of the key areas of police work where the measurement is not problematic because the data has already been in police records, which means that it is not necessary to make efforts and initiate the collection of data from other sources, primarily those outside the police organization, then it is not difficult to understand why this indicator has a dominant role in the system of measuring performance of most police organizations.

The number of reported crime has a tendency to dominate as an indicator of the performance of a police organization (which is used both inside and outside police organizations), representing an indicator that does not have an alternative when it comes to assessing the work of the police in the field of crime control. These measures have retained their promi-

8 Ignjatovic, Dj. (2011). Criminology, Belgrade: Dosije, p. 20

9 Maguire, E.R. (2003). Measuring the Performance of Law Enforcement Agencies: Part One. Pp. 1-30 in CALEA Update, Volume 83 (September). Fairfax, VA: Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies. Source: <http://www.calea.org/calea-update-magazine/issue-83/measuring-performance-law-enforcement-agencies-part-1of-2-oart-articl> (available in December, 2015)

nence despite everything the field is supposed to have learned in the last 20 years about the limitations of reported crime statistics.¹⁰⁸

In a similar manner as the number of reported crimes, percentage of solved crimes calculated as the ratio of the number of reported and solved (officially registered in the police) crimes also focuses only on one aspect of the police function - its effectiveness in crime-operative (investigating) work. This indicator is often not suitable for comparison because in different police organizations crime solving can be defined in different ways. For example, some organizations may feel that the crime is solved when a suspect is identified but not located and arrested, while others may feel that the crime is solved only when the suspect is found and arrested. Similarly, the detention of one suspect can lead to solving several criminal offences.

MEASURING PERFORMANCE OF REPRESSIVE POLICE TREATMENT IN DOMESTIC POLICE PRACTICE

In practice of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia measuring the performance of organizational units of the police in combating crime is based on the percentage of solved crimes with an unknown perpetrator and the number of detected (reported) offences¹¹⁹. On the other hand, the performance of police officers who work on combating crime (individual performance) is estimated based on the percentage of solved crimes committed by an unknown perpetrator during a specific period of time.

In the practice of our (Serbian) police it is possible to notice certain irregularities in measuring police performance when it comes to fighting crime, all in order to show unrealistically achieved results. In the part of the paper that follows, we will point to them in more detail.

PERCENTAGE OF SOLVED CRIMES AS AN INDICATOR OF THE PERFORMANCE OF THE POLICE IN REPRESSIVE TREATMENT

Percentage of solved crimes is the most widely used indicator of efficiency of our police in crime prevention. It expresses predominantly repressive activities of the police, which is much easier to measure and evaluate. This indicator of police performance represents the ratio of the total number of solved crimes of a certain type and the total number of registered (reported or discovered by operational work) offences with an unknown perpetrator, observed in a certain period of time (usually: monthly, quarterly and annually) and in relation to a particular organizational level (individual, group, organizational unit, organization), i.e. territory. Solving crimes with an unknown perpetrator refers to the process of detecting and identifying the perpetrators and the collection and provision of material and personal evidence necessary for the effective conduct of criminal proceedings.¹²¹⁰ In addition, when measuring the efficiency of combating crime, one has to have insight into the structure of solved and unsolved crimes, i.e. whether less serious or highly serious crimes have been solved. For example, the

10 Sparrow, M., op.cit. p. 2

11 Organizational units of the criminal police responsible for combating drug abuse, trafficking and economic crime as well as the Internal Control Sector express their efficiency by the number of detected offences.

12 Ilic, S., (2012). *Work Standards and Model of Education of Police Officers of the Crime Police of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia*. Specialist paper. Belgrade: The Academy of Criminalistic and Police studies.

individual organizational units of the police in a given reporting period have a high percentage of solved crimes, and by insight into the structure of registered crimes it is evident that serious crimes have not been solved¹³¹¹.

Although at first sight independent, the number of solved and reported crimes are interconnected in such a way that the number of reported crimes is incorporated into the calculation of the percentage of solved crimes. Namely, the percentage of solved crimes is calculated as the ratio of the number of solved crimes and the total number of reported crimes, whereby both the numerator and denominator can be "subject to manipulation and errors in the measurement"¹⁴¹².

The percentage of solved crimes may be incorrectly represented (forged) in two main ways: 1) by incorrect reduction (hiding) of the number of reported crimes with an unknown perpetrator and 2) by incorrect increase ("magnification") of the number of solved crimes. While in the first case one tends to reduce the denominator, in the second one tends to increase the numerator. The final goal is the same - to show the percentage of solved crimes higher than it really is.

INCORRECT REDUCTION (HIDING) OF THE NUMBER OF REPORTED CRIMES WITH AN UNKNOWN PERPETRATOR

By analysing our practice, we can see a few ways in which the hiding is done i.e. the reduction of the number of crimes that are prosecuted *ex officio*.

The first way, offences which are prosecuted *ex officio* are recorded in a special record - *additional criminal record* - therefore they are not recorded as "official" criminal offences (the one that are prosecuted *ex officio*) in the *criminal record*¹⁵¹³. In an additional criminal record offences that are not prosecuted *ex officio* are entered (for example, petty theft, embezzlement and fraud under Article 210 of the Criminal Code (CC), destruction or damage of someone else's property, and many other, under Article 212 CC where a prosecution is initiated by an individual or private organization). The criminal offences that are usually recorded in the additional criminal record are offences of theft and aggravated theft. The amount of 5000 dinars represents the value up to which the theft, embezzlement and fraud are considered minor and the prosecution in this case is initiated by an individual or private organization provided that the offence was committed at the expense of private property. However, the offence of theft which causes damage of 8000 dinars should be recorded in a criminal record, but in order to show better work results, it is recorded in an additional criminal record as minor theft, and in the additional crime record it is stated that the caused damage amounts from 5000 to 8000 dinars. In addition, regardless of the amount which can be less than 5000 dinars, the offence of minor theft, tax evasion and fraud committed by breaking into or illegally entering premises, buildings or flats, whether by a group, or in a particularly dangerous and arrogant manner (Article 204 Paragraph 1 of the CC) is qualified as a criminal offense of aggravated theft pursuant to article 204 of the Criminal Code, but such offences are often recorded in an additional criminal record. For example, the offence committed by breaking into an apartment,

13 Ibidem. page 32

14 Cordner, G. W. (1989). Police agency size and investigative effectiveness. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 17. Cited according to: Maguire, E, op.cit, p.5

15 *Criminal record (register)* is a record kept at each level of a police organizational unit whose scope includes the activities of combating crime (e.g. police station or office, i.e. in the area of police administration). A criminal record comprises filed criminal charges against known and unknown perpetrators. If the crime is solved, the crime record includes the data on solving the crime.

which caused damage to 3000 dinars is qualified, because of the manner of its execution, as the offence of aggravated theft pursuant to article 204, paragraph 1 of the CC, but for showing better results it is recorded in an additional criminal record as the offence of minor theft.

The second way, instead of filing a criminal complaint against an unknown perpetrator, organizational units of the police submit a report about the event to the competent prosecutor's office, thus notifying the competent prosecutor of the committed criminal offence. In this way they avoid the recording of crime in a criminal record.

INAPPROPRIATE INCREASE (“MAGNIFICATION”) OF THE NUMBER OF SOLVED CRIMINAL CASES

Inappropriate increase of the number of solved crimes is carried by filing criminal complaint without proper evidence. For example with regards to serial offences, if a perpetrator is captured at the scene of the crime, there is evidence of only one crime. However, other criminal offences are attributed to the offender, which have identical or similar *modus operandi* although there is no evidence for something like that.

In order to achieve satisfactory results which are in some organizational units pre-standardized by executives¹⁶¹⁴, operatives who work on combating crime submit criminal complaints without proper evidence in some cases, which is recorded in a crime record as the solved crime, i.e. “scoring a notch”. In this way they try to show a higher percentage of solved crimes. Such criminal complaints are rejected as a rule by the competent public prosecutor immediately or after the public prosecutor requested the collection of necessary information. In other words, operatives aware that the evidence available is not sufficient to prove the guilt of a particular person, mark the offence as “solved”.

By capturing the perpetrators in the act of committing crime (*in flagrante*), the crime case is immediately considered solved (perpetrator and evidence are available). In this case, in order to show unrealistic results, criminal charges are filed against an unknown perpetrator, and after that the report as a supplement to the criminal report is attached, which states that the criminal case is solved.

Rejected reports as supplements to criminal charges against an unknown perpetrator, where is groundlessly stated that the crime is solved (according to the prosecutor presented evidence is not sufficient to substantiate such a claim), do not appear in the crime record because it would reduce the percentage of solved crimes. For example, if 50 criminal cases out of 100 have been solved against an unknown proprietor, then efficiency expressed as a percentage amounts to 50%. By rejecting 10 reports, which have been submitted as supplements to criminal charges, the percentage of solved criminal offences would amount to 40%, which is why the discarded records are not recorded in the criminal register. That means that if a rapporteur believes that there is enough material in the report to mark the criminal case solved, he will designate that criminal case as solved. However, if the prosecutor believes that the criminal case has not been solved (not enough evidence), the “status” of the criminal case does not change from “solved” to “unsolved” in the criminal registry.

16 In practice it is noted that number of crimes an investigator (detective) needs to solve during one month is pre-determined by his/her chief.

OBSERVATIONS ON POLICE PERFORMANCE IN REPRESSIVE TREATMENT – THE PRACTICE OF THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR

Statistical records kept by official authorities responsible for its control are considered as being traditionally significant sources of secondary data on crime. Given the nature of an authority that collects them and the type of data, there are: police records, records of the prosecution, and court records. Police statistics record data on crime offences reported to the police or criminal offences that are discovered by the police. In comparison to other types of records there is the largest number of units. Records of the prosecution are related to complaints filed against offenders. There are always fewer of them than criminal charges because a criminal complaint can be dropped (the reported act does not contain elements of a criminal offence, the prosecution is excluded or there are no elements of doubt that the crime was indeed committed) or the investigation may be terminated (no elements of a criminal offence, the prosecution and responsibility are excluded or there is no evidence). The records of convicted persons are legally designated as court records¹⁷¹⁵.

The police records on crime represent the only official source of information on their effectiveness or the percentage of solved crimes. In the text below we will present results of crime-fighting of the Belgrade Police Department and eleven regional police departments for the period from 2010 to 2013.

Table 1: *Committed and solved general criminal offences in the period 2010-2013*

		General crime				
		Number of crimes – known offender	Number of crimes – of-fender arrested in flagrante	Number of crimes –of-fender is not known	Number of solved crimes	Clearance rate (%)
Belgrade PD	2013	5.732	3.157	23.339	12.737	54.57
	2012	5.672	2.334	21.987	13.414	61.01
	2011	5.728	2.704	23.116	13.939	60.30
	2010	6.969	2.679	22.548	13.606	60.34
Novi Sad PD	2013	2.977	131	10.368	4.519	43.59
	2012	3.334	93	7.372	3.991	54.14
	2011	3.644	136	7.715	4.180	54.18
	2010	3.822	168	7.652	4.041	52.81
Nis PD	2013	1.436	414	3.738	1.727	46.20
	2012	1.434	314	1.676	1.012	60.38
	2011	1.692	426	1.709	1.049	61.38
	2010	1.926	371	1.704	1.079	63.32
Kragujevac PD	2013	1.169	170	1.245	707	56.79
	2012	1.133	146	693	430	62.05
	2011	1.065	156	695	428	61.58
	2010	1.241	175	705	433	61.42

¹⁷ Ignjatovic, op.cit.,pp. 53-55

Pirot PD	2013	394	41	609	469	77.01
	2012	420	58	315	245	77.78
	2011	351	59	274	220	80.29
	2010	466	52	237	190	80.17
Leskovac PD	2013	772	53	1.357	945	75.82
	2012	699	68	881	668	73.44
	2011	661	76	802	589	71.20
	2010	689	158	743	529	80.06
Pozarevac PD	2013	576	122	1.028	568	55.25
	2012	584	119	1019	690	67.71
	2011	714	45	825	517	62.67
	2010	804	18	719	464	64.53
Sabac PD	2013	776	213	1486	904	60.83
	2012	890	209	994	667	67.10
	2011	933	196	1072	681	63.53
	2010	952	236	1.040	666	64.04
Cacak PD	2013	648	121	1.017	520	51.13
	2012	610	60	774	432	55.81
	2011	738	19	595	305	51.26
	2010	870	22	696	416	59.77
Novi Pazar PD	2013	885	49	707	262	37.06
	2012	916	62	421	199	42.27
	2011	749	27	420	233	55.48
	2010	672	54	338	223	65.98
Prijepolje PD	2013	265	15	98	71	72.45
	2012	282	18	67	55	82.09
	2011	271	26	78	66	84.62
	2010	305	32	76	61	80.26
Subotica PD	2013	592	76	3185	1604	50.36
	2012	667	48	2295	1449	63.14
	2011	705	33	2281	1425	62.47
	2010	778	45	2208	1405	63.63

By analysing statistical data on the achieved results by the police administration in combating crime, we can conclude the following:

- The number of recorded offences with an unknown perpetrator in most police departments is greater than the number of offences with a known perpetrator;
- Police departments try to show in records the information that they solve 50 per cent or more of the total number of recorded offences committed by an unknown perpetrator annually;
- The result of 50 or more percent of solved criminal cases, which represents an “eligibility threshold” of the results achieved for the highest levels of leadership in the police, therefore all organizational units in police departments (police sub-stations, stations, departments,

divisions and groups) try to achieve it, and in some cases by using prohibited methods, “eligibility threshold” is even surpassed;

- Police departments in Belgrade, Novi Sad, Nis and Kragujevac are the departments with the highest number of recorded criminal offences. These police departments have realized the result of more than 50% of solved criminal offences committed by an unknown perpetrator which is not in line with their objective abilities, primarily because of the scope and manner of engagement of available resources. Bearing in mind the numerous problems in the operation of these departments, such as an insufficient number of police officers (police officers and operatives) in relation to the issue of security, territory and population, an increasing involvement of uniformed police in the execution of other tasks (order and request processing and similar), engagement of police officers in working groups for solving the most serious criminal offences, lack of basic means of work (vehicles, computers, uniforms, radio connection) and lack of motivation, we believe that there is a suspicion that the results have been displayed realistically .

- Statistical data are only quantitative indicators of recorded results of fighting crime, the question of the quality of submitted criminal complaints (charges) in our practice has never been seriously considered, nor has it been taken as an indicator of efficiency evaluation of the police in combating crime;

INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

Measuring the efficiency of the police organizational units in combating crime is based solely on the results of the work expressed in the percentage of solved criminal crimes committed by an unknown perpetrator and the number of detected crimes. Expressed results represent quantitative indicators of the efficiency of the police in the repressive treatment.

The question of quality of criminal charges has never been considered, although there are well-known criteria for that. For instance, the aim of the police activities during preliminary investigation procedure is to solve the committed crimes to a degree of suspicion which will allow initiation of criminal proceedings. The first criterion of quality evaluation of a criminal complaint represents its acceptance by the public prosecutor, without submitting a request to collect necessary information or bringing a direct indictment, and the second criterion is a conviction.

True efficiency has to be based on the law and has to move in the framework of law. Only then it is possible to speak of qualitative efficiency whose basic parameter is the ratio between the number of criminal complaints and number of final convictions. Consequently, only when in the court proceedings and legally by the court, police involvement in the process of discovery of the crime and the offender is verified, as well as police activity on the basis of which the defendant could have been validly sentenced, we can talk about qualitative indicators of police efficiency. It is indisputable that there is no greater damage to society and the sense of justice in it than when an innocent person is convicted, but also when a criminal is released because evidence proving his guilt is not acquired in a lawful manner. It is crucial to enable the police to receive feedback about the outcome of criminal complaints in the proceedings that are taken before the courts based on their work, because in this way we enable the police to obtain relevant information, not only about the quality of their work but also about the degree of its effectiveness¹⁸16.

¹⁸ Zekavica, R., (2011). *The Role of the Police in the Democratic Society and Police Reform in Serbia-case of the Belgrade Police Department*. In: Collection of works, “Police as a Protector of Human Rights”. Belgrade: The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, p. 56

Due to the possible incorrect application of methods for reducing the number of criminal offences with an unknown perpetrator and incorrect increase of the number of solved criminal cases, there is a possibility that the statistical data in police records do not represent the real picture of findings managed by the police (detected and reported criminal offenses). In this regard, there is a need to undertake research which would confirm or deny this assumption empirically.

In order to obtain the real state of the number of committed and solved criminal offences in police records, we believe that the standardization of the way in which all offences are recorded should be performed first - clear standards and methodology for recording and displaying information about the committed crimes should be performed, which would be in line with EU statistical standards. In this way, the field of recording and statistical displaying of the acquired results would be improved¹⁹17.

Control, as a function of management, is the responsibility of the heads of organizational units of the police, who, among other things, have to control the quality of the measures and actions taken, as well as of filed criminal complaints. The quality of control largely depends on the expertise and willingness of managers to persevere in it. We are of the opinion that a mandatory assessment of the quality of filed criminal complaints and other measures and activities should be prescribed by managers of police organizational units and that mandatory periodic quality control of performance (monthly, quarterly or six months) should be realized by the higher levels of management or a specific organizational unit. In this regard, we propose the formation of special units for professional standards and work quality control. Records from the competent prosecutor's offices should be used for the evaluation of the quality of the police organizational units. The records of the competent prosecutor's office contains data on a person who filed the criminal complaint, the initiation and conclusion of investigations, filing of a direct indictment, the manner of termination of criminal proceedings and appeal proceedings.

Given the leading role of the public prosecutor, we believe that criminal record should be kept in the public prosecutor's office, which would significantly contribute to the harmonization of police, prosecutorial and judicial statistics on the number of offences, and on the other hand, the police would be relieved of the unnecessary "race for scoring a notch", i.e. the artificial increase of the number of detected offences, failure to record all crimes with an unknown perpetrator, or recording such offences only when they are solved, and all with the aim to unrealistically increase the percentage of solved cases and other alleged indicators of the efficiency of the police. By doing this, absurdity would be avoided: that the Republic of Serbia annually records several times smaller number of crimes compared to some neighbouring and European countries. It would reduce unrealistic and increased percentage of solved crimes with an unknown perpetrator, which in some organizational units of the police has approached the fantastic figure of 80%, to a realistic level.²⁰18.

Analytical work in police organizational units should not be dominantly directed to the measurement of the efficiency of police by analysing the number of registered and solved

19 Like most other countries in the European Union and the EU candidate countries, Serbia's statistical practice in the field of crime statistics and the judiciary is still based on its own definitions and methodology for data collection, data processing and presentation of data. This, however, has to be changed soon and the process of harmonization with the EU statistical standards has already begun in many areas of the statistical system of Serbia. Radović-Stojanović J., Tomić, M., (2013). *Crime and Judiciary Statistics in the European Union: Standards, Methodologies, Harmonization*. In: Collection of works "Countering Organized Crime: the Legal framework, International Standards and Procedures". Belgrade: The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, pp. 455-456

20 Banovic, B., (2006). *Leading role of the public prosecutor in pre-trial proceedings*, *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, (1), p. 83

criminal offences. It should enable the determination of the similarity of recorded offences in respect of which a more detailed analysis would be carried out in order to discover the factors that led to their execution²¹¹⁹. In addition to statistical indicators which measure the efficiency of the police in the repressive treatment, as an important factor for assessing the effectiveness of the police work, the sense of security of the citizens in a particular area should be taken into account. Data on citizens' sense of security provided by independent agencies should be compared and analysed with statistical data in police records and based on that measures, and actions in order to increase the sense of security among citizens should be planned.

In order to establish objective indicators for performance measurement, it is necessary to develop a system of competencies for each work position, as well as the ways in which competencies are determined and monitored, including the possibility of improving competencies of a particular police officer²²²⁰.

The efficiency of police in the repressive treatment should include examination of police officers' and citizens' attitudes, etc., so that the citizens of Serbia could have as objective information as possible on the state of crime (including the existence of the dark figure of crime) and the results of the work of police in its prevention. Public expectations are legitimate and clear. The police have the responsibility to remove shortcomings (some of them have been shown in this paper).

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TREND OF CHANGES IN MOTOR ABILITIES INITIAL LEVEL IN THE MALE STUDENTS OF THE ACADEMY OF CRIMINALISTIC AND POLICE STUDIES¹

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Abstract: Candidate selection is an important component for the success of the educational process, which significantly affects the qualitative level after completion of university education. The aim of this study was to determine the trend of changes in the motor abilities' initial level among the male students of the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies (ACPS). The study included the results of the entrance exams in the years 2011 (N = 314), 2012 (N = 276), 2013 (N = 258) and 2014 (N = 242). In addition to the total number of points which represent the general level of basic motor abilities development (BMA), the results of separate motor abilities were also analyzed and assessed with a battery of tests used for entrance exams in the ACPS: "Back extensors" (FmaxBE), the Push-up (PU), the Sit-up (SU), the Long jump (LJ), the Abalac (ABAL), the Body flexion-extension (FE) and the Cooper test (COOP). The existence of the general variability differences between groups was determined by using MANOVA, while for the determination of partial differences between pairs of variables Bonferroni test was used. Statistical significance was defined at the level of $p < 0.05$. The results showed that on a general level there is a statistically significant difference between students in comparison to the year of the entrance exam at the level of Wilks' Lambda 0.723 ($F = 15.420, p < 0.05$). The differences were found in the BMA and in tests of FmaxBE, PU, ABAL and FE. The obtained results indicate different initial levels of motor abilities among the students. The trend of changes is negative, so there is a decrease of the initial level of motor abilities. Results of this study indicate the need for evaluation of the criteria which are used on the ACPS entrance exam.

Key words: selection, trend, motor abilities, students, police

INTRODUCTION

The dynamic development of modern society causes changes in education, which is reflected through the appearance of different models of teaching process. For a successful education process, it is a necessary prerequisite to have knowledge and control of all system components. This primarily relates to the definition of the input parameters, the systematic

¹ This paper is the result of the research project: "Management of police organization in preventing and mitigating threats to security in the Republic of Serbia", which is financed and carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade - the cycle of scientific projects 2015-2019.

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implementation of the educational process, which, finally should result in the desired output⁵. Permanent monitoring of those components is essential in terms of adequate control on the one hand, and of preventive action in the desired direction of management, on the other hand. The higher education system includes the entrance exam, on the basis of which the selection of candidates is done. This indicates the special importance of selection criteria and the initial level of the selected parameters at the beginning of the educational process⁶.

The criterion of a candidate's initial motor ability level was designed on the bases of the needs of working profiles which are expected for successful performance of police job upon graduation. The appropriate level of motor abilities represents one of the factors for the effective performance of police duties, especially in cases of law enforcement and in providing help to people affected by natural disasters. Because of that, an important part in the process of selection for the work in the police is control of the motor abilities level^{7,8}. During professional engagement there is a constant need for maintaining and developing the police officers' motor abilities because their inadequate level can affect the job performance, lead to injuries, disability and human losses⁹. There are statistically significant correlations between the level of motor abilities and efficiency in police job, as well as between the level of motor abilities and health status of police officers¹⁰.

Shift (and night) work, physical and mental load, stressful situations, sedentary jobs, exposure to socio-professional and social pressures, tasks in all weather conditions, irregular and inadequate nutrition etc. are some of the police work characteristics which can negatively influence the health status, motor ability or body composition of police officers¹¹. The obvious importance of motor abilities in the selection, education, training and also in the process evaluating their level, imposes a constant need for improvement of all mentioned systems¹².

The system of entrance examination at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies (ACPS) in Belgrade is designed as a multi-dimensional model. The selection process begins with determination of a candidate's health status and cognitive abilities. Next, the candidates take an entrance exam within which success in previous education, performance on tests of the Serbian language and literature, general knowledge and the level of basic motor abilities (BMA) are scored. The first level of selection eliminates candidates with inadequate health and psychological characteristics. The second level divide candidates with the developed learning habits and abilities (which is valorized through success in previous education and the number of points won in the test in the Serbian language and literature and the test of

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general knowledge). The second level of selection also includes the assessment of BMA which consists of seven tests^{13,14}.

Those tests cover various motor abilities such as muscular force, strength, speed, repetition strength, general aerobic endurance and agility. A special formula, resulting from factorial analysis, calculates the total score for every single candidate. At first, the elimination value was constructed to be at the level of 33th percentile of the Republic of Serbia young and health population. Now, the elimination value is reduced at the level of 15th percentile approximately.

The problem of this study was the level of results achieved on tests of BMA. The aim of this study was to determine the trend of changes in the initial level of motor abilities of candidates who enrolled the ACPS.

METHODS

The study included the results of the entrance exams in year 2011 - Gen_2011 (the number of respondents - N = 314), 2012 - Gen_2012 (N = 276), 2013 - Gen_2013 (N = 258) and 2014 - Gen_2014 (N = 242). In addition to the total number of points which represent the general level of BMA, the results of separate motor abilities were also analysed and assessed with a battery of tests used for entrance exam in the ACPS: "Back extensors" (FmaxBE) – expressed in kiloNewton (kN), the Push-up (PU) – expressed in the number of repetitions (No), the Sit-up (SU) – expressed in No, the Long jump (LJ) – expressed in centimetres (cm), the Abalac (ABAL) – expressed in cm, the Body flexion-extension (FE) – expressed in No and the Cooper test (COOP) – expressed in meters (m). All measurements were realized in the ACPS methodical-research laboratory, by the same measurers, according to standardized procedures¹⁵. The existence of the general variability differences between groups was determined by using MANOVA, while for the determination of partial differences between pairs of variables Bonferroni test was used. Statistical significance was defined at the level of $p < 0.05$ ¹⁶.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the results of the average values achieved in the tests for the entrance exam to the ACPS. Also, the average number of points of basic motor abilities achieved on the bases of the results on the entrance exam is shown.

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Table 1: Average values of the results achieved in tests for the entrance exam on ACPS

	Fmax-BE (kN)	PU (No)	SU (No)	LJ (cm)	ABAL (cm)	FE (No)	COOP (m)	BMA (points)
Gen_2011	157.3	12.2	26.7	230.9	44.7	5.1	2708.0	13.41
Gen_2012	150.1	11.7	25.9	228.4	42.5	6.8	2728.5	11.75
Gen_2013	156.5	11.9	26.2	230.8	42.7	5.8	2708.1	12.27
Gen_2014	143.4	11.8	26.2	227.3	42.8	8.6	2697.1	11.21

Table 2 shows differences between the students' results achieved in tests for the entrance exam on ACPS, compared to the year of the entrance exam.

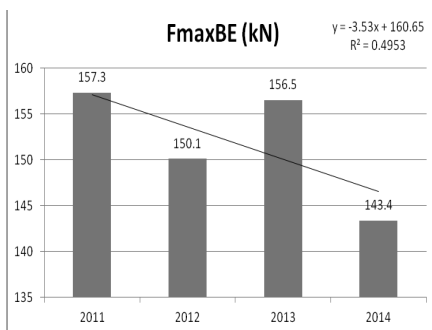
Table 2: Differences between students compared to the year of the entrance exam on ACPS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Year of entrance exam	FmaxBE	32644.92	3.00	10881.640	23.29	0.000
	PU	29.16	3.00	9.719	3.84	0.009
	SU	78.65	3.00	26.217	2.58	0.052
	LJ	2571.40	3.00	857.133	2.41	0.065
	ABAL	5671.36	3.00	1890.452	64.29	0.000
	FE	1916.25	3.00	638.750	23.95	0.000
	COOP	132881.62	3.00	44293.874	0.72	0.539
	BMA	753.02	3.00	251.008	24.76	0.000

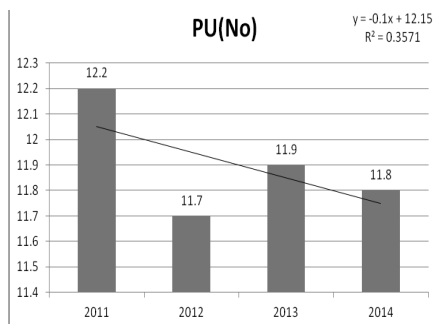
MANOVA results show that at a general level, there is a statistically significant difference between students compared to the year of the entrance exam at the level of Wilks' Lambda 0.723 ($F = 15.420, p < 0.05$). At the partial level differences were found for BMA ($F = 24.757, p = 0.00$), and also for the tests FmaxBE ($F = 23.285, p = 0.00$), PU ($F = 3.843, p = 0.09$), ABAL ($F = 64.290, p = 0.00$) and FE ($F = 23.952, p = 0.00$).

On the *Graphs 1-8*, the trends of changes of the average values of the results achieved in tests for the entrance exam to the ACPS are shown, as well as the trend of the changes in total number of points that candidates achieved on the part of the entrance exam in basic motor abilities.

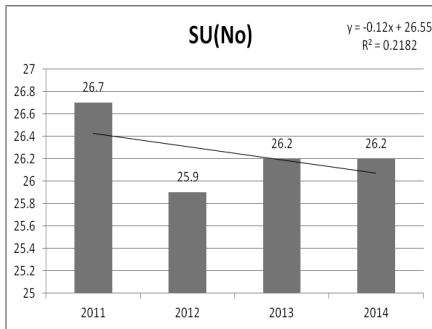
Graph 1: The trend of changes of FmaxBE



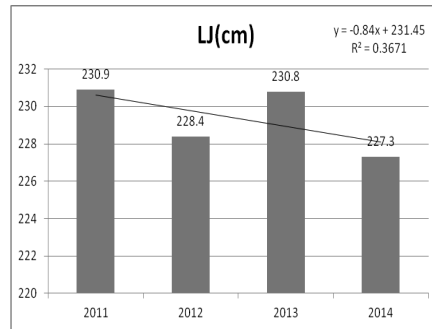
Graph 2: The trend of changes of PU average value average value



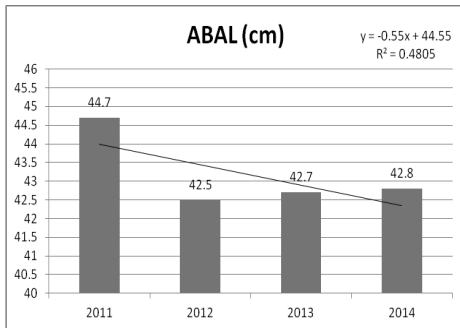
Graph 3: The trend of changes of SU average value



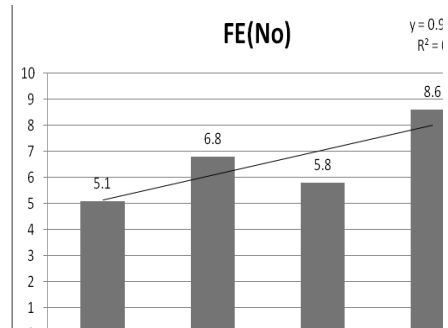
Graph 4: The trend of changes of LJ average value



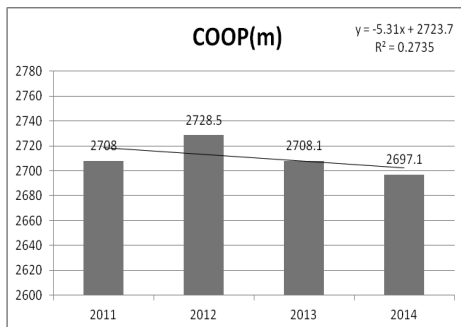
Graph 5: The trend of changes of ABAL average value



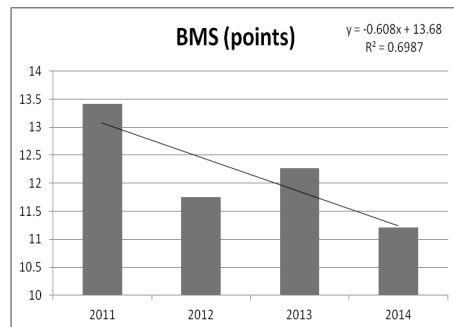
Graph 6: The trend of changes of FE average value



Graph 7: The trend of changes of COOP average value



Graph 8: The trend of changes of BMA average value



Bonfferoni test results showed statistical significant differences:

- for the test FmaxBE between Gen_2011 and Gen_2012 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2011 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2012 and Gen_2013 ($p = 0.004$), Gen_2012 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.003$), Gen_2013 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$);
- for the test PU between Gen_2011 and Gen_2012 ($p = 0.007$);

- for the test SU between Gen_2011 and Gen_2012 ($p = 0.040$);
- for the test ABAL between Gen_2011 and Gen_2012 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2011 and Gen_2013 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2011 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$);
- for the test FE between Gen_2011 and Gen_2012 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2011 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2012 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2013 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$);
- for the total score in part for evaluation of BMA between Gen_2011 and Gen_2012 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2011 and Gen_2013 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2011 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.000$), Gen_2013 and Gen_2014 ($p = 0.001$).

Bonfferoni test results for the tests LJ and COOP did not show statistical differences between analysed generations.

DISCUSSION

MANOVA results showed that on the general level there is a statistically significant difference between the initial level of basic motor abilities in students enrolled at ACPS, at the level of Wilks' Lambda 0.723 ($F = 15.420$, $p < 0.05$). At the partial level, statistically significant differences were found in the results achieved on testing FmaxBE, PU, ABAL and FE. Also, statistically significant differences were found for the total number of points achieved on the entrance exam in the part of basic motor abilities assessment. In the results of other tests statistically significant differences were not found. The trends of changes in all observed variables do not have the proper linear character, but there is noticeable variability between monitored generations. Generally, the negative trend of changes is observed in all analyzed tests. There is also an evident negative trend in the total number of points (BMA).

There could be several possible reasons for the negative trend of changes in the general level. One of the reasons is the evident trend of reduction of physical activity in children and adolescents as a result of modern way of life¹⁷. Related to the previously said, current education programs in primary and secondary schools are realized with a reduced number of physical education classes. Also, the system of sport and high school sport in Serbia, because of the entire material and financial situation, provides fewer opportunities for the teenage population. In the monitored period, the total number of applicants for enrollment in ACPS decreased. And finally, lowering the elimination limits on the entrance exam in the part of BMA assessment has resulted in a greater number of candidates with a lower level of motor abilities.

Although the number of enrolled candidates is not the primary objective of this study, these data point to some interesting conclusions. Specifically, there has been a decreasing trend in the number of male candidates who pass the entrance exam at the ACPS. Viewed from the Gen_2011, the number of male candidates is reduced compared to the previous year by 12.10%, 6.52% and 6.20%, respectively. If the first and the last observed generations are compared, then the number of enrolled male candidates is decreased by 22.93%. The results of previous research in which the same generations were analyzed, indicate an increasing trend of female candidates' enrollment¹⁸. In fact, viewed from the Gen_2011, the number of female candidates increased - in comparison to the previous year - by the 2.58%, 3.14% and 5.49%, respectively. If the first and the last observed generations are compared, then the number of enrolled female candidates is increased by 11.61%.

By cross-observing research results which result from analyzing candidates for enrollment in ASCP, it could be concluded that there has been a change in gender structure of enrolled

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students. More specifically, the structure of Gen 2011 consists of 66.95% male and 33.05% female students, Gen_2012 consists of 63.45% male and 36.55% female students, Gen_2013 consists of 61.14% male and 38.86% female students, while Gen_2014 consists of 58.31% male and 41.69% female students. Considering that the results of assessment of basic motor abilities on the entrance exam represent only 20% of the total number of points, there is a need for more detailed research to determine the causes of such relations. More specifically, the reasons also lie in the number of points that were accomplished in other parts of the entrance exam, along with lower results achieved by the male candidates on tests of BMA.

Regarding the fact that elimination limit is lowered below the anticipated 33th percentile, future research and planning of the entire process of education in the ACPS, should be designed on the indicators that are a consequence of these changes. The number of enrolled students with a lower number of points than the originally defined has increased from year to year. In Gen_2011, the number of enrolled students with BMA points below the 33th percentile was 4.75%, in Gen_2012 it was 10.14%, in Gen_2013 it was 9.30% and in Gen_2014 it was 16.49%. The average number of BMA points for the students whose score was above the 33th percentile is 13.77 for Gen_2011, 12.35 for Gen_2012, 12.86 for Gen_2013 and 12.21 for Gen_2014. On the basis of these data, it is obvious that there is an increase of enrolled students with low levels of BMA, which significantly affects the overall average results.

The results of this study suggest that there is a need for the evaluation of elimination limits in the area of basic motor abilities on the entrance exam. Related to this, there is a need for new studies which will determine the current state of basic motor abilities on the population level in the Republic of Serbia. The weakness of this research is reflected in the relatively small number of analyzed generation which is why some of the findings should be taken with reserve. Finally, this study should be observed in the wider context of the educational process on the ACPS. Despite the fact that the level of motor abilities during studies increases¹⁹, the final level of motor abilities has a declining trend compared to previous periods. This is confirmed by research which indicates the negative trends due to decrease in the total number of Specialized Physical Education classes²⁰.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study are similar with previous studies on Police Academy and ACPS students, and indicate reducing trends in the motor abilities level. This reduction is evident in the selection process, as well as in the educational process. Therefore, there is a need for evaluation of the relevant parameters which determine police officers' job in modern society, especially in the context of motor abilities requirement.

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GENDER EQUALITY IN THE POLICE: SITUATION AND PROSPECTS¹

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Abstract: Issues of gender equality and equal opportunities within the police organization, staffing levels and police culture have become the subject of detailed academic research after the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 1325 on “Women, Peace and Security”. Resolution 1325 (SCR 1325) was adopted in October 2000 at the 4213th meeting of the Security Council. The resolution recognizes the specific impacts of armed conflict on women and the significant contribution that women can make to security and reconciliation. SCR 1325 is committed to increasing the representation of women in conflict prevention and conflict management. The adoption of this resolution was encouraged, among other things, by the obligations of the Beijing Declaration, Platform for Action (A/52/231)³, and by the final document of the 23rd session of the UN General Assembly entitled “Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace in the 21st century” (A/S-23/10 Rev. 1)⁴.

Despite numerous analyses that deal with issues of organizational culture within the institutions of the security sector, there are still relatively few cross-cultural studies that deal with issues of equal opportunity, position, role, perspective, and barriers to the integration of women police officers. The available research mainly compares the experience of Great Britain and the United States. This work aims to help in getting better perspective of the current situation, i.e. a gender perspective within the police organization in Serbia, taking into account the current situation and opportunities provided to women working in the police. The paper also interprets official records of the appropriate authorities concerning the status of women within the territorial distribution and line police work. The central topic of this analysis is related to the equal opportunities policy, issues of discrimination, and harassment cases. In a hypothetical basis it starts from the conceptual definition of the term police culture, and objective and subjective obstacles to the integration of a gender perspective within the police system. The results of analysis are presented as illustrative trends, not as definitive findings.

Keywords: police, gender equality, gender perspective, discrimination

1 This paper is the result of the realization of the Scientific Research Projects entitled “*Management of police organization in preventing and mitigating threats to security in the Republic of Serbia*” and “*Crime in Serbia and instruments of state reaction*” funded and implemented by Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade, the cycle of scientific research 2015-2019; also, this paper is the result of the realization of the Scientific Research Project entitled “*Development of Institutional Capacities, Standards and Procedures for Fighting Organized Crime and Terrorism in Climate of International Integrations*”. The Project is financed by the Ministry of Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia (No 179045), and carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011-2016). The leader of the Project is Saša Mijalković, PhD.

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3 General Assembly 52nd Session (1997)

4 General Assembly, Official Records Twenty-third special session Supplement No. 3 (A/S-23/10/Rev.1)

INTRODUCTION - THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL GLOSSARY

Consideration of issues related to the introduction of the concept of gender equality, i.e. equality of possibilities and provided opportunities, in the security sector institutions is an essential determinant of an analysis of the wider concept - the relationship of gender equality and security sector reform. The debate on this issue in Serbia has come into focus in last ten years, since the UN Security Council adopted, among other documents, Resolution 1325 on "Women, Peace and Security". Resolution 1325 (SCR 1325) was adopted in October 2000 at the 4213th meeting of the Security Council. It recognizes the specific impacts of armed conflict on women and the significant contribution that women can make to security and reconciliation. SCR 1325 is committed to increasing the representation of women in conflict prevention and conflicts management. The adoption of this resolution was encouraged, among other things, by the obligations contained in the Beijing Declaration, Platform for Action (A/52/231), and in the final document of the 23rd session of the UN General Assembly entitled "Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace in the 21st century" (A/S-23/10 Rev. 1).

In the theories of gender studies, the term *gender equality* does not simply mean the inclusion of equal numbers of women and men in all social activities, or the treatment of women and men in the same way. It involves a strategy for inclusion of women's and men's interests and experiences in development programs in all political, economic and societal spheres so that the benefit for both, men and women is equal, and inequality is not restored⁵.

The introduction of a *gender perspective* (gender mainstreaming), means "the (re)organization, development and evaluation of policy processes, by the actors usually involved in decisions making so that gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies at all levels and all stages"⁶. Behind this seemingly complicated definition, lies a simple principle that a gender perspective should be introduced into the main institutional developments and policies, which means that during creation of new strategies and policies, and their implementation, their different impact on women and men must be taken into account.

The Council of Europe defines introduction of the principle of gender equality as "the reorganization, improvement, development and evaluation of processes and policies so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies and at all stages by the actors usually involved in decision-making"⁷. Basic principles of gender mainstreaming are:

- initial identification of issues and problems in all areas should include an analysis of gender differences and inequalities;
- never should be made the assumption that the issues and problems are gender-neutral;
- regularly conducting gender analysis;
- the implementation of this concept requires political will, and often additional financial and human resources;
- gender mainstreaming requires effort to be made to extend the equitable participation of women at all decision-making levels⁸.

5 Spasić, D., Radovanović, I. Rezolucije o ženama, miru i bezbednosti i njihova primena u reformi sektora bezbednosti. *Kultura polisa*, Kultura – Polis Novi Sad i Kriminalističko-policijska akademija Beograd, 2012, godina IX, posebno izdanje 2- Kultura ljudskih prava u XXI veku, (ur. Milošević, Goran, Milašinović, Srdjan), str. 291-306

6 *Gender mainstreaming, Konceptualni okvir, metodologija i pregled dobrih praksi*, Završni izveštaj o aktivnostima Grupe specijalista za mainstreaming (EG-S-MS), str. 10, Savet Evrope, 1998.

7 *Ibid* str.10

8 Spasić, D., Radovanović, I. *Ibid*

Gender mainstreaming is not simply adding “women components” or adding “gender equality component” into existing activities. It goes beyond increasing women’s participation and means the introduction of experience, knowledge and interests of women and men in the developmental programs.

GENDER EQUALITY IN THE POLICE

Considering the issues of gender equality, equal opportunities, advancement, and retention of women in the police force is conditioned by the specifics of police systems, organization, functions, and by identifying characteristics of the police culture as professional culture specific to the police organization, which greatly contributes to maintaining and fostering the traditional negative attitude to the reception and integration of women in the police.

The determination of the police organization as an organization and personnel system which can use coercive means to perform its functions, on the one hand, and the basic characteristics for police (male, macho) culture which has traditionally been destined for men, on the other hand, created the objective barriers to entry of women in the uniformed police force. In addition, today there are a large number of untested assumptions that support the belief of the roles of men and women, their abilities and values.

Maintaining of these beliefs is helped by the ruling stereotypes of the dominant characteristics of the sexes which are learned and are consequences of intergenerational transmission⁹. According to them, men are rational and women emotional; men are better than women coping with crisis situations; they are able to execute more difficult and dangerous tasks, while women meet simple repetitive tasks; men are active and their superiority commands respect, while women are passive and cannot issue orders.

As numerous studies have shown worldwide, the police profession implies an environment characterized by a large impact on the personality of the police officers, authoritarian orientation among officers, role conflict, alienation, and expressed awareness of the power over others¹⁰. Such an environment, traditionally male, is burdened by numerous forms of discriminatory behavior towards women employees. All forms of discrimination, be it verbal or physical, no matter if they are based on stereotypes and/or prejudices, have their origins in a deeply rooted understanding of gender differences and in defining gender identity through traditional patriarchal socialization.

Gender mainstreaming of police organizations at the beginning of the new millennium was marked above all by the fact that women police officers make up about 15% of their total staff¹¹. At the same time, in all parts of the world and in all times, some issues are constantly

9 Spasić, D., Djurić, S., Mršević, Z. Survival in an “all boys club”: Policewomen in Serbia. *Women’s Studies International Forum*, Volume 48, January–February 2015, Pages 57–70. doi:10.1016/j.wsif.2014.10.008

10 Verma, A. & Das, D.K. Teaching police officers human rights: some observations. *International Journal of Human Rights*, 6,2, 35-48, 2002. Gibbs, P. and Phillips, H. The History of the British South Africa Police 1889-1980, Something of Value, North Ringwood. In: Goldsmith, A.J. (ed.) (1991). *Complaints against the Police: The Trend to External Review*, Oxford: Clarendon Press, 2000.

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11 Brown, J. European policewomen: a comparative research perspective, *International Journal of the Sociology of Law*, Vol. 25 pp.1-19, 1997. Brown, J. “Abuse relationships at work: police women as victims”, *Criminal Justice Matters*, Vol. 35 pp.22-3, 1999. Brown, J., Heidenshohn, F. *Gender and Policing: Comparative Perspectives*, MacMillan, Basingstoke, 2000. Martin, S. *On the Move: The Status of Women in Policing*, Police Foundation, Washington, DC, 1990.

crawling through the functioning of the police: concerns with regard to equal opportunities, discrimination and sexual harassment¹². Although police systems and organizations are changing their structure, organization and personnel, there has been relatively little research on the experiences of women in the police force, with the exception of researches of the United States and Great Britain¹³. Reports indicate that women police officers, compared to their male counterparts, are more exposed to sexual harassment, violent and threatening situations at work, domestic violence at home¹⁴.

Slightly less extreme refusal is expressed through various forms of labeling women as outsiders, including the relationship full of sexual insinuations, paternalistic attitude and other types of degrading attitudes (ridicule, distrust, etc.). In the paternalistic relationship women suffer negative consequences of subordination: although they perform the same jobs as men, although they are qualified as man, and although they invest the same effort and knowledge in business as men, masculinity does not allow women to progress, because they are perceived as less capable and less valuable¹⁵.

Characteristic of a profession dominated by men is the lack of women, especially their exclusion from the highest position in the professional rankings. Despite the increased participation of women in the labor market in recent decades most of them are expected to have jobs, but not successful careers which are reserved for men. With the aim to maintain masculine culture of a particular profession such as the police, there are established processes that contribute to maintaining low rates of women entry. There is no doubt that some elements of self-selection are also present, because if the profession is seen as typically male, then the woman who wants to be in that business is prepared for a series of difficulties and problems in the course of her career¹⁶.

During the study of gender and ethical aspects of social interaction of police officers, women reported more negative interactions, especially with regard to verbal harassment, sexual harassment and gossip. Women reported that they also participate more in social networks, especially when it comes to members of related organizations. However, data indicate that they have in a lower percentage of close friends who work in the police. Finally, women have more support within the family to perform police work. Research on the number of suicides among police officers, that lasted nineteen years - 1977-1996, established that out of the total number of 80 suicides, men had committed suicide more often than women (73 vs. 7). The suicide rate of women officers was almost four times higher than the suicide rate in the general population during this period (13.1% on a sample of 100,000 respondents compared to 3.4% of suicides on the same sample). Thus, we can conclude that "there is a much greater probability that women police officers will commit suicide, than that women in general will do it"¹⁷.

Almost everywhere in the world, women employed in the police force have accepted work segregation, that is, the division into typically male and specific "women's jobs" as realistic. They are mostly deployed on operations dealing with children and women as victims, or administrative duties, or jobs that make their status inferior¹⁸.

12 Walklate, S. "Equal opportunities and the future of policing", in Leishman, L.B., Savage, M. (Eds), *Core Issues in Policing*, Longmans, London, pp.163-85, 1995.

13 Spasić, D. Police Culture and Gender Identity. *Western Balkans Security Observer : journal of the Belgrade School for Security Studies* / editor Jasmina Glišić, Centre for Civil-Military Relations, 2006-(Beograd : Goragraf), 2011.

14 Brown, J., Heidensohn, F. *Gender and Policing: Comparative Perspectives*, MacMillan, Basingstoke, 2000.

15 Spasić, D., Djurić, S., Mršević, Z. *Ibid*.

16 Spasić, D. *Ibid*.

17 Spasić, D., Vučković, G. Police Culture and Process of Integrating Women in the Police. Milošević, G. (ed.). *Thematic Proceedings of International Significance Archibald Reiss Days*, Vol. I, pp. 249-258. Belgrade: Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, 2013.

18 Spasić, D., Vučković, G. *Ibid*

GENDER PERSPECTIVE OF POLICE IN SERBIA - FORMAL CRITERIA

Methodological approach

General considerations of the status of a gender perspective in police organizations in the world, available in numerous research studies and findings, caused the need to, on the basis of official data and information of relevant services of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, examine the concept of gender equality and equal opportunities in the police in Serbia. Research interests were directed towards answering the following questions:

1. a) What does *gender perspective* mean in the work of the police in Serbia; b) how to implement and enforce gender equality policies; c) to what extent and in what way are the representatives of the police involved in the implementation of the National Action Plan (NAP)¹⁹ for the implementation of Resolution 1325 on “Women, Peace and Security” for the period 2010-2015 in Serbia?
2. Whether and how are gender equality, discrimination and protection from gender-based violence implemented in staff training?
3. Does the police education system apply a quota system?
4. Is the gender component introduced into the process of human resource management?
5. What is the percentage of women in leading and executive positions in the police, taking into account the uniformed police force, and specific lines of work?

The request for the submission of the required information has been submitted to the Department for Analytics, telecommunications and information technology of the Ministry of Internal Affairs - Directorate of Analytics, in December 2014. Responsible Directorate submitted its response in April 2015.

Results and analysis

Based on a secondary analysis of data and information received from the Directorate of analytics, we have established the following:

1. a) The phrase *gender mainstreaming in the work of the Ministry of Interior* **implies** – including of gender component in police work due to more efficient response to the specific security challenges faced by women in society.

Such an interpretation of a gender perspective is in its basic meaning narrow and limited. Firstly, without explaining the meaning of *gender component* and *the manner of its introduction into the work of the police*, the target has been set as *more effective response to the specific security challenges faced by women in society*.

Assuming that, among others, specific security challenges faced by women are discrimination, gender-based violence, and also violence in general, the question is: are women employed in the police subject to the same security challenges and why the gender component in this case does not concern them?

b) In order to implement gender equality policies and accepted obligations from ratified international documents and obligations stipulated by domestic legislation governing this area, in the Ministry of the Interior has:

¹⁹ On the website of the Ministry of Defence, at http://www.mod.gov.rs/sadrzaj.php?id_sadrzaja=4352, there are reports on the implementation of the National Plan of Action for the implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325 United Nations - Women, Peace and Security in the Republic of Serbia

- *Established and functioning mechanisms of gender equality which should provide coordinated, systematic implementation of the activities on the elimination of formal and de facto barriers to equal participation and the increasing role of women in the Ministry of Interior* (advisor for gender equality in the Ministry of the Interior; Analytical Group for monitoring the implementation of activities on the realization of equal opportunities policies; program “Buddy support” - a mechanism to provide counseling, peer assistance and support to employees with certain problems in work which may arise from various forms of discrimination, among other and gender discrimination; coordinators for combating domestic violence; educators for antidiscrimination - with the aim of systematic integration of anti-discrimination policy in the training and work of all organizational units of the Ministry). Also, there is an established and functioning mechanism for protection of women against all forms of discrimination at work, as well as the protection of women from all forms of violence.

c) In addition to the mechanisms established in the Ministry, representatives of the Ministry of the Interior actively participate in interdepartmental bodies established with the aim of creating, directing and harmonizing the implementation of public policies in the field of gender equality and protection from discrimination. Some of those bodies are, for example: Multi-sector coordinating body for the implementation of the National Action Plan (NAP)- the operational body of the Government of Republic of Serbia, chaired by a representative of the Ministry of the Interior, that takes care of the realization of the objectives and tasks envisioned by the NAP and the Political Council - the political body, with two representatives from the Ministry of the Interior, that guarantee political conditions necessary to achieve the goals and activities of the NAP.

2. *Established systemic education of employees on gender, discrimination issues, and protection of women from violence, especially against family violence.* This education is implemented through police education system (The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies - KPA and The Basic Police Training Centre - COPO), through a system of specialist training and professional development of police officers (through professional training on these topics by specially trained educators of the Center for specialized training of the MI - which is carried out in accordance with the annual programs of professional training of police officers); through various development programs and projects implemented in cooperation with other state bodies, civil society organizations, international partners - the OSCE, the Swedish Police Board, UNDP/SEESAC, UNWOMEN in support and assistance to the Ministry in the ongoing reform process (e.g. IPA 2011 project “Implementation of antidiscrimination policies in the Republic of Serbia”; the collaborative program between the Ministry of the Interior and the Swedish National Police Board /three projects/; Women police officers Network SEE - UNDP/SEESAC; The gender dimension of human security - with OCD and other similar activities).

3. It is significant that *there is no quota for enrollment of girls in courses implemented by COPO.* Their enrollment depends entirely on the results of entrance exam. These two facts have led to a permanent increase in both interest as well as receipt of girls into education program (in the period from 2007 to the end of 2014, 11 classes completed training at The Basic Police Training Centre – with the average of 21.5% of girls out of all students, with almost 25% in the last class).

In the school year 2014/2015, *all quotas were cancelled for enrollment of girls for studying at the expense of the budget at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies,* thereby removing the last remaining obstacle in the area of police education (there is no quota for self-financing students or for education at the COPO). The result of the cancellation of quotas was visible immediately after registration - 58.3% of girls were enrolled to basic academic studies that are financed from the budget, compared to 25% registered in the previous school year.

4. *The inclusion of gender component in all functions of human resource management* – through the reform of human resources management in the Ministry of the Interior, which should provide formal and actual changes in the planning, organization and management of human resources. These changes, among others, include the promotion of gender equality in all aspects of human resource management (selection, reception, training and specialized training, career monitoring and promotion, management, rewarding, etc.). This component is an integral part of the currently reform project within the Ministry of the Interior (“The modern concept of human resource management”)

Also, through permanent analysis and subsequently amending legislation, particularly the Police Act, steps have been taken to remove the perceived legal barriers to women’s advancement in the service (e.g. absence of women due to pregnancy and child birth for more than six months is no longer an obstacle to performing evaluation and including that period of work experience as a basis for promotion to the next title or rank). However, it is expected that with the adoption of the new Police Act a new solution will be concretized, by defining precise criteria and competencies and that it will rectify factual obstacles to equal career advancement, or to minimize discretionary powers in deciding on the admission and progress of the work. This should result in the removal of possibilities for discrimination on any grounds.

GENDER EQUALITY IN SERBIAN POLICE - FACT (OBJECTIVE) SITUATION

From the data of the Directorate for Analytics on the percentage of women in management and executive positions in the police, taking into account the uniformed police force, that is, the particular line of work, the following may be concluded:

Women constitute up to 22.7% of the total number of employees in the Ministry of the Interior. The Directorate of Police has 21.3% of women in the total number of employees (18.3% at the headquarters of the Directorate and 22.3% in the police Directorates (PD)). Participation of women in police Directorates is very uneven. In some police stations women’s participation expressed in percentages is significantly above those in Ministry of the Interior, especially in the PD of Užice, where the participation of women in the total number of employees is 26.8%, PD of Bor - 26%, PD of the City of Belgrade - 25.5 %. However, in some of them participation of women is traditionally low: Leskovac - 13.2%, Vranje - 14%, Novi Pazar - 17% and Prokuplje - 18%.

In relation to the total number of employees in certain positions, women are mostly employed in the positions within human resources - 91%, followed by administrative tasks - 83.4%, analysts and records - 76.7%, food and accommodation business - 72.2% , joint services - 58% and information technology - 46.5%.

Participation of women ***in the operational lines of work*** is smaller, and most are represented in positions in Border Police - 23%, on combating crime - 22.3%, on traffic safety - 15.8%, on security jobs - 14.3% and general police operations - 11.6%. When it comes to special units (Special Anti-Terrorist Unit - SAJ, Anti-Terrorist Unit - PTJ) and Helicopter Unit only 1.2% of women are in the workplace with the status of uniformed authorized officer – UOSL; the status of authorized official - OSL, and in Gendarmerie 2.3%.

Educational structure: Among women who are employed in the MI, most of them are with secondary education - 58.2%, then with high - 19.4%, higher - 14.7%, and with primary education - 7.8%. Educational structure of employees in the MI reflects the structure of work positions defined by the act on internal organization and systematization of positions (around

72% of jobs are with secondary education, which is understandable, given that most of the uniformed police force consists of general police, traffic and border police and gendarmerie with IV level of education). Also, a large number of jobs with the IV level of educational attainment is part of the administrative affairs, human resources, joint services, food and accommodation business, where most women work.

In terms of educational attainment, among the employees of the Ministry of the Interior there is a greater number of women with university and college degrees, as well as with primary education, while among employees with secondary education there is the largest number of men²⁰.

In relation to the total number of employees in the MUP - most women are with secondary education - 13.1%, followed by high - 4.5%, higher - 3.3% and with primary education - 1.7%.

Representation of women in management positions

The number of women in management positions at the beginning of 2015 was 363 (in 2014 there were 355 women) and it represents 11.1% of the total number of managers in the MI, or 3.6% of the total number of women. This means that 96.4% of women in the Ministry of the Interior work on the operational job positions.

- Of the total number of *chiefs of directorates* (a total of 35 systematized in the rank of major) only *seven are women* (since 2010 this number has been unchanged).

- *Five women are Deputy Chief of Directorates* (systematized a total of 30), which is 16.7% (compared to four in 2014).

- from a total of 50 *Assistant Chief of Directorates* only 10 are women, or 20% (compared to eight in 2014)

- of *seven heads of bureaus* in the Cabinet of Minister four are women (unchanged since 2014)

- out total of 291 *Chief of Departments* 51 are women (accounting for 17.5%)

- 187 women are *Chiefs of Section*, out of 684 systematized, which makes 27.3% (compared to 26.4% in 2014). Position of **Chief of Section** is the managerial position in which **women are the most common**.

- One woman was Chief of Police Directorate

- two women are *counselors of the Minister*

- One woman is *Deputy Chief of Cabinet of the Minister*

- three women are *Assistant Chief of the Sector* (of a total of 10 assistants).

In the **uniformed police** there is very a low representation of women among managers:

- 44 leading positions, *only one woman* is the *Commander of Traffic Police Branch*

- from a total of 131 *Commander of Police Branch* women are found in three places,

- one woman is *Deputy Commander of Police Branch* and one is *Deputy Commander of Station of the border police*.

In the **Directorate of Police** only 2.9% of the total number of women are at the managerial positions and the total number of women managers accounts for 10%.

At the beginning of 2015, the average number of years of work of women employed in the MI was **17 years and 3 months**.

20 Source: Report of the Directorate for Analytics of the MoI of Serbia, April 2015

Engaging women - police officers in peacekeeping missions

Members of police forces have been engaged in peacekeeping missions since 2004. At the beginning of 2015, a small contingent (only 13 police officers) were engaged as part of UN peacekeeping forces. So far, among the police officers deployed in missions 13% were women. Currently, no woman is involved in UN peacekeeping missions in Liberia, Cyprus and Haiti. By June 2014, one woman was involved, from a total of 13 police officers deployed in Liberia, and she worked on the training of local police forces.

Although the interest of women to go on missions is affected by many factors (security, accommodation, health, etc.), and in particular, the requirements of the UN (the length of police work experience, knowledge of English), it is important that all women who apply and meet the requirements, actually go to the missions. At the end of 2014, out of a total of 80 candidates eligible to go to the mission, *four* candidates were women.

Like other candidates for peacekeeping missions, women undergo some training at the Centre for Peacekeeping Operations of the Army of Serbia, or in specialized training centers abroad. Otherwise, one woman police officer with experience in peacekeeping missions (Haiti and Liberia) continuously participates as a trainer - instructor in various forms of training important for deployment in the UN peacekeeping missions. In 2015, there was a plan for 18 police officers to be deployed in peacekeeping missions²¹.

PERSPECTIVE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN SERBIAN POLICE

It should be noted that the equal opportunities policies function as well as they are respected and bona fide used. If used in accordance with their real essence and in good faith to improve the historically based disproportionality, discrimination, and exclusion, they will certainly bring the desired results. Malicious application, which aims to “prove” that women are not capable of, or interested in some jobs, or application that is considered as coercion and burden, something that should be in every way avoided or “prevaricated” certainly will not give the expected and desired results. However, women employed in the police have big problems in other areas, particularly in the promotion, and believe that the procedures and criteria of recruitment and selection tend to favor men.

The possibility of promotion of women employed in the police, according to their personal opinion expressed in a survey conducted in 2011²², is in direct correlation with the various forms of discrimination that is reflected in the work in night shifts, which requires a change of lifestyle, or fear, that is, the risk of isolation and harassment. The promotion of women is in negative relation with family responsibilities and child care. However, greater potential for promotion and advancement of women exists in urban police stations where a certain number of women officers and women in leadership positions, in positions of responsibility and in the administrative structures has already worked. It also means fewer opportunities and more restrictions for women employed in the rural police outposts. This “working climate” and professional environment cause a higher percentage of stress, depressive behavior and other psychosomatic diseases. Faced with this situation, many of them voluntarily “deprive” themselves of possibility for promotion or advancement, pushing back the personal enthusiasm.

²¹ We have no official information about whether this plan was realized.

²² Spasić, D., Djurić, S., Mršević, Z. Survival in an “all boys club”: Policewomen in Serbia. *Women's Studies International Forum*, Volume 48, January–February 2015, Pages 57–70. doi:10.1016/j.wsif.2014.10.008 <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0277539514001630>

The new Police Act²³ pays special attention to human resource management, and within that segment of the Ministry envisages reforms in recruitment, selection, career development and promotion of employees, while assuming promotion criteria which are equal for all employees. In the present conditions, women employed in the police face numerous obstacles and constraints at their workplace, but also in the wider work environment.

Women employed in the police force in Serbia accept work segregation, the division into typically “male” and specific “women’s jobs” respectively, as reasonable. A large majority of women are assigned to jobs that deal with children and women as victims, or administrative duties, or jobs that make their status inferior. This applies equally to women with university and college degrees, as well as those who have completed basic police training, by which their educational or professional qualities do not seem competitive²⁴.

At the same time, as part of organizational changes at the Ministry of the Interior the position of *counselor for gender equality* has been revoked but the position of *coordinator of equal opportunities* has been systematized instead. This may represent a significant step towards promoting gender equality in the police in Serbia only if conditions are created that the policy of *gender mainstreaming* is applied and developed at full capacity and at all organizational levels of the Ministry, with equal respect for the needs of both women and men.

INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

Traditional patriarchal and culturally-set informal social relations, for centuries effectively excluded women from participating in decision-making in the institutions, even with formally achieved legal equality or equality in access to all functions and positions. Intensifying of informal circles of power is particularly evident when women penetrate traditionally male professions, including even the highest positions of decision-making through legally guaranteed equality, quotas or other affirmative mechanisms or simply by their own qualities on the basis of legitimate power of legal procedures. It is necessary, therefore, with the analysis of the relationship on the main stage of formally structured institutions and procedures, to observe the existence and operation of the process of masking power or relocation of power from formally structured institution into a gray, non-institutional zone where affirmative action measures cease to apply, as well as the constitution and the law guaranteed gender equality, including the elementary rules of decency.

Since equal rights of the unequal do not bring an end to inequality, but - on the contrary - they even maintain and enhance it, it is clear that different measures of affirmative action and policies of equal opportunities need to be applied, such as privileging those who have traditionally been discriminated against and excluded from public life. Therefore, future studies should be directed to the study of macro-factors at the national level that affect the functioning of the police and the entire state administration. The focus of attention should be placed on the complex relationships and structural factors that shape the current social environment.

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LEGAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL SPECIFICS OF THE POLICE OF BRCKO DISTRICT OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

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Abstract: The state of Bosnia and Herzegovina consists, in accordance with its constitutional and legal provisions, of two entities the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republic of Srpska, and a special administrative unit - Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina was officially established by the final arbitration decision for Brcko on the 08/03/2000 as a unique administration unit with its legislative, executive and judicial authority. The highest legal document in Brcko District BiH is the Statute of Brcko District BiH. In accordance with the Statute the duties from the field of internal affairs are carried out by the Police of Brcko District BiH. The Police of Brcko District BiH acts in accordance with the Law on Police Officials of BiH and other laws of Brcko District BiH and laws of the state of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Therefore the Police of Brcko District are an institution of Brcko District BiH, with its special competence, organization and management, and it is operationally independent, unlike other police organizations in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

This paper provides an overview of the organizational and legal specifics of the Police of Brcko District BiH which arise, above all, from its special operational independence under which it carries out duties of tactical, operational and strategic level.

Keywords: Police organization, police official, Brcko District BiH.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina prescribes that Bosnia and Herzegovina consists of two entities the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republic of Srpska. There is also a special administrative unit under the sovereignty of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with its special status, Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina is a unique administrative unit of local self-government under the sovereignty of Bosnia. The highest legal document is the Statute of Brcko District BiH.² The District was established by the final arbitration decision for Brcko on the 08/03/2000 as a unique administrative unit, with its own a) legislative power, b) executive power and c) judicial power.

a) The legislative power in the District is the Assembly of Brcko District BiH, which consists of 31 representatives and as the legislative body it determines the general politics of the District. The representatives in the Assembly are elected in general, open and direct elections,

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² Statute of Brcko District of BiH – consolidated text, (Official gazette of Brcko District BiH, number 02/10).

by secret ballot, in accordance with the laws of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the District. The president and vice president of the Assembly are chairs of the Assembly. The Assembly of Brcko District BiH is in charge of supervision, by means of Assembly Commissions³, and it also supervises the Police.

b) Executive power in the District is the Government of Brcko District BiH, which consists of the Mayor, Vice Mayor, Head Coordinator of the Government and Chiefs of Departments.⁴ The Mayor represents and chairs the Government; the Mayor is selected by the Assembly of Brcko District BiH.

c) The third aspect of power in Brcko District BiH is the judicial power, i.e. the judiciary of Brcko District BiH. The judiciary of Brcko District BiH is independent and impartial and it consists of the Basic Court of Brcko District BiH and the Appeal Court of Brcko District BiH. It is necessary to add here the Prosecutor's Office of Brcko District BiH, which is also independent from the judiciary and the Police of Brcko District BiH.

When it comes to the area of internal affairs in Brcko District BiH, those duties are carried out by the Police of Brcko District in accordance with the Constitution of BiH, Statute of Brcko District BiH, laws of Brcko District BiH and laws of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The Statute of Brcko District BiH, as the highest legal document in Brcko District, prescribes that: the District has its own Police; that the District Police carries out all police functions prescribed by law; that the District Police ensures safe and secure environment for all persons in the District while respecting internationally acknowledged human rights and fundamental liberties provided by the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina; that the District Police enables undisturbed freedom of movement of all persons, vehicles and goods through the District; and that all employees of the District Police are public servants and as such responsible for their actions.

In accordance with the above mentioned Brcko District BiH has passed the laws which regulate the work of the Police of Brcko District⁵ as an organization and its employees, i.e. police officials of Brcko district BiH⁶, which directly stipulate the work of the Police as a whole and the work and behaviour of police officials. Besides that, and in accordance with these laws, the Chief of the Police, by applying his authorisations arising from these laws, passes bylaws, Book of Rules, instructions and similar documents, which give directions and regulate certain issues important for the work, duties and tasks of police officials. With regard to that and within the Police of Brcko District BiH, the Book of Rules on organization and job classification has been passed in the Police of Brcko District BiH, stipulating the positions and describing the tasks and duties.

³ Within the Assembly are the following Commissions: Legislative Commission, Commission for Budget, Commission for Protection of Human Rights, Commission for Economic Development and Agriculture, Commission for the Selection and appointment of mandate-immunity Commission, Commission for Administration and Finances, Commission for Public Safety and Supervision over the Work of the Police, Commission for Labor, Health and Social Care, Commission for Education, Sport, Culture and Cooperation with Religious Communities, Commission for Monitoring the Work of the Government, Institutions of the District and Complaints of Citizens, Commission for City Utilities, public activities and Protection of Environment, Commission for monitoring the application of the Rules of Procedure and Commission for applying the Code of Conduct of the Representatives.

⁴ Within the Government of Brcko District BiH there are following Departments: Department for public safety, Department for expert administrative issues, Department for public registry, Department for health and other services, Department for agriculture, forestry and water supply, Department for spatial planning and property issues, Department for economic development, sport and culture, Department for public affairs, Department for education, Department for city utilities, Department for displaced persons, refugees and housing.

⁵ Law on Police of Brcko District BiH (Official gazette of Brcko District BiH number 31/09, 60/10 and 31/11)

⁶ Law on Police Officials of Brcko District BiH (Official gazette of Brcko District number 41/07, 4/08, 36/09, 60/10)

In this paper a descriptive overview will be given of the organizational specifics of the Police of Brcko District BiH, as well as specifics of some legal provisions which legally regulate the field of internal affairs in Brcko District as a special administrative unit within Bosnia and Herzegovina. Special focus is placed on the manner of law enforcement and carrying out duties and tasks by the Police of Brcko District BiH and the goal of this paper is to show that the Police of Brcko District, as an independent police agency in Bosnia and Herzegovina, equal to other police agencies in Bosnia and Herzegovina, have their own legal, organizational, material and personnel abilities for fighting all forms of jeopardy to the safety in Brcko District BiH and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Surely it is necessary to know that Brcko District BiH, in terms of security, cannot be observed as a separate island, excepted from the surrounding safety challenges of Bosnia and Herzegovina and neighbouring countries, with which Brcko District BiH as well as the state Bosnia and Herzegovina need to build “mutual” base for creating regional, and global safety.

BRCKO DISTRICT OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA – GEOGRAPHIC POSITION AND SAFETY SENSIBILITY OF THE AREA

Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina is geographically located in the north-east part of the state Bosnia and Herzegovina and it covers 1% of the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Geographically it is positioned between the entities of BiH, the Federation of BiH and the Republic of Srpska, and at the Sava River it borders with the Republic of Croatia and thereby with the European Union.



Scheme 1: *Geographic position of Brcko District BiH*

Special features of Brcko District BiH arise from its constitutional and legal position, taking into consideration that it was established by the final arbitration decision for Brcko as a unique administrative unit, which possesses its separate legislative, executive and judicial power. Taking into consideration the aforementioned, Brcko District has developed “its” police force for fighting all forms of jeopardizing safety in this area.

The sensibility of the safety area of Brcko District BiH is specific and determined by its geopolitical, demographic, economic, legal, social, traffic and any other position and status, as well as by the influence of a significant number of political and economic factors generated in Bosnia and Herzegovina and the region.

Because of the lack of a unique police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina with highly efficient mechanisms for coordination, Police of Brcko District BiH was established, as a special and operationally independent form of police organization which undertakes measures and actions in the field of law enforcement, protection of human rights and liberties, i.e. protection of property of citizens.

POLICE OF BRCKO DISTRICT BIH, TASKS AND DUTIES

The Police of Brcko District were formed in the year 2000, out of three police stations which existed in the area of Brcko District BiH and which had been created during the war in BiH from 1992-1995 (Police station Brcko, Temporary Police station in G. Rahic and Police department Ravne Brcko). After the fusion of the police stations, a unique police structure – organization of Police of Brcko District BiH was formed. The Police of Brcko District BiH exist in the area of Brcko District BiH and their competence includes tasks of operational, expert, administrative, legal and other nature. The Police of Brcko District BiH are, in accordance with the Statute of Brcko District BiH and the Law on Police of Brcko District BiH, an institution of the District BiH, operationally independent, have the status of a budget user and are financed from the budget of Brcko District.

In terms of competence, organization and management of the Police, this is stipulated in the Law on Police of Brcko District BiH⁷ and the Law on Police officials of Brcko District BiH⁸, in which these legal provisions directly regulate the work, the organization of the Police as a whole, and the work and behaviour of a police official. In accordance with the mentioned legal provisions it is prescribed that the police are an institution of the District that it is operationally independent, and that the Chief of Police represents and manages the work of the Police. By using his powers which arise from previous mentioned laws the Chief of Police passes bylaws: the Book of Rules, Instructions, Orders and other, by which he directs and regulates certain issues important for the work and executing of tasks and duties by the police officials.

The organization of the Police of Brcko District BiH is specific, taking into consideration that the Police are managed by the Chief of Police, who is a police official (and not a minister as a “political” figure who in this position would be a member of the government). The Chief of Police, in accordance with the Law on Police of Brcko District BiH, submits to the Mayor of Brcko District BiH and the Assembly of Brcko District BiH the following: a) written Annual Report on Work of the Police and b) Information of relevance for the safety in the District, every six month or more often if the Chief of Police or the Mayor deem necessary. It necessary to add here, that the selection of the chief and evaluation of the work of the Chief of Police is in the competence of the Independent Board, which is a standing body of the Assembly of the District. The Independent Board is appointed by the Assembly of Brcko District BiH upon the

⁷ Law on Police of Brcko District BiH.

⁸ Law on Police officials of Brcko District BiH.

proposal of the Commission for selection, appointment and Commission for mandate-immunity of the Assembly of Brcko District BiH.

Practically it can be said that the Police are independent in its work, in a frame of a democratic “external/internal” supervision and control.

In accordance with the Law on police officials of Brcko District BiH and the Book of Rules on internal organization and job classification in the Police of Brcko District BiH, positions are established in the Police which are filled by police officials, state employees and civil servants, in accordance with prescribed requirements (for all working positions) and prescribed ranks for police officials.

In accordance with the previously mentioned laws the Police, the following tasks are prescribed:

- a) Protection of life and property;
- b) Protection of human rights and liberties of citizens guaranteed by the Constitution of BiH and the Statute of Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina;
- c) Preventing, revealing and investigating criminal acts and misdemeanour which are not in the competence of other police bodies of BiH;
- d) Duties and tasks related to maintenance of public peace and order;
- e) Providing security to certain persons and buildings in the District;
- f) Duties and tasks relating to security of public gatherings;
- g) Duties related to traffic security on the roads of the District and other tasks in the field of traffic security established by law;
- h) Duties related to the control of purchase, keeping and carrying a fire arm and ammunition and keeping records;
- i) Other tasks and duties entrusted to the Police by the Prosecutor of the District and other Prosecutor’s Offices in BiH;
- j) Duties related to production, trafficking and storing explosive material, which are in the competence of the District;
- k) Duties related to the work of Agencies for protection of persons and property;
- l) Implementing provisions on weapon and ammunition;
- m) Inspection and supervision in the fields of competence;
- n) Administration and other expertises established by law and other provisions;
- o) Other tasks and duties in its competence in accordance with the Law.⁹

In accordance with the mentioned, the Police of Brcko District BiH within its work as a police organization while performing its duty:

- a) Implements laws and other regulations of the District within its competence;
- b) Carries out supervision regarding tasks related to the security of citizens entrusted to other bodies of the District, companies and other legal persons;
- c) Submits reports to the Assembly of the District and the Mayor on all activities prescribed by the Statute and laws of the District;
- d) Organizes, maintains and develops a connected and functional system of links and exchange and protection of information with BiH institutions and entities;
- e) Provides for introduction and application of modern scientific methods regarding prevention of crime and undertakes appropriate measures on prevention and revealing of criminal acts;

⁹ Article 12 of the Law on Police of Brcko District BiH.

- f) Carries out searches and temporary confiscation of property and items, deprives of liberty;
- g) Collects, analyses and uses crime intelligence information and data, using informants and other operational sources of data and information;
- h) Secures, keeps and controls the evidences at the crime scene and secures the area of the crime scene with the aim of preventing the evidences to be damaged, destroyed or lost;
- i) Carries out apprehension, bringing in and escorting and securing of court hearings;
- j) Purchases weapon, equipment and material-technical means for the needs of the Police, which are provided from the District budget;
- k) Carries out necessary scientific research related to police activities;
- l) Provides the competent bodies of BiH with operational information and statistic data related to the tasks which are in the competence of the BiH bodies, but entrusted to the Police;
- m) Develops programs:
 1. for fulfilment of requirements of legal persons in the District for carrying out police work,
 2. which support active participation of the citizens in preventing crime,
 3. for documenting and investigation of reported criminal acts,
 4. for cooperative investigative activities with other bodies of the District, bodies of the entities and bodies of BiH which implement the law,
 5. support to the District Prosecutor's Office
- a) Cooperates with the Commission for public safety and supervision over the work of the Police which is appointed by the Assembly of the District and provides to the Commission all reports which it requests;
- b) Carries out other tasks necessary for performing all police duties.¹⁰

Therefore the Police of Brcko District BiH, through professional performance of all mentioned duties and tasks, provides the citizens of Brcko District BiH the necessary level of protection, i.e. necessary level of personal safety and safety of property. the Police carries out the above described tasks and duties through its competent internal organizational units, which are defined by bylaws which regulate the work of the Police of Brcko District BiH as an organization, and the work of its employees, police and state officials.

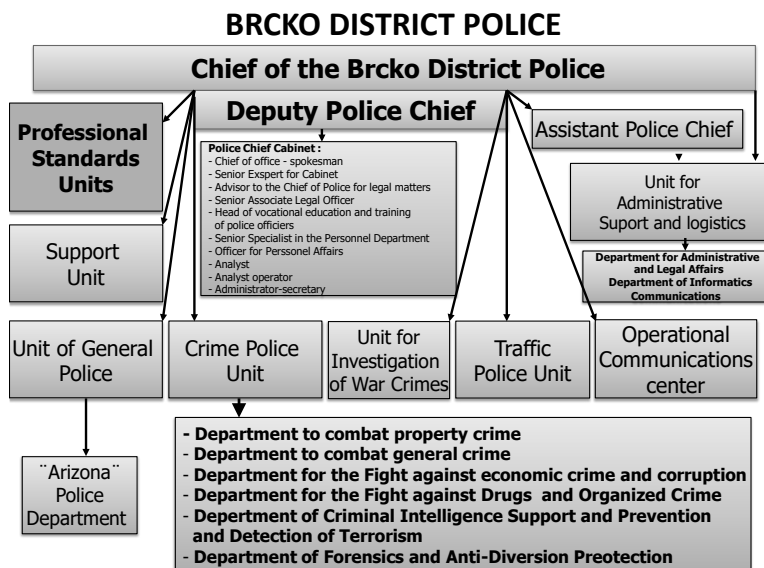
BASIC ORGANIZATIONAL UNITS OF THE POLICE OF BRCKO DISTRICT BIH

The Police of Brcko District BiH carries out its duties through nine organizational units of the Police, which have their internal structure – specialized divisions. The Book of Rules on internal organization and job classification in the Police of Brcko District BiH prescribes the competencies of the units and the positions for the employees with job descriptions, duties and tasks.¹¹ In accordance with the above mentioned, the following units exist in the Police: 1. Cabinet of the Chief of Police, 2. General Police Unit, 3. Crime Police Unit, 4. Traffic Police Unit, 5. Support Unit, 6. Professional Standard Unit, 7. War Crime Investigation Unit, 8. Operation-Communication Centre, and 9. Administration Unit.

¹⁰ Article 13. Law on Police of Brcko District BiH

¹¹ Book of Rules on internal organization and job classification in the Police of Brcko District BiH, april 2008 and Book of Rules on modifications and amendmends of the Book of Rules on internal organization and job classification in the Police of Brcko District BiH, 2012.

The organization and allocation within the units of the Police of Brcko District BiH is shown in the following scheme:



Scheme 2: Organizational chart of Brcko District Police

Therefore, the following tasks are carried out in the Police Units:

1. **Within the Cabinet of the Chief of Police** – duties and tasks are carried out by: the deputy chief of Police, expert advisor of the chief of Police for public relations-spokesperson, expert advisor to the chief of Police for education, expert advisor to the chief of Police for legal matters and the coordinator for personnel;

2. **General Police Unit** – is the most numerous and most significant unit and its uniform police officials carry out, in the field, tactical duties and tasks, protection of persons and property, undertake measures for maintaining public peace and order, preventing and revealing criminal acts and finding and arresting perpetrators of criminal acts, secure crime scenes and material evidence, undertake investigative measures on resolving criminal acts, run the detention facility, secure public gatherings, secure certain personalities and buildings, provide support to other bodies of Brcko District BiH in accordance with the law, etc.;

3. **Crime Police Unit** – in which a framework of internal organizational units is established: Department for the fight against property crime; Department for the fight against general crime; Department for the fight against economic crime and corruption; Department for the fight against drugs, organized crime and terrorism; Department for crime intelligence support and preventing and revealing terrorism; Department for forensics and anti-diversion protection;

4. **Traffic Police Unit** – carries out tasks and duties of regulating traffic on the roads and control of drivers, vehicles and other participants in traffic, preventing and revealing criminal acts and finding and arresting perpetrators of criminal acts.

5. **Support Unit** – participates directly in carrying out tasks on protection of personal and property security of citizens and objects and other goods in case of general danger or when public peace and order is violated to a larger extent, as well as in cases of terrorist or other violent acts, i.e. armed riot, and provides overall physical support to all units;

6. **Professional Standard Unit** – its priority goal is to raise the level of professionalism of police officials, as well as monitoring and controlling of the work of police officials;

7. **Unit for War Crimes Investigations** – organizes and undertakes, in the area of the District and under the supervision of the Prosecutor, operational and other measures on revealing, investigating and documenting of war crimes committed in the area of the District;

8. **Operation-Communication Centre** – is the unit which, among others, coordinates the work of the organizational units of the Police 7/24 and is responsible for duly and efficient work which is in the competence of the Police, especially out of working hours.

9. **Administration Unit** – within which there are two organizational units – Sectors: Sector for legal administration issues and logistics and Sector for IT and communication.¹²

Without going deeper into the elaboration of the competencies and duties of the organizational units of the Police of Brcko District BiH, the Police of Brcko District is an independent police organization, equal to other police organizations in Bosnia and Herzegovina. From the organizational point of view it can be noticed that the Police carry out the basic duties on the tactical level – duties which are carried out by the police station, duties of operational and strategic level – duties which on the highest level (“state level”) are carried out by a ministry of internal affairs on the highest management level.

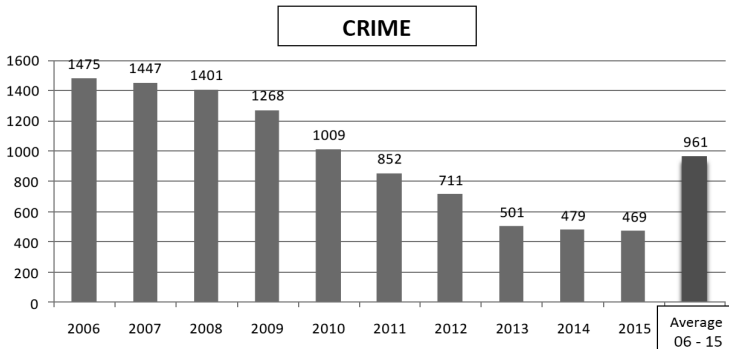
SECURITY AND OTHER TRENDS

When it comes to issues related to security and other trends in the area of Brcko District BiH, which were observed in the previous period by the Police of Brcko District BiH, they are reflected in the fact that the analysis of the situation in the field of crime, public peace and order and traffic security indicate that in the previous ten-year period Brcko District BiH, as a community, is on average burdened with about 1048 criminal acts, about 246 cases of disturbance of public peace and order and about 625 traffic accidents, with noticed significant tendency of decrease in the number of criminal acts, disturbances of public peace and order and traffic accidents.

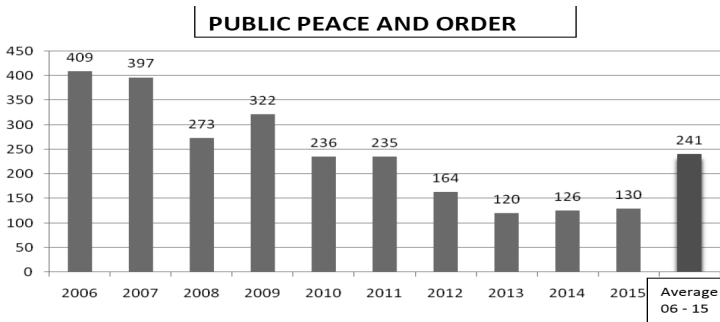
In the field of **crime**, regarding the structure of the mentioned average number, the cases of property crime (about 65%) are prevalent. The number of criminal acts against life and limb is about 66, criminal acts against property about 752. An increase in the number of criminal acts of bribery and criminal acts against official and other duties has been noticed, as a result of conducted planned activities and proactive approach of the Police in investigating this field. Actual trends in the field of investigation of criminal acts against humanity and values protected by the international law, committed in the area of Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the period 1992-1995, include the continuation of the investigations of criminal acts from this field, achieved efficiency in investigation in this field compared to the previous period as well as the increased number of conducted trial excavations and exhumations.

When it comes to crime situation in the last ten years, the following scheme shows the statistic indicators:

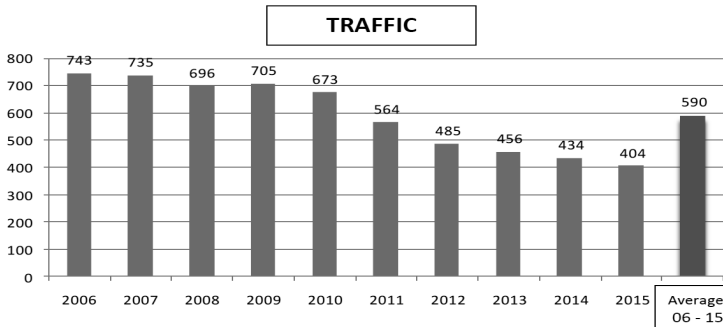
¹² Book of Rules on internal organization and job classification in the Police of Brcko District BiH, october 2012



In the field of **public peace and order** in the structure of the multi-year averaging, cases with insignificant damages dominate. Public peace and order was disturbed once a day on average, mostly in the form of causing or participating in a fight, involving persons of the age between 30-50; public peace and order was mostly violated in public open places between 06-00 pm. In all forms of public gatherings no elements of violent behaviour was recorded.



In the field of **traffic security** in the structure of the multi-year averaging, cases with material damage and light body injuries are dominant and traffic accidents on the roads of Brcko occur, on average, once a day. On average, two persons sustain heavily body injuries in traffic accidents on monthly basis. Traffic accidents mostly occur on main, local roads and town roads, and the most frequent causes are unadjusted speed, disrespecting priority and intoxication of drivers. Traffic accidents mostly occur from 11 am to 05 pm.



The actual trends in the field of **professional standards** are reflected in the decrease of the number of registered cases of violation of the legality, regularity and ethic standards of the employees of the Police, which is indicated, among others, by the constant decrease of

the number of complaints of citizens against the work of the Police in the previous period, as well as the increase of informally solved complaints. From the aspect of human rights and liberties, the decrease of the number of use of force was recorded when compared to the previous period, as a result of the police approach by the principle “necessity and minimizing force”, strengthening the ability for communication of the police employees and proper understanding of the relationship between human rights and liberties and discretion rights when applying powers. The trends also indicate a lower level of corruptive behaviour of the Police employees and the increase in the number of assaults against police employees while performing regular police duties.

INTEGRITY IN THE POLICE AND POLICE OFFICIALS

The Police of Brcko District BiH have defined regulations, within a legal framework, which refer to the integrity of the Police (such as Ethic Code for police and state employees and civil servants of the Police of Brcko District BiH, Rules on behaviour, Rules on conflict of interest, gifts, limits after the employment, organizing trainings on conflict of interest). What is important to emphasize here in this segment is that the Police work on professionalization of their personnel and on preventing and suppressing certain deviations from integrity and removing all processes which could lead to violation of the official duty, which are related to corruptive behaviour and violations, which basically represent violation of ethics, excessive use of powers especially related to use of force, as well as other deviations from the procedure which in its consequences do not have forms of a criminal act or violation of the official duty.

Within the Police a Book of Rules was rendered on the system of internal control in the Police of Brcko District BiH (which stipulates determination of risks and level of its influence on achieving the key tasks and processes in the Police in the field of normative activities, human resources, software and hardware, administration accounting issues, public purchase, supervision, informing and education of the employees and cooperation with other institutions). Every year an Annual Plan for measures on preventing, removing and reducing risks in the Police of Brcko District BiH is passed. Likewise, a Decision has been passed on procedures, processes and sub-processes in the Police of Brcko District BiH, defining standards and methodology of work of the employees, which they have to obey while performing their tasks and duties.

This all required that the Police more actively develop programs and activities with an aim of strengthening integrity of the employees, and it is visible that the existing rules are implemented in practice and proactively, alleged misuse is investigated and unacceptable behaviour is sanctioned, which is illustrated by the fact that disciplinary measures have been taken in several instances.

STRATEGIC PLAN OF THE POLICE OF BRCKO DISTRICT BIH FOR THE PERIOD 2013-2018

Taking into consideration all elements of sensitivity related to security in Brcko District BiH as well as the specifics of the local community and the need for the development of a police organization which would be always able to provide efficient protection to citizens from all forms of jeopardy, the Police of Brcko District BiH invests all its efforts to provide the highest level of security, and constantly to develop in sense of organization, personnel and equipment.

With an aim of adequate response to all forms of jeopardy to the security of citizens, a Strategic Plan of the Police of Brcko District BiH for the period 2013 – 2018 was ¹³passed, which define: mission and vision of the development of the Police, values which primarily are promoted through the work of the Police, safety and other trends, evaluation of the surrounding – sensitivity of the area, internal evaluation, limits, security and other challenges, and six clearly defined strategic goals with which the Police wishes to achieve the highest level of respecting of human rights and protection of personal safety and property safety of citizens of Brcko District BiH.

The values which are primarily promoted in the work of the Police of Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina are: human rights and basic liberties, legality, integrity, professionalism, ethics, transparency, belonging to a multi ethnic community, belonging to the Police.

The Strategic Plan of the Police of Brcko District BiH for the period 2013-2018 defined the following strategic goals:

- To maintain the public perception of general safety of citizens on the level which Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina defines as safe for the community.
- Raise the respect of the Police and trust of the public.
- Upgrade the efficiency of the Police in investigating and exchanging of all available information with competent law enforcement agencies regarding criminal acts against humanity and values protected by international law, committed in the area of Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the period 1992 – 1995.
- Upgrade the system for quick and efficient response to unpredictable situations that present a threat or severe consequences for life, health and property of citizens, institutions and legal entities in Brcko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- Improve the electronic management system in all working processes in the Police.
- Develop capacities and improve the abilities for all forms of interactive communication with citizens and public as a whole.

Therefore the Police of Brcko District BiH is devoted to the idea to provide, through the rule of law and full integrity, ethics and professionalism of its employees, and support and trust of the citizens, a high level of personal safety and safety of property of citizens in the area of Brcko District BiH.

INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

Respecting multiple and simultaneous dynamic social factor of jeopardizing the safety nowadays, as well as the work and functioning of the police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina which is determined by a huge decentralisation, we tried through this work to show the organizational and legal specifics of one police agency in Bosnia and Herzegovina, which by its legal role and specific organization has the jurisdiction in the area of Brcko District BiH. As it could be seen the legal specifics of this police organization are reflected before all in the operational independence for law enforcement, its legal independence as a state body to which the law entrusted discretion rights and certain legal instruments for use of force, as well as in the system of its management (where the police is managed by the Chief of Police, who is a police official (and not a minister as a “political” figure, who in this role would be a member of the Government). The Police are independent in their work and act exclusively on professional grounds and have adequate financial, personnel and material recourses for an

¹³ Strategic Plan of the Police of Brcko District BiH for the period 2013-2018, Brcko 2012

efficient functioning. Its organizational specifics can be seen as well in carrying out duties on tactical, operational and strategic level, where all mentioned levels – duties sublimated in the frames of this police organization and where the existing organization and internal structure of the Police of Brcko District BiH enables the fulfilment of tasks which are in its competence.

Having in mind all above stated it can be concluded that the Police of Brcko District BiH have developed legal, organizational, personnel, operational and material capacities for fighting all forms of modern jeopardy of safety in the area of Brcko District BiH.

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SOME ETHICAL DILEMMAS IN POLICE TRAINING

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Abstract: Every day police professionals decide and act while balancing, competing, and conflicting values and interests, frequently with incomplete or inaccurate information, often in highly emotional and dynamic circumstances, and typically under pressure.

Police officers are held to a higher standard of behaviour by society, because they are stewards of the public trust and are empowered to apply force and remove constitutional privileges when lawfully justified. They take an oath of office, are expected to comply with the professional codes of ethics, and are subject to various laws, rules, and regulations. Police professionals should not only think ethically; they must also act ethically. Ethics training provides tools for addressing ethical problems, but the police professional must have the courage to act.

This paper will argue with the everyday police activities and ethical dilemmas that police officers are facing with. Furthermore, the author will offer several elements that should be considered when developing an ethics training program. Training is of crucial importance for success in the police work.

The conclusions that the paper offers will be helpful for the officers of the Ministry of Interior, especially for the police trainers in order to recognize how to make ethical training program more useful and how it has been functioning up to date.

Keywords: police, police ethics, ethical dilemma, training.

INTRODUCTION

The main issue that is discussed in this paper refers to certain dilemmas that appear in police activities, especially in the design, preparation, implementation and evaluation of police training. The public interest for the police and police profession, particularly to which extent and level of quality legal provisions, respect of human rights and freedom, humanity and tolerance that are required of the police officers are fulfilled, is on a high level. Therefore, it is very important to prepare training to be real, measurable, achievable and useful both for officers and for all members of a democratic society.

Ethical dilemmas for police, especially for the training of the police, are mainly about the character of those who are elected for the courses for basic police training, their moral values, the ability to recognize different approaches in solving a particular problem, choosing the right answer to the challenge, timely and proper response, ability to take responsibility for their own actions and so on.

The paper presents some of the segments that should be part of any training program for the police by opening questions such as goals that are to be achieved by training, meaning and value of training and so on. It is especially important to keep in mind that police officers need

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to upgrade their own integrity, and therefore as unquestionable goal of any police training and content that will promote police integrity should be in focus.

Many years of monitoring the various types of police training, especially the basic police training in the Republic of Macedonia allow the author using of synthesized methodological approach to analyze existing programs and to open dilemmas for more qualitative police training. Ethics in the training occupies a special place as much as it plays a significant role in everyday police work. Only well-trained police officers, with high moral values and personal integrity can bring timely correct and beneficial decisions in his/her activities. The policeman who understands the challenges of the service, who is sufficiently brave and bold and has appreciation and respect for the citizens will be able to properly evaluate his/her own actions and work in the interest of all citizens.

The results that are presented in the conclusions of this paper will offer answers to ethical dilemmas in terms of organization and implementation of the police training, thereby helping to conceive training that will be useful for every police officer. The basic principles of police actions are always closely linked with the respect of human rights and freedoms and therefore each police in the world is keen to build and promote similar trainings conducted worldwide.

ETHICAL DILEMMAS IN POLICE TRAINING

An officer develops his or her moral compass, character, or ethical basis from interacting with other individuals and studying ethics. Ethics training for police professionals helps them do the following:

- Readily recognize an ethical problem or dilemma
- Identify various options to address the particular issue involved
- Make a rational and ethically sound choice which option to choose
- Take prompt action based upon that choice
- Accept responsibility for the outcome

Police professionals cannot simply think ethically; they must also act ethically. Ethics training provides tools for addressing ethical problems, but the police professional must have the courage to act. Courage is an extremely important component of the character of a police officer. With years of police service appropriate experience is acquired that allows assessment of the situation in an appropriate and reasonable way. Young policemen and police officers that are new in the police have lack of experience and “good” intentions often supported by imprudent bravery could jeopardize what he/she does. The question of the use of force and firearms is frequently asked in the police structures. Although some police officers use physical force or other means of coercion very rarely, dilemmas about proper use or refrain from using are always present and not every police officer is able to make fast and proper decision on time. There is no place for people who object to the use of force in the police. On the contrary, the police need people who have the ability, diligence and willingness to use force when necessary. Undoubtedly, police officers throughout their careers will use force more than they believe or hope to. The training should include elements of “escalation of force” that will give them enough knowledge to use only enough force to overcome the force or the threat to the police officer.²

To overcome the aforementioned dilemmas police officers require proper training, good knowledge of laws and by-laws regulating police issues, and respective instructions, assis-

² Baker, Barry M. 2009. *Becoming a police officer*, p. 74

tance and support in daily operations by superior officers. However, in many cases it proved or proves to be insufficient. Personal characteristics, innate qualities, gained experience, and even the lifestyle and habits of police officers may be crucial in overcoming dilemmas in everyday activities that can significantly facilitate the work and help in adopting a correct and useful decision.

Responding to a particular situation has two components: reaction (emotions and thought) and action. The law typically focuses on the action, i.e. so long as the action complies with the law, the reason is generally irrelevant. But ethics considers not only the action but also the motivation for the action. Thus, doing the right thing for the wrong reason is not ethical. Police professionals aiming for ethical excellence must also consider motives behind behaviour.

One of the most famous philosophers and consequentialist Emanuel Kant³ argues that moral action is essentially about following a set of rules that forbid or require certain actions. These rules specify actions that are known to be right or wrong in relation to the rule in question. Since deontologists equate right or wrong action with obedience or disobedience to moral laws, they see rightness or wrongness as intrinsic to certain types of actions. Someone is considered to have done morally wrong thing, for example, when his or her act intentionally deceives (e.g. a lie) or intentionally harms someone. The wrongness of such an act does not depend on the consequences of the action. This feature of ethics – rightness or wrongness is an intrinsic feature of certain types of acts – is to be contrasted with another ethical theory which denies it, namely, consequentialism. According to consequentialism, an action is right only if it produces the best overall consequences. This means that according to consequentialism the wrongness of telling a lie or intentionally harming someone depends on whether these actions produce good or bad results. A lie that prevents suffering might, by the consequentialist's lights, be the right thing to do. This is because consequentialists claim that the rightness of an action depends entirely on the value of the consequences brought about. In contrast, according to deontologists, one should not tell a lie even if the consequences of telling the lie are better. Rather, telling lies is wrong simply because it is wrong to tell lies.

The use of firearms is always a sensitive issue. There are many people who under no circumstances would take another person's life. For such people, the police are definitely not the right choice. But there should be neither place in any police agency for those who hardly wait to kill someone. The use of firearms is really rare, but every police officer may be put in a situation to decide whether to use or not to use firearms.⁴ Each police department has a manual describing the conditions under which a police officer can shoot. Over time, the guidelines have undergone some changes. Today, the rules restrict the use of firearms out of the shooting area only to protect their own lives or the life of another person.⁵

What should an ethics training program for police professionals include so that thinking and acting ethically become a part of each police professional's core character and the organization's culture? One of the most complex challenges for all theoreticians who study police ethics as a scientific discipline refers to the issue of the content that should be covered and well trained, that would help the police officer to correlate the appropriate procedures, thoughts and actions. Ethics in the behaviour of every individual should be transferred to the organizational culture of any modern police service. There is no space for tolerance of serious deviations from the main objectives and guidelines of the service. Surely, human rights and freedoms, protection of the integrity and dignity of every individual in society, personal safety and property protection and so on are primarily in the spotlight of any police service. Police officers are obliged to strive for the highest standards in respecting the ethical norms, while

3 Kant, Immanuel. 1964. *Groundwork of the Metaphysics of Morals*, p. 288

4 Baker, Barry M. 2009. *Becoming a police officer*, p. 80

5 Ibid

constant deepening of knowledge and attitudes towards ethics in the work should be personal and organizational priority for any police.

Taking responsibility for every action is essential. Responsibility in the police profession is a precondition and guarantor of democratic society. No police officer will remain alone in the implementation of laws. No illegal activities will be tolerated. Wherever possible, police officers should take an outstanding position in the society and be motivated to take positive actions and activities that raise the standards of policing.

Several elements that should be considered when developing an ethics training program include the following:

- What is the program's purpose?
- Does the program add value to the police organization and to the community?
- Does the program encourage and support integrity?
- Does the program openly acknowledge the exercise of discretion and provide guidelines for applying it?
- Does the program reduce risk and liability for the individual and organization?
- Does the program encourage excellent performance?
- Does the program include complementary accountability systems that also promote ethical behaviour?

PURPOSE OF THE TRAINING

In order to make ethics training successful, students must understand its purpose. Ethics training should provide tools that assist the student to think and act ethically in both their professional and their personal lives. Those tools include the following:

- *Increasing awareness of potentially ethical issues.* Police officers are constantly faced with the challenges of modern society in which they are required to respect the highest standards of human rights, be of high moral character and integrity, to improve the personal views and opinions on the police and the police profession. In such circumstances, it is important to stress that access to the lifelong learning for officers allows him/her to continuously be on training and to discuss topics relating to ethics and ethical behaviour of police officers. Increasing awareness of potentially ethical issues should be an integral part of such training.

- *Providing vocabulary and thought or decision-making process for addressing the issues.* Everyday police activities build appropriate organizational culture of ethics and ethical conduct. Decisions relating to ethical issues that arise among police officers is the right and duty of every individual, especially the management structures aimed at guiding the work of police officers and they should take care to fulfil the highest standards in policing.

- *Instilling a commitment and courage to act ethically.* Commitment to work is particularly important in services where the police have to show courage and determination in dealing with their behaviour as a positive example to other colleagues, especially the novice and junior officers. No privilege should and can compensate the damage that may be caused by inhuman treatment of police officers. Therefore, one of the main objectives of the training for the police must be commitment to service and the need for ethical conduct.

- *Creating a non-negotiable expectation of full accountability for the consequences of any action taken.* Rules are there to be consistently respected. In police work, there are numerous rules of conduct to which police officers are required to consistently adhere and apply them

in daily operations. Perhaps one of the most important rules is the rule of ethical conduct and respect of human rights and freedoms. The police organization has built mechanisms to control the behaviour of police officers and they should never be questioned, nor deviate from the consistent application of the same. In other words, the police should apply the rule of “zero tolerance” for police officers who violate the rules of ethical conduct and respect for the basic standards of the police profession.

VALUE OF THE TRAINING

Ethics training should add value to the police organization and to the community. Moore⁶ notes that the police function is an “assemblage of three components: public entrustment of assets, public entrustment of authority, and moral exhortation/sense of duty”. Therefore, ethics training should be viewed as the contribution to the organization’s assets, an investment that the organization uses to add value to the community in the form of the fair and ethical conduct of its members.

The police agency and its members must be viewed as fair if the community considers the department a legitimate authority. Fairness is usually defined as the equal treatment of people in similar circumstances. Another definition is that each individual action or failure to act by a police professional defines fairness or justice and over time defines what fairness and justice mean to the community. The more that people perceive the police as acting fairly or justly, the more legitimate the police function and the individual police professional become.

Acting ethically is fundamental to acting fairly. Acting fairly equates with acting consistently with the social contract, the implicit agreement between the government (the police as part of the executive branch) and the people, addressing mutual rights, responsibilities, and expectations. The police derive their duty to uphold the public trust from the social contract.

The social contract means that the people have entrusted some freedoms to the government, including the police, in exchange for the government’s safeguarding it. Police professionals are expected to be stewards of this public trust and to act in a way that respects the government’s founding principles. For Macedonian police, these founding principles are described in the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, which should be a cornerstone of ethics training for Macedonian police officers.

The training is evaluated so that afterwards it will present attitudes of police officers who have undergone it. Getting feedback from each training course is extremely important and we can get very useful information in which direction to adjust or change the training plan. This is especially important when experienced police officers who have already established their principles of behaviour and dealt with numerous challenges in daily operations attend training.

ENCOURAGE INTEGRITY

According to Delattre⁷, ethics training should encourage the police professional to be a person of integrity, as “excellent qualities of character must become integral, not just to certain parts of our lives but to our entire lives, both public and private”.

6 Moore, 1995, *Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Government*, p. 318-322

7 Delattre, J. Edwin. 2006. *Character and Cops: Ethics in Policing*, p. 38

Integrity must be both personal and professional, because each person fulfils a variety of complementary yet often conflicting roles. Contorting oneself into a particular role is emotionally unhealthy. Kevin Gilmartin emphasizes the importance of living the whole life in his description of how a police officer can maintain a broader sense of self and avoid emotional burnout: "This capacity to balance multiple significant emotional roles in one's life is the central defining aspect of an emotional survivor versus an emotional victim."⁸

Acknowledge the exercise of discretion. Ethics training should openly acknowledge and provide guidelines for exercising discretion. To deny that police professionals routinely exercise discretion is simply inaccurate; police officers must exercise discretion: "Police discretion is absolutely essential. It cannot be eliminated. Any effort to eliminate it would be ridiculous. Discretion is the essence of police work."⁹ Yet, police officer discretion is not a *carte blanche*. Ethics training should provide guidelines and parameters to follow when exercising discretion, a vocabulary and a thought process, and acceptable boundaries within which to exercise it. Discretion, properly exercised, makes the law more just. Just as equity softens the impact of the law, so the wise exercise of discretion can also soften the law's application.

Reduce risk and liability. Police agencies should view ethics training as risk management. Risk management general goal is to prevent or reduce injury to people, property, reputation, and other assets and to remedy any injury or loss when it occurs, as well as training, encouraging and expecting the police professional to act ethically will be good insurance.

Police civil liability frequently results from the following:

- Negligent hiring
- Failure to supervise
- Failure to train
- Negligent entrusting
- Negligent assigning
- Failure to discipline
- Negligent retaining
- Unnecessary or excessive force
- False arrests
- Negligent vehicle operation

While each of these has its unique characteristics, a common thread is the exercise of imprudent judgment that either creates the circumstances leading up to the ultimate failure or precipitates the action or inaction that directly causes the loss or injury. Merely complying with applicable laws, rules, regulations, policies, and procedures is not necessarily enough to avoid liability, partly because these constraints do not cover every conceivable situation that might arise. Again, the prudent exercise of discretion and sound, ethical decision making can compensate for lapses in judgment or deficient performance.

Ethics training emphasizes the importance of thinking before acting, particularly developing impulse control, especially in challenging or tempting circumstances.

Encourage and expect excellent performance. Ethics training should not merely demand minimum performance; it should exhort the police professional to strive for excellence. Most organizational policies and procedures are directed toward compelling minimum performance and frequently result from some egregious conduct.

Complementary accountability systems. Police professionals want to be ethical for many reasons. To accommodate the range of motivations, agencies can use constraints and re-

⁸ Gilmartin, M. Kevin. 2002. *Emotional Survival for Law Enforcement*, p. 188

⁹ Davis, Culp Kenneth. 1975. *Police Discretion*, p. 172

straints to manage behaviour. Programs that promote accountability (external constraints, such as early intervention systems and internal investigations units) and encourage responsibility (internal restraints) complement any ethics training effort.

Ethical decision making involves options, choices, and consequences. The police professional faces a situation requiring an ethical decision, considers various options, decides upon one of the options, implements the decision, and experiences the outcome. But the human condition is anything but simple. Sometimes, one does not recognize the ethical dilemma, all the options are not identified or available, the choices are clouded by emotional or intellectual fog, or one does not foresee or accept the consequences. Unfortunately, there are also times when malicious action is intentional.

Certainly, thinking ethically is much easier than acting ethically. It takes courage to act ethically because choosing the right path may be painful and come at a considerable cost, both professionally and personally.

An ethics training program can provide tools so a person can make the right decision, and an agency can create a climate in which ethical actions are possible. Nevertheless, the individual must provide the courage to act on the decision.

CONCLUSION

There is no other profession, occupation or endeavour one can undertake where he/she will experience the realities of life at their best and worst. If they keep at it long enough, he/she will interact with every level of society and will learn there is not a lot of difference among people regardless of their educational or economic achievements. Others sit in classrooms for years trying to learn why people do the things they do. In the end, their education is nearly all based on theory and hearsay. As a police officer, he/she will be a participant in, and an eyewitness to, the realities most people only read about. It is the best education on Earth.¹⁰

The issue of a quality and comprehensive training for police remains an open question for all police services in the world. Access to the training depends on social relationships, circumstances and needs of policing. However, common problems faced by police officers, the same or similar types of crime against which they have to fight or to prevent, brings to the conclusion that police training in the world, similar to the actions of the police cannot be much different. Starting from this point of view we can conclude that certain topics of police activities will be common in the training plans of many police services in Europe and in the world. In addition, the principles which underpin training are similar. The dilemmas that are opened in the paper are also applicable everywhere. Ethics in acting is the main issue that is discussed in the basic police training, as well as in its use in advanced or continuing training of police. Appropriate approach, respect for human rights and freedoms, personal integrity and dignity of the police officer, his/her moral and legal actions should never be left in the background and let the police officer himself/herself finds answers to the dilemmas that may arise in issues of ethics and ethical conduct.

The objectives of police training must be clear and unambiguous. They should relate to:

- Increasing awareness of potentially ethical issues
- Providing a vocabulary and thought or decision-making process for addressing the issues
- Instilling a commitment and courage to act ethically
- Creating a non-negotiable expectation of full accountability for the consequences of any action taken

¹⁰ Baker, Barry M. 2009. *Becoming a police officer*

All of the above training objectives provide adequate representation of ethics in police education. Each police officer should be sufficiently trained and prepared to make a right decision in a real situation. Decision making is a very important segment in policing.

The value that has quality and practical purposes to targeted training can greatly affect the police organization. The better-trained police officers, the better performance of official duties are. All police officers are due to take care of their prestige and authority of the service as a whole. All improper and unprofessional conduct should be timely and accurately identified and properly sanctioned. Each police officer recklessly and irresponsibly doing his/her job should be sanctioned. Otherwise, liability for failing to respect ethical standards in policing is always a question. This will give a clear picture in police ranks and the public that the service does not tolerate unethical behaviour among police officers.

Police integrity is perhaps the most essential question that arises in every police organization. Numerous bodies, structures and institutions both internal and external constantly monitor the situation with integrity and dedication of police officers. Internal control measures and undertakes corrective activities in policing. External control, in turn, guarantees that the police are on the right track and monitor the challenges of modern society and the social situation in the country. It is essential that police personnel be quickly informed about the values of the organisation and adheres to them. Therefore, ethics should be included in the curriculum of the initial training. Ethics should be the subject of a specific course, but ethical rules and norms should also be integrated in all the subjects taught. A recurring reminder of these principles makes the change of attitude easier. Throughout their careers, police members have no choice but to maintain their knowledge and/or to specialise. Each opportunity they have to do so (continued training, specialisation training) should be used to go over the initial ethical principles again.¹¹

As Stojanovski mentions, the education of the police nowadays in Europe is a process which is constantly analyzed and re-examined. Very often the analyses working on this issue are comprised of conclusions showing the dissatisfaction of the existing concepts, as well as of the unsaid recommendations how to go further. The changes are conditioned by the expectations of the citizens from the police. They expect security.¹²

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¹¹ DCAF Toolkit on Police Integrity, p. 74

¹² Stojanovski, 2006, p. 17

THE ROLE OF THE POLICE FORCE IN RELATION WITH HUMAN RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

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Abstract: The authors of this paper deals with the status of police in the state mechanism of a democratic state, focusing on policing of the Police Force. The role of the police (as one of the law protection bodies) in the human rights protection system is irreplaceable. The paper focuses on a definition of the status of police in the state mechanism, emphasizing the status and functioning of the Police Force in the Slovak Republic. Its activity is strictly defined within the meaning of the basic law, and so it may operate only on the basis of the Constitution and within its limits, in the manner prescribed by law. For that purpose the authors mainly based on the Police Force Act, which governs powers and authorizations of officers of the Police Force, but these are also regulated by other national and European legal documents. The authors also bring the basic definitions of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the Constitution and highlight the role of the police in their protection in the context of a particular case. The authors intend to clarify how police operates in a field of protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and also to define the current problems in this field. A part of the paper is the presentation of partial findings of current scientific research project named „*Protection of human rights in the police activity.*“

Keywords: Police Force, human rights and freedoms, police authorizations, the Constitution, European Convention on Human Rights

STATUS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE POLICE FORCE IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

One of the priority tasks of a democratic state is to guarantee the fundamental rights and freedoms. The state also has to secure their implementation and protect them from the violations especially in cases of violations performed by its own bodies. For this purpose, states develop functioning mechanisms involving state bodies and institutions. These so called „law protection bodies“ have an important place in these mechanisms. The term „law protection body“ implicates the nature of the contents of activities related to the protection of rights. J. Svák states, that the law protection bodies are the counterbalancing component of state authority and their main task is to prevent state and political authorities from abusing their power. On the other hand all subjects of law can turn to coercive power of the state, so they can assert their rights and legally protected interests. J. Svák also points to the division of these bodies by the means they are using – bodies of the law protection inspection (Office

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of the Prosecutor, the Ombudsman, the Police Force), decision-making bodies (mostly the courts), enforcement authorities (the Court Guards and Prison Wardens Corps), bodies of legal assistance and legal services (advocacy)². The responsibility of the law inspection bodies is mainly to check whether there is a violation of rights or not. By using another division, law protection bodies can be divided into two groups. One that affects the addressees of the legal rules with preventive means, and the other one is operating with repressive means, in order to ensure voluntary or forced compliance of the law. One of those bodies is the Police Force. It is an executive body of the state authority. Compared to the other public bodies, it has its own specific role in the field of fundamental rights and freedoms. The Police Force is one of the so called „specific components“ of the state mechanism. They include specific organizations and law enforcement bodies like Armed Forces, Police Force and the other police corps, penitentiary establishments and other organizations including private security services.³

The cornerstones of police activities are maintaining the public order, safety and protection of persons and their property. Police activities affect all spheres of the state governance and they are connected with the beginnings of state organization of human society. The organization of the police system is different in each country. It depends on the system of government, unitary or federative organization of the state, the level of autonomy of the local government and also the specific traits of the political regime. Police Force is divided into police services according to the tasks they are responsible for, like public order police, criminal police, political police . . . In Slovakia, the main law enforcement agency operating in a field of public order and security is the Police Force of the Slovak Republic (Policajný zbor Slovenskej republiky). Its status and tasks are regulated by Act no. 171/1993 Z.z. on the Police Force of the Slovak Republic as amended (hereinafter “Police Act”). The Police Force includes services of criminal police, financial police, public order police, traffic police, railway police, border and alien police, object protection service, special forces, protection of designated persons service and police inspection service. There is also the Institute of Forensic Science which is a part of the Police Force and it is responsible for professional and expert reports, under special provisions. The police services are operating within the police departments, which are established and cancelled by the Minister of the Interior and led by the President of the Police Force.

The creation process of the Police Force was strongly affected by the events of November 1989, which brought democratic principles to Slovak legal order. These principals led to the creation of democratic and humane society in a prosperous and healthy country. The aforementioned societal changes also resulted in a fact that state authorities started to be more in connection with the protection of human rights and freedoms in their activities. The issue of respect for human rights by the Police Force itself is also very important in accordance with understanding policing as a democratic service for society. This service must be founded on a trust from citizens and carried out for them. The special status of the Police Force as a human rights protection body is determined by its responsibility for protection of public safety and rights of people and by coercive measures of the police officers. The conditions of realisation of the fundamental human rights and freedoms are determined by the applicable law in a two dimensions. The first is in a relation to legal authorities and the second in relation to other subjects of the fundamental human rights and freedoms. The government creates its own system of public authorities to protect the rule of law and the legal order. The key principals of their functioning are strictly defined in the Article 2, Paragraph 2 of the Constitution of the Slovak Republic (hereinafter “the Constitution”): *State bodies may act solely on the basis of the Constitution, within its scope and their actions shall be governed by procedures laid down by a law.*⁴ State bodies are not authorized to act, unless they are authorized by a law to do so.

2 SVÁK, J. A KOL. *Ústavné právo Slovenskej republiky*. Bratislava 2008, s.305.

3 KOČAN, Š., SELINGER, P. *Bezpečnostné služby v Slovenskej republike*. Bratislava 2013, s.13.

4 Ústava Slovenskej republiky č. 460/1992 Zb. v znení neskorších predpisov

State bodies may act only in a manner established by a law. This principle guarantees a legal certainty that people can predict the consequences of their own acts, the possibilities to assert their rights towards the state, and above all, the actions of state bodies and their meaning. As indicated above, police authorities have a special place among the state bodies in the field of human rights protection. The Police Force has the authority to interfere with the rights and freedoms of individuals. For that reason it is considered to be the main state body assigned to protect human rights. Not only the Police Force, but also police officers are representing the public authorities and their executive power.⁵ The Police Force has wide legal authorizations and possibilities to interfere with the fundamental rights and freedoms. Authorization to interfere with the fundamental rights and freedoms by the actions of the public authorities (in our instance the Police Force) is set out in the Constitution. Article 13, Paragraph 2 of the Constitution states that legal interference with of the fundamental rights and freedoms means their limitations that shall be regulated only by a law and under the conditions set in the Constitution. Legal limitations of the fundamental rights and freedoms have to be used equally in the same cases and the same conditions, while the essence and meaning of these legal limitations are also taken into account. These limitations can be used only for the legally set purpose. The legal responsibilities are mandatory for the Police Force and for all the police officers. By performing their duties, police officers are taking part in fulfilling the roles of society and state. Police tasks are defined in Section 2 of Police Act. Under this provision the Police Force performs the following tasks:

- a) participating in protection of the fundamental rights and freedoms, particularly the protection of life, health, personal liberty, security of persons and protection of property,
- b) revealing crimes and their offenders,
- c) participating in detecting tax evasions, illegal financial operations, laundering of the proceeds of crime and financing the terrorism,
- d) conducting investigation and summary investigation of criminal offences,
- e) conducting the fight against terrorism and organized crime,
- f) ensuring the personal security of the President of the Slovak Republic, President of the National Council of the Slovak Republic, the Slovak Prime Minister, President of the Constitutional Court of the Slovak Republic, the Minister of Interior of the Slovak Republic and other persons designated by law or government,
- g) ensuring the protection of the diplomatic missions and other objects specified by law or government, and participating in the physical protection of nuclear facilities,
- h) ensuring the control of the Slovak border,
- i) participating in securing the public order and taking measures to its restoration in case it was violated,
- j) overseeing the safety and flow of traffic and assisting in its regulation,
- k) detecting minor offences and their perpetrators and prosecuting minor offences in specific cases established by law,
- l) searching for a missing individuals and objects,
- m) providing protection and assistance to compromised witness,
- n) performing the forensic and expert activity,
- o) participating in providing the security of a civil aviation,

⁵ KORGO, D. *Policajt ako garant ochrany práv a jeho postavenie v sústave verejných činiteľov*. In: *Polícia ako ochranca práv jednotlivca*. Zborník z medzinárodnej vedeckej konferencie konanej v dňoch 1. a 2. októbra 2012 na Akadémii Policajného zboru v Bratislave.

- p) notifying the municipality about cases of alcohol and drug abuse by a minors and the underage children,
- q) overseeing the safety and fluency of the rail transport in the railroads circuit,
- r) assisting in identification and investigation of the causes of endangering the safety and fluency of the railway transport in the circuit railroads,
- s) participating in securing the safety of rail transport of nuclear materials, special materials and equipment.

Besides tasks defined by the Police Act, there are more tasks and responsibilities of the Police Force, which are defined in other acts like Act on Residence of Aliens, the Act on Offences and the Code of Criminal Procedure.

OBSERVANCE OF FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS IN THE ACTIVITIES OF THE POLICE FORCE

Democratic society with rule of law gives an irreplaceable role in human rights protection to the law protection bodies, including the police. The Police Force is following the Constitution, constitutional laws, laws and other generally binding regulations, as well as international treaties to which the Slovak Republic is bound. It is an armed security corps performing its tasks in the field of public order and security, fight against crime and other tasks under the legislation. Its activities are aimed to protection of law using primarily the preventive means of detecting the law violations and identifying the offenders⁶.

The actual activities of the Police Force in protection of human rights can be understood in three dimensions. The first dimension represents the protection of human rights provided by the Police Force as declared in Section 2 of the Police Act. It means that police activities must lead to a protection of society and individuals from violent, harmful or another illegal action of the other subjects defined by a law. The second dimension is observance and respect for human rights in a police work of the police officers themselves. Finally, the third dimension is represented by the work of a superior officers and officials who must prevent committing the human rights violations by their subordinates and prosecute the perpetrators. Police officers are protectors and guarantees of the human rights and freedoms. Policing must be carried out in a way that a person exposed to a service intervention, doesn't suffer any harm on his or her honor, dignity and seriousness. At the same time police officers must act in a manner that doesn't jeopardize the honor, dignity and seriousness of the Police Force. The contact between the police and a citizen does not occur only in cases when the individual is in need of protection of his rights. It also occurs in the situations when the citizen becomes the object of policing. Sometimes it happens without his fault or even without his awareness⁷. The problems related to interfering with the human rights in policing have a significant impact on enforcement of the core mission of the Police Force. The police may act as a human rights protection body on the one hand and the potential violator on the other. While exercising its powers, police must act strictly in accordance with the law⁸.

6 CHOVANEC, J., MAMOJKA, M., PALÚŠ, I., ZACHOVÁ, A.: *Základné ľudské a občianske práva a slobody v Slovenskej republike*. Procom, 2013, s. 172.

7 CULBA, M., FELCAN, M. *K základným podmienkam prípustného zásahu do základných práv a slobôd policajným konaním v Slovenskej republike (z pohľadu zákona o Policajnom zbore)*. In: *Bezpečnostní teorie a praxe*. Periodikum Policejní akademie České republiky, č. 2/2011, s. 11.

8 SVÁK, J., KUPCOVÁ, Z., FICO, R. *Polícia a ľudské práva (Európsky koncept)*. Akadémia Policajného zboru v Bratislave, 2000, s. 19.

The Constitution guarantees the fundamental rights and freedoms. All of fundamental rights and freedoms are guaranteed only in certain types of social relations and only in a certain situations. Meeting all the conditions of application of human rights protection causes the guarantees of selected human rights to be unlimited and not be able to be objected. The remaining human rights are guaranteed only to a certain extent⁹. The fundamental human rights and freedoms which cannot be restricted under any circumstances are set out in the Constitution: *passive legal capacity* (Article 14), *right to life* (Article 15), *right to protection from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment* (Article 16, Paragraph 2), *right to protection from forced labour or forced services* (Article 18, Paragraph 1), *right to maintain and protect a person's dignity, honour, reputation and good name* (Article 19, Paragraph 1), *right of free entry on the territory of the Slovak Republic* (Article 23, Paragraph 4). On the other hand, the Constitution permits the restrictions of the fundamental rights and freedoms by a lawful means: *right to personal liberty* (Article 17), *right to privacy* (Article 16, Paragraph 1; Article 19 Paragraphs 2 and ; Article 21, Paragraph 1; Article 22, Paragraph 1), *right to own property* (Article 20), *freedom of movement and residence* (Article 23, Paragraphs 1,2,3 and 5), *freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief* (Article 24), *right to perform alternative civilian service* (Article 25, Paragraph 2) and *political rights* (Section 3 of Title 2).

One of the main attributes of the rule of law is the obligation of the state to protect human rights from any violations. Police officers may interfere with human rights by a lawful means as a part of their duties. There are several authorizations that allow them to interfere with human rights and freedoms under the Police Act and other generally binding regulations. Under the Police Act, an interference with fundamental rights is called "a service intervention". Section 9, Paragraph 3 of Police Act states: "Service intervention is an activity of a police officer prescribed by law and carried out within its limits, and which is directly interfering with the human rights and freedoms of a person." That means that only acceptable interferences with human rights in policing are regulated by a law, connected to the police responsibilities and done within legal limits. General sources of law governing the role of the police are representing the legal basis of policing. These sources are stated in Section 1, paragraph 3 of the Police Act: "Police force follows the Constitution, constitutional laws, law and other generally binding legal regulations and international treaties to which the Slovak Republic is bound, in its duties." The legality of policing itself is not complied only by a proper usage of legal authorizations. There are several other legal requirements which have to be met for the purpose of legality of policing. Specifically it is an obligation of the demonstration of affiliation to the Police Force, the mandatory informing of a person and the method of performing the intervention¹⁰

As already mentioned, The Police Force has a variety of authorizations that are set out in the Police Act, acts of criminal law, the other laws and generally binding legal regulations and international conventions. The authorizations of a police officer are regulated under Title 3 Part 2 of the Police Act¹¹. The interference with the right to personal liberty is possible in different dimensions. By the provisions of the Police Act, police officer has an authorization to apprehend or bring the person in, for the purpose of the identification of an individual or for the purpose of an explanation. Criminal law dimension of interference with a personal liberty is regulated by the Code of Criminal Procedures through the institutes of bringing in, police custody, detention, arrest and a pre-trial custody. The constitutional dimension of

9 CHOVANEC, J., MAMOJKA, M., PALÚŠ, I., ZACHOVÁ, A.: *Základné ľudské a občianske práva a slobody v Slovenskej republike*. Procom, 2013, s. 59.

10 CUEBA, M., FELCAN, M. *K základným podmienkam prípustného zásahu do základných práv a slobôd policajným konaním v Slovenskej republike (z pohľadu zákona o Policajnom zbore)*. In: *Bezpečnostní teorie a praxe*. Periodikum Policejní akademie České republiky, č. 2/2011, s. 17.

11 See more in Sections 17-33 of the Police Act.

interference with human rights is expressed in the Article 13 of the Constitution which allows Police Force to perform such actions, only if the interference is legitimate and beneficial for the protection of human rights of the other persons, namely protection of life, health, personal liberty and safety of persons and protection of property¹².

The right to life is granted to everyone by the Constitution. It also states, that no infringement of rights shall occur if a person has been deprived of life in connection with an action not defined as unlawful under the law. Section 61 of the Police Act exhaustively states the grounds on which the police officer is authorized to use a weapon and also the conditions of the police weapon use. The police officer is authorized to use a weapon under the Police Act in these cases:

- a) In self-defence and extreme distress,
- b) if a dangerous offender subjected to service intervention doesn't surrender after the police order or doesn't want to leave the hideout,
- c) if there is no other way to overcome resistance opposing the service intervention,
- d) to prevent the escape of a dangerous offender which cannot be apprehended by any other means,
- e) if a person is threatening her or his own security or the security of others and does not obey the order of the police officer leading to maintain security, even after police officer use the shout warning and a warning shot,
- f) if there is not any other way to stop a vehicle whose driver is driving dangerously and seriously threatens the lives and health of people and the repeated calls or signals were ineffective,
- g) to head off a dangerous attack, that threatens secured building or area with forbidden access after unsuccessful calls to refrain from any attacks,
- h) to pacify an animal that threatens life and health of persons,
- i) in the immediate vicinity of state border, to stop a vehicle whose driver did not stop after repeated calls or signals of a police officer who ordered him to do so.

As already mentioned the Police Act authorizes the police officers to lawfully interfere with the right to personal liberty. The police officer has an authorization to apprehend and put a person in police custody or bring the person in, for the purpose of the identification to provide an explanation. The limits of these authorizations are set differently¹³. An individual can be taken into police custody in a several cases:

- a) it is a person who directly threatens her or his own life or health or life and health of the others or someone's property,
- b) a person is caught in the act of committing a minor offense and there is justified concern that this person will resume this action or in case custody is necessary for proper finding or investigation of the case,
- c) a person tried to escape after being brought in to a police station and there is justified concern of further attempts to escape,

12 RAPČAN, J. *Policiajné konanie verzus ochrana ľudských práv a slobôd občanov v demokratickej spoločnosti*. In: *Polícia ako ochranca práv jednotlivca*. Zborník z medzinárodnej vedeckej konferencie konanej v dňoch 1. a 2. Októbra 2012 na Akadémii Policiajného zboru v Bratislave, 2012, s. 50.

13 E.g. Section 18, Paragraph 7 of the Police act states that police officer can bring a person in to a police station only for 24 hour in purpose of the identification; Section 19 Paragraph 4 states that police officer is obligated to deliver a person to the law enforcement bodies or another competent authority after a prescribed procedures were made and there are the grounds for his or her delivery and if it is a person located on a crime scene immediately after the terrorist attack or a person located on the site that is imminently threatened by a terrorist attack. A personal liberty of this person can be legally restrained up to 48 hours from a moment of apprehension.

- d) a person is insulting a police officer or another person in the premises of police station or is acting aggressively,
- e) a person is the subject of the international police search,
- f) a person was located on a crime scene immediately after a criminal offense and it is necessary to determine his or her relationship to the criminal offense,
- g) to identify a person located on the site that is imminently threatened by a terrorist attack or right after this attack,
- h) to identify a person who was on the site of a service intervention performed by riot unit,
- i) a person directly threatens a safety and fluency of rail transport.

If a police officer performs any kind of service intervention which interferes with human rights, he is obligated to instruct a person about her or his rights stated in the Police Act or other generally binding regulation. Besides that, police officers are obligated to follow the Code of Police Ethics.

The Constitution guarantees right to protection against unauthorized collection, publication or other misuse personal data of an individual. The Police Force is authorized to collect, process, and use the personal data and information, only for a service purpose.¹⁴

The other constitutional right is the right to the inviolability of residence. The Police Force has the authorization to prohibit the perpetrator of a domestic violence from entering the residence and the authorization to open a flat or a house.¹⁵

One of the most important human rights is the right to personal liberty. Besides the national legislation the Police force is also obligated to follow *the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms* (hereinafter “the Convention”). Article 5, Paragraph 1 of the Convention states that everyone has the right to liberty and security of person. No one shall be deprived of his liberty save cases explicitly stated in this article and in accordance with a procedure prescribed by law. The Convention states these six options:

- a) The lawful detention of a person after conviction by a competent court.
- b) The lawful arrest or detention of a person for non-compliance with the lawful order of a court or in order to secure the fulfilment of any obligation prescribed by law.
- c) The lawful arrest or detention of a person effected for the purpose of bringing him before the competent legal authority on reasonable suspicion of having committed an offence or when it is reasonably considered necessary to prevent his committing an offence or fleeing after having done so.
- d) The detention of a minor by lawful order for the purpose of educational supervision or his lawful detention for the purpose of bringing him before the competent legal authority.
- e) The lawful detention of persons for the prevention of the spreading of infectious diseases, of persons of unsound mind, alcoholics or drug addicts or vagrants.
- f) The lawful arrest or detention of a person to prevent his effecting an unauthorized entry into the country or of a person against whom action is being taken with a view to deportation or extradition.

The purpose of Article 5 is the protection of the right to personal liberty of an individual. The conditions of legality of interference with right to personal liberty are examined by *the European Court of Human Rights* (hereinafter “ECHR”). ECHR examines the following aspects:

¹⁴ Section 20, Paragraph 2; Section 20a; Section 18, Paragraphs 3 and 4; Section 19 Paragraphs 1 and 2 of the Police Act.

¹⁵ Section 27a, a § 29 of the Police Act.

a) The interference with right to personal liberty was carried out by meeting one of the conditions stated in Article 5, Paragraph 1 of the Convention.

b) The interference was lawful according to national law of the Contracting Party of the Convention

c) The interference was done under procedural guarantees stated in Article 5, Paragraphs 2-5 of the Convention.¹⁶

The Conventions clearly determines the procedural conditions mandatory for police officers interfering with a personal liberty. Everyone who is arrested shall be informed promptly, in a language which he understands, of the reasons for his arrest and of any charge against him. Everyone arrested or detained in accordance with the provisions of Paragraph 1.c of Article 5 shall be brought promptly before a judge. A person deprived of his or her liberty by arrest or detention shall be entitled to take proceedings by which the lawfulness of his detention shall be decided speedily by a court and his release ordered if the detention is not lawful. Everyone who has been the victim of arrest or detention in contravention of the provisions of Article 5 shall have right to compensation. A provision of Article 5 Paragraph 1 represents the positive definition of conditions of interference with the liberty. There is also the negative definition of personal liberty interference in Article 1 of Protocol no. 4 to the Convention that states: “No one shall be deprived of his liberty merely on the ground of inability to fulfil a contractual obligation.”

The facts above show that mostly the police authorities are the ones who interfere with right to personal liberty. It is necessary for the police officers to know the aforementioned conditions provided by the Convention. One of the few cases when the ECHR agreed with the procedure of the police was the case of bringing in a person for purpose of his identification known as *Novotka v. the Slovak Republic*.¹⁷ The applicant submits that on 8 August 1995 he waited for a visitor in front of a house in which his flat was situated. Two police officers approached him and asked for his *citizen's card*. The applicant replied that the term *citizen's card* used by the police was incorrect and that in accordance the Police Act they should have asked him for a *document permitting his identification*. The policemen informed the applicant that he will be brought in to a police station and called a police car. The applicant was transported to a police station where he was searched and placed in a cell. He was released approximately one hour later after his identity had been checked.

A police report established on the same day indicates that the police on duty spotted a man who moved among parked cars and then crossed the street. As they considered his behaviour to be suspicious, the police decided to check his identity. The man stated that he was standing in front of the house in which he lived and that he had no document on him permitting to show his identity. Then he told the police officers that they had no authorization to control him and that he would file a complaint about them. The police informed the man that he would be brought to a police station in accordance with the Police Act. Upon the arrival at the police station the man was searched for security reasons. According to the report, the police officers checked the applicant's identity in the relevant register and released him in about one hour after bringing him in.

The ECHR did not accept the complaint that police officers overcome their authorizations. Under Section 2, Paragraphs 1 and 3, the duties of the police comprise, *inter alia*, the protection of the security of persons and of property and identification of criminal offences and of minor offences as well as of their perpetrators. In aforementioned case, the ECHR found that

16 STRÁŽNICKÁ, V. A KOL. *Medzinárodná a európska ochrana ľudských práv*. Bratislava, Eurokódex. 2013. s. 326.

17 Decision as to the admissibility of Application no 47244/99 by Tibor Novotka against Slovakia, 4 November 2003

the disputed detention pursued the legitimate aim of ensuring compliance with obligations prescribed by law within the meaning of Article 5 Paragraph 1.b of the Convention, and that there is no indication that it was arbitrary or otherwise contrary to Article 5, Paragraph 1 of the Convention. The ECHR declared that Mr. Novotka's complaint was ill-founded and it was rejected under the provisions of Article 35, Paragraphs 3 and 4 of the Convention¹⁸

The issue of human rights is closely linked to ethics of a police work. As already mentioned the police officers shall observe the Code of Police Ethics especially in time on their duty but also off duty. Since the police work often involves the interference with the human rights, we believe that observance of this code is very important for improvement of the public opinion on police work. The Code of Police Ethics provides the basic rules regulating the police work and the profession itself. We believe that respect of the rules is also manifested in the form of integrity of a police officer provided in Article 1 of the Code of Police Ethics that states: *"Police officer on duty or off duty shall act in accordance with the Constitution, generally binding regulations and internal regulations of the Ministry of Interior of the Slovak Republic and the European Code of Police Ethics and shall respect the human rights and freedoms."*

CONCLUSION

The role of a state in providing and the protection of human rights have evolved and it continues to evolve. This role comes from the democratic principles and the rule of law, representing the system that includes the police. The police authorities have special position between the public authorities and the conduct of its activities must strictly follow the provisions of the law. In the Slovak Republic the police authorities are represented by the Police Force and its status and tasks are regulated by the Police Act. Police profession and its pursuit are demanding and require both physical and mental endurance. A part of this endurance is the capability of the police officer to perform his duty lawfully in all circumstances especially when this duty interferes with the human rights. The police officer gets into the position of human rights protector, but (at the same time) in a position where it is necessary to restrict or interfere with the individual's fundamental rights.

The intention of authors was to bring the basic information on a role of the Police Force in Slovakia and on its responsibilities in the field of human rights protection. It can be stated that in the public or in the individual perspectives some cases of interferences are often considered to be sensitive issues, what was also declared by the example above. However it is appropriate for the state to guarantee the protection of its citizens, to react on what is happening in society and also on threats. This may be done only if the state ensures the protection by a multiple state authorities and by the cooperation on the national, the European and the International level.

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¹⁸ SVÁK, J. *Ochrana ľudských práv (z pohľadu judikatúry a doktríny štrasburských orgánov ochrany práva)*. Bratislava, Euro Kódex, 2006, s. 273-4.

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POLICE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE: “CLOUD” OVER GOOD ETHICAL DECISION MAKING?

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Abstract: The paper discusses how organisational culture in the police affects the working environment with a view to the quality of ethical decision making. A series of misconduct and corruption cases being exposed by the media worldwide—both in developed and transitional countries—show that decision-making in the day-to-day policing can be seriously distracted by professional socialisation dominated by behavioural patterns that marginalise commitment to the legitimate goals of the law enforcement profession. Making ethical decisions requires sensitivity to the ethical implications of problems and situations, and it demands a multistep process: perceiving ethical problem, gathering all of the relevant facts, choosing the best option, taking action, and reflecting on the outcome. The analysis focuses on how adopted cultural patterns shape the decision-making process and eventually lead to breaching of ethical standards on daily basis—instead of establishing a practice of good moral reasoning. The author examines the ways in which police culture affect police officers’ capability for autonomous judgment and action. The author concludes that improving the ability of good ethical decision making has to be set as a reform priority, if the police integrity system in Serbia is to be placed properly.

Key words: police organisational culture, professional socialisation, ethical decision-making, public administration ethics.

WHAT WENT WRONG WITH POLICE PERFORMANCE?

The unethical performance of the police is becoming a hot topic both in the media and among scholars and practitioners worldwide. There are dozens of U.S.-based civil action groups fighting unlawful behaviour of the policemen by exposing the cases of police corruption and brutality across the nation via videos and eye-witnesses accounts.² Citizens are quite determined to stop police misconduct that causes serious violations of human rights: “We are as mad as hell, and we are not going to take this anymore!”, the webpage of the *Americans Against Corrupt Cops* claims; the Facebook page of civil group *Expose Police Brutality* displays more frustration: “Every day the problem is rising. This will not stop until we decide enough is enough.” These genuine grass-roots statements made by fed-up citizens are way from being the outcome of popular culture’s negative stereotypes of how a typical policeman looks and what he does. The systemic misconduct culminated in 2014, when the death of Michael Brown inflamed local community in Ferguson (Missouri, USA) with massive discontent erupted in

¹ E-mail: srdjan@diplomacy.bg.ac.rs

² See websites *Cop Watch*, *Cop Block*, *Recording Police*, *Filming Cops*, *International Day Against Police Brutality*, *People United Against Police Brutality*, *Americans Against Corrupt Cops* (AACC), just to mention some of them.

a months-long civil unrest.³ Brown—unarmed 18-year-old—was killed by police patrol only because he had been mistakenly suspected of robbing a store on the basis of the description of a fugitive. This was just another in a series of cases revealing a disturbing pattern of white police personnel's use of excessive force in the beatings or deaths of African Americans. Detailed investigations of the U.S. Department of Justice uncovered the racially biased targeting of violators motivated by the police and the magistrates' court to meet the demand of local government for contributing to municipal budget by issuing more fines.⁴ Since the number of printed fines and misdemeanour charges became the major benchmark for evaluating policemen performance, the police officers began to perceive the low-income citizens—mainly the African Americans—as plausible violators and a source of local revenues. The misrepresented perception induced unsound moral decision-making, because policemen were “tuned” to the aggressive spotting and catching offenders at any price; in the end, the illegitimate and illegal practice of malicious and intrusive use of the stop and search powers flourished.

Besides persistent racial profiling in the police, bad human resource management generally deepens public distrust of this vital public service and corrodes quality of providing security to the citizens. Stephen Mitchell, former officer of the police department of Northumbria (England), was sentenced to life in prison in 2010 for raping and sexually abusing 16 women he arrested during 8-year period he served as a constable.⁵ Mitchell was offering the victims help while in custody, then demanding sexual favours afterwards. This case of unlawful behaviour, serious disciplinary violations and breach of ethical standards evidences how the organisational culture insensitive to holding police officers accountable and responsible through effective disciplinary procedures may eventually, and often invisibly, lead to hiring a sadistic personality. The trial revealed several facts very uncomfortable for the managers of Northumbrian police department. It turned out that there had been already two disciplinary actions against Mitchell, but despite the gravity of the infringements he had not been dismissed from service. On the first occasion, he had misused computer to keep an eye on his ex-wife; the second time, he was called to account for having a sexual relationship with a woman he had met while on duty. Moreover, it was discovered during the trial that Mitchell had been accused of a serious sexual offense at his previous job—in the British Army. A series of seemingly small subsequent flaws in human resource management paved way for a unemphatic man with excessive sexual drive to commit crimes in uniform and embarrass the entire organisational unit and profession.⁶

In transitional countries like Serbia, a series of misconduct and corruption cases—including a wide range of unacceptable behaviour from impoliteness and street-level corruption to pursuing criminal activities—show the limited success of the ongoing institutional reform of the police force as a part of thorough democratic (re)construction of security sector. The inherited authoritarian professional practice and culture of secrecy aimed at defending the ruling com-

3 The protests have become increasingly violent in March 2015, following a decision by a local jury to dismiss the indictment against the police officer. Jon Swaine and Oliver Laughland, “Darren Wilson will not face federal charges in Michael Brown shooting”, *The Guardian*, 4 March 2015, www.theguardian.com/us-news/2015/mar/04/darren-wilson-federal-criminal-charges-michael-brown-shooting, 17/01/2016.

4 “Investigation of the Ferguson Police Department”, Civil Rights Division, United States Department of Justice, 4 March 2015, www.justice.gov/sites/default/files/opa/press-releases/attachments/2015/03/04/ferguson_police_department_report.pdf, 18/01/2016.

5 “Northumbria police officer guilty of sex attacks”, *BBC News*, 24 November 2010, www.bbc.com/news/uk-england-11830585, 13/01/2016.

6 Numerous disciplinary investigations showed that disciplinary offenses linked to sexual exploitation are not uncommon in the UK police. See more in “Corruption in the police service in England and Wales: Second report – a report based on the IPCC’s experience from 2008 to 2011”, Independent Police Complaints Commission, May 2012, https://www.ipcc.gov.uk/sites/default/files/Documents/research_stats/Corruption_in_the_Police_Service_in_England_Wales_Report_2_May_2012.pdf, 10/01/2016.

munist elite from the alleged “enemies of the Revolution” is being dismantled at a very slow pace. Despite a decade long police reform, the media still regularly highlights police misconduct and involvement in corruption scandals. Yet, the reform measures did not pay sufficient attention to strengthening the police integrity until recently. Some of the recommendations in the first comprehensive proposal for the police reform in Serbia (2004)—conceived by the OSCE Mission in Belgrade—are still valid and remain to be implemented.⁷ For instance, the implementation of the Code of Police Ethics (2006) lacks a systemic approach that would include operational and strategic processes of the police organisation.⁸

Ad hoc ethics trainings can hardly be considered as a systemic response to 15 years of criticism about the limited results of the police modernisation, and the problems are also emphasized in the annual reports of the European Commission on Serbia’s progress towards the EU membership. According to the latest 2015 Progress Report, the police lack an independent and transparent oversight and clear criteria for the recruitment, promotion, career path and evaluation of staff; in addition, the functions and independence of the internal control should be reinforced.⁹ The recently adopted Law on Police is to eliminate some structural flaws by embedding the integrity into the standards of police performance (Article 33).¹⁰ The chapter VIII which regulates the human resource management lists enhancing the professional integrity as one of the major activities (Article 130). The law might be a leap forward in rebuilding trust with the sceptical Serbian citizens. The recent public opinion polls display relatively low level of public trust in the police—only one-third of interviewees at average had trust in period 2011–2014, with a mild decrease in 2013 and 2014 compared to 2012 and 2013.¹¹ Moreover, citizens depict the typical policeman as “poor communicator, brash, unreasonable, arrogant, strict etc.”¹² The negative image of the Serbian police officer implies that public trust is the hallmark of effective policing. Policemen are afforded formidable authority to carry out their duties, so they must adhere to the sound ethical decision making as a cornerstone of their credibility within the communities they serve. Easier said than done, let’s see what the reasons are.

POLICE CULTURE: “THE WAY WE DO THINGS HERE”

Explanation of the performance of police managers and officers cannot be reduced to legal description of their role in the administrative system. In reality, state actors do not necessarily behave in a way they are supposed to do: they don’t do what the system describes they should do. Decision making about actions is to some extent biased by various unwritten/unspoken rules of interpersonal communication and complex behavioural patterns. This “hidden dimension” of group relations and values—faced by each trainee when he starts to work in public administration—is conceptualised in the notion of organisational culture. Actions in

⁷ Mark Downes et al., *Police Reform in Serbia: Towards the Creation of a Modern and Accountable Police Service*, OSCE Mission in Serbia and Montenegro, Belgrade, 2004, pp. 31–32.

⁸ Jan Litavski, “Professional Culture, Ethics, Errors and Police Accountability”, Centre for Euro-Atlantic Studies, Belgrade, p. 64.

⁹ “Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions — Serbia 2015 Report”, SWD(2015) 211 final, 10 November 2015, European Commission, http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/pdf/key_documents/2015/20151110_report_serbia.pdf, p. 15.

¹⁰ The text of the law was accessible only in Serbian at the time of the conclusion of this paper: „Zakon o policiji”, Parliament of the Republic of Serbia, www.parlament.gov.rs/upload/archive/files/lat/pdf/zakoni/2016/3712-15%20lat.pdf, 22/02/2016, p. 10.

¹¹ See “Attitude of Citizens toward the Work of the Police”, TNS Medium Gallup, 2014, www.mup.gov.rs/cms_eng/home.nsf/Attitude_of_Citizens_toward_the_Work_of_the_Police_.pdf, 10/01/2016.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 20.

private and public life are equally shaped by established written norms sanctioned by state institutions as well as by the invisible factors, among which culture is the most powerful one. The strength of culture as a formative principle lies in a totality of intertwined beliefs, values and norms shared by members of a particular society, which in a comprehensive and all-pervasive manner touch diverse fields of human action—from survival and economic prosperity to formation of aesthetic criteria.¹³

Theorists conceptualise organisational culture as a set of prevailing beliefs, attitudes, expectations and orientations that members of an organisation share about the roles they have in it; that set shapes how they think, make decisions and act on a daily basis in their work.¹⁴ In other words, organisational culture is a set of common ground rules that constitute the cognitive and affective dimensions of membership in an organisation as well as the way in which those rules are formulated, expressed and followed.¹⁵ Organisational culture is like the air: it cannot be touched, felt or seen, but it “hovers” around us like a sort of a ghost made out of symbols and meanings. The behaviour in the public sector organisations—such as the police—is grounded on the patterns of interpersonal interaction embedded in national administrative tradition, which is handed down from generation to generation and succinctly articulated in colloquial motto “it’s the way we do things here.” It is an informal interpretation of administrative regulations and procedures consisted of beliefs, assumptions and unwritten practices considered “eternal truths”, and not questioned even when public organisation is externally challenged.¹⁶

The police foster and develop the group culture incorporated into a broader culture of both a political system/community and a society.¹⁷ Like any public organisation, the police have distinctive culture that affects decision making of policemen through empirically evidenced prevalence of group thinking and necessity of compliance with group norms and pleasing co-workers.¹⁸ Police culture does not always consistently reflect the official documents and policy; it is rather formulated through the actual behaviour condoned by the management.¹⁹ The day-to-day policing can be heavily distracted due to professional socialisation that marginalises the legitimate goals of the law enforcement profession. Since police culture has been seen as the object of political reform in transitional democracies so as much as a barrier to such reforms, enhancing the ability of good ethical decision making has to be set as a reform priority, if the integrity system in Serbian police is to be placed properly. Making

13 Jerri Killian, “The Missing Link in Administrative Reform: Considering Culture”, in: Jerri Killian and Niklas Eklund (eds), *Handbook of Administrative Reform: An International Perspective*, CRC Press, Boca Raton (FL), 2008, p. 45.

14 Compare definitions in: Dean Geuras and Charles Garofalo, *Practical Ethics in Public Administration*, Management Concepts, Vienna (VA), 2005, p. 98; Eckhard Schröter, “The politicization of the German civil service: A three-dimensional portrait of the ministerial bureaucracy”, in: B. Guy Peters and Jon Pierre (eds), *Politicization of the Civil Service in Comparative Perspective: A Quest for Control*, Routledge, London and New York, 2004, pp. 66–67; Mats Alvesson, *Understanding Organizational Culture*, SAGE Publications, London, 2002, pp. 3–6; J. Steven Ott and Abdul M. Baksh, “Understanding Organizational Climate and Culture”, in: Stephen E. Condrey (ed.), *Handbook of Human Resource Management in Government*, John Wiley & Sons, San Francisco, 2005, pp. 299–301.

15 Mats Alvesson, *Understanding Organizational Culture*, op. cit., p. 3.

16 More in: J. Steven Ott, “Understanding Organizational Culture”, in: Jay M. Shafritz and Albert C. Hyde (eds), *Classics of Public Administration*, Thomson Wadsworth, Boston, 2007, pp. 479–484.

17 On nature of police culture in: Michael Rowe, *Introduction to Policing*, Sage, London, 2014, pp. 125–135. 18 See survey in: Murat Sever, “Effects of Organizational Culture on Police Decision Making”, *Texas Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics Program Bulletin*, Vol. 15, No. 1, January–February 2008, pp. 1–12.

19 See more on the correlation between organisational culture and managerial values in the police in: Joseph Wallace, James Hunt and Christopher Richards, “The relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values”, *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 12, No. 7, 1999, pp. 548–564.

ethical decisions requires sensitivity to the ethical implications of situations, and it demands a multistep process: perceiving ethical problem, gathering all of the relevant facts, choosing the best option, taking action, and reflecting on the outcome. I will examine how adopted cultural patterns shape the decision-making process and eventually lead to breaching of the ethical standards on a daily basis—instead of establishing a practice of good moral reasoning. I will also tackle how police culture can undermine an officer’s capability for autonomous judgment and action.

Each trainee quickly learns which mode of getting work done is acceptable for a police officer and which one is not. She or he will see soon what behavioural pattern for completing daily tasks should choose to receive peer-to-peer recognition and get job promotion, i.e. what kind of professional performance would bring her/him condemnation and contempt. Professional socialisation within the realm of an organisational culture affects quality of ethical decision making, with no negative side effects if the prevailing *esprit de corps* encourages sound moral reasoning. A former police officer with the St. Louis Police Department, Reddit Hudson, reveals that most of people join the police force with the intent of making their community a better place, but he notices as well that:

“15 percent of officers will do the right thing no matter what is happening. Fifteen percent of officers will abuse their authority at every opportunity. The remaining 70 percent could go either way depending upon who they are working with (...) [they] are highly susceptible to the culture in a given department.”²⁰

Problems occur when organisational culture imposes patterns of thinking and behaviour that tolerate poor performance and regular breaching of ethical standards. It is in the nature of bureaucratic pathology that moral dilemmas raised by daily tasks are either marginalised in reflection on the course of action or, rather, avoided to be recognised at all.²¹ In the long run, dealing with issues of policing as if they are not matters for ethical judgements creates a work environment that discourages compliance with ethical standards. Moreover, structural insensitivity to the ethical implications of particular situations in law enforcement distorts a multistep process of moral decision making.

“CLOUDY WEATHER” OVER SOUND ETHICAL DECISION MAKING

Ethical decision making process has several stages.²² At the beginning, as it is already mentioned above, the police officer’s moral awareness is critical. He ought to identify the ethical aspect of the issue at hand, particularly with respect to her/his professional duties, what is at stake, and who may be affected by the decision—who might be harmed or who might benefit. In the following stage, the officer has to gather all of the relevant facts, and make sure that all potential sources of information have been consulted. The focus of decision making in the third stage is on weighing options, by considering which course of action serves the public interest and respects the rights of all who have a stake in the decision; consequently, the officer determines the proper course of action in form of moral judgement. In the fourth stage,

²⁰ Reddit Hudson, “I m a black ex-cop, and this is the real truth about race and policing”, Vox, 28 May 2015, www.vox.com/2015/5/28/8661977/race-police-officer, 22/01/2016.

²¹ Dean Geuras and Charles Garofalo, *Practical Ethics in Public Administration*, op. cit., p. 102.

²² See detailed analysis of ethical decision making process in: Michael S. Josephson, *Making Ethical Decisions*, Josephson Institute of Ethics, Los Angeles (CA), 2002; Michael Martinez, *Public Administration Ethics for the 21st Century*, ABC Clio, Santa Barbara (CA), 2009, pp. 112–132; Carol W. Lewis and Stuart C. Gilman, *The Ethics Challenge in Public Service*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 2005, pp. 141–160.

after examining all of the potential actions, the officer takes action in accordance with moral judgement and deal with practical obstacles in order to act effectively. Since he never has all of the needed information and, yet, must act promptly, in the final stage of ethical decision making process the policeman reflects on the outcome of her/his action in terms of the achieved results and the intended and unintended consequences. Some of the central obstacles may be faced along each stage of the process, and the analysis that follows focuses only on the obstacles which occur as negative side effects of organisational culture in the police force.

In working environment where dominant organisational culture gradually develops morally insensitive professional mindset and behavioural patterns, police officers are likely to indicate moral blindness, distorted moral vision or the lack of moral response (moral disengagement). Moral disengagement is often motivated by the idea of ethical neutrality, which is a bureaucratic stance that denies moral dimensions to public policy decisions.²³ This dehumanising posture equals police performance to job on an assembly line in factory and reduces every policeman to a cog in the state machinery. Another negative effect of moral insensitivity on the proper instigation of deliberative process and sound moral judgment is insufficient attention rooted in the false perception of moral intensity level of some situation. Police officer will neglect the ethical aspect of a problem occurred in exercising discretionary powers if she/he perceives that it has small importance (i.e. low moral intensity). However, the plausible outcome is absence of the process of ethical decision making itself. For example, serious criticisms have been for years addressed the widespread practice of the Serbian police regarding inadequate responses to the cases of domestic violence and women trafficking. The male police officers acted in line with the pseudo-patriarchal stereotype of “innate” guilt of women, not only depriving the victims of the effective protection of their fundamental rights, but failing to recognise them as human beings intrinsically worth of ethical consideration.

When it comes to gathering of the important information that helps determining the likely impact of the particular course of action, the self-serving bias seems to be the biggest obstacle. The digital era has provided untold volumes of data at a policeman's fingertips, but the problem is how to select credible information. In performing patrol assignment, it is of vital importance to observe properly and collect relevant facts from reliable sources. Deciding which information is relevant might be hindered by a police officer's inclination to seek and remember only the information that fits her/his pre-existing views, and interpret it in a way that supports her/his own view. This distortion spills over into the next stage in which the officer considers which course of action serves the public interest best and fulfils police duties as well. Josephson identifies several common rationalisations people generally use to excuse the course of their actions: 1) if you have to do it, it's ethical to do; 2) if it's legal, then it's moral; 3) it's just part of the job; 4) it's all for a good cause; 5) it was done for someone else's sake; 6) it doesn't hurt anyone; 7) everyone's doing it; 8) it's ok if I don't benefit personally.²⁴ Messick and Bazerman discovered that common biases about the world, other people and us can also unconsciously influence decision-making process and result in unintentionally unethical conclusions.²⁵ For instance, people tend to miscalculate the negative consequences of their acts and the risk involved, create inaccurate judgments about causal perceptions and give disproportionately more weight to present consequences than anticipated future consequences. Through stereotyping we inaccurately believe that our values and beliefs are superior to those of a different group.

23 See more about moral neutrality in: J. Michael Martinez, *Public Administration Ethics for the 21st Century*, op. cit., pp. 58–60; Carol W. Lewis and Stuart C. Gilman, *The Ethics Challenge in Public Service*, op. cit., p. 111.

24 Michael S. Josephson, *Making Ethical Decisions*, op. cit., pp. 27–29.

25 See complete discussion in: David M. Messick and Max H. Bazerman, “Ethical Leadership and the Psychology of Decision Making”, *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 37, Issue 2, Winter 1996, pp. 9–22.

All of the numbered rationalisations can be also attributed to the police decision making. The problem is that they favour a pragmatist view on how one should deal with daily tasks. Unfortunately, pragmatism is by definition adverse to ethical considerations due to its particularistic nature expressed in assessing the value of acts in terms of the success and practical issues (usefulness, advantages or disadvantages, etc.). From the pragmatist perspective inherent to public organisations, a police officer is always right when she/he does what “gets the job done”, no matter of complex ethical aspects of the situation. Taken from the opposite perspective, which is one of public service ethics, it is not only important what is done, but how it is done—morally right or wrong.

WHY ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IS STILL WINNING ETHICS?

The degree of consistency between the goals of departmental policy and programmes and the performance of public organisation responsible for their implementation has to be regarded as litmus paper of organisational culture. When the gap between the policy and implementation is large, police officers pay attention to how managers interpret and enforce the regulations in practice, not to the original meaning of regulations and other policy documents.²⁶ The influence of senior police officials on behaviour of rank and files implies the importance of social learning in work environment for quality of ethical decision making. In 1970s, Albert Bandura developed the concept of self-efficacy as an individual’s personal belief in her/his capability to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect her/his life.²⁷ Bandura maintains that individuals are complex rational organisms that live networked through social and emotional relationships. Individual learns from experience by judging the outcomes of actions and thinks over the experiences of others in similar situations—how they should have reacted, how they could have reacted, and what their real reaction was.²⁸ The confidence in her/his self-efficacy gained on the past experience influences the choice of an individual in terms of expectations and course of future action, amount of effort that intends to invest in a specific action and a sense of satisfaction when the action is successfully completed.

Police officer may choose to be morally sensitive and make good ethical decisions in performing everyday tasks, but such a demanding target is not always easy to achieve. Bandura points out that individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy perceive the challenges as tasks waiting to be resolved, and they are prone to develop a deeper interest and a stronger commitment to the activities in which they participate: they also quickly recover from failures and disappointments.²⁹ On the contrary, the individuals with weak sense of self-efficacy avoid challenging tasks; they believe that solving difficult tasks and situations is beyond their power, they are disproportionately more focused on failures and unsuccessful outcomes and quickly lose confidence in personal capabilities. Police officers with a strong sense of self-efficacy will steadfastly adhere to sound ethical decision making at the cost of being under pressure by managers and the rest of the colleagues to leave job; those with a weak sense of self-efficacy will simply adopt behavioural patterns of the majority. The professional practice based on

26 James H. Svara, *The Ethics Primer for Public Administrators in Government and Nonprofit Organizations*, Jones and Bartlett Publishers, Sudbury (MA), 2007, p. 131.

27 Albert Bandura, “Self-efficacy”, in: Vilayanur S. Ramachaudran (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior – Volume 4*, Academic Press, New York, 1994, p. 71.

28 More details on the concept in: Albert Bandura, “Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change”, *Psychological Review*, Vol. 84, No. 2, 1977, pp. 191–215.

29 *Ibid.*, p. 194.

larger breaking of the letter and spirit of legislation and public policy encourages the relativistic stance in resolving ethical dilemmas. Police officer with a weak sense of self-efficacy will always easily rationalise the ethically questionable direction of an action by the argument that it is good for the success of organisational unit where she/he works, that such a decision would satisfy the manager or defend her/him and colleagues from the alleged public criticism. Seen from conformist level of the officer, ethical decision making in any particular situation lies beyond his personal power and skills and, therefore, it is not worth trying to oppose the superiors or disrupt relationships with colleagues. Police managers and officers simply avoid using ethical vocabulary when faced with moral dilemmas in performing daily tasks. In addition, one has to bear in mind that moral insensitivity of police officers is always covered in the running narrative of heroism, risk, and sacrifice that stems from virtue of the profession itself.

The famous story about a New York police officer Frank Serpico—immortalized in the film *Serpico* (1973)—narrates the personal experience of how profound moral decay in the police can sabotage exercising sound ethical judgement in the form of *continuum of compromise*. Gilmartin and Harris explain the continuum of compromise as behavioural pattern that demonstrates how highly intrusive powers granted to policemen may eventually undermine their professional and moral integrity, if they are not mentally well prepared for the ethical challenges.³⁰ Lasting inability of an officer to properly deal with work-life conflict eventually incorporates occupation into lifestyle. Since professional identity is now embedded in sense of self, the officer starts to interpret performance of daily tasks through us-them thinking. Us-them thinking has been in human nature from time immemorial because it increases group cohesion to compete more effectively with other groups.³¹ Creating a distance between members of the in-group and members of other groups facilitates thinking about the others as being outside of “moral circle”. This is why an officer beginning to trust only colleagues as the only ones who understand him and provide him with real support in life, while at the same time alienate from citizens who she/he wanted to serve at the beginning of her/his career.

In-group mentality encourages police officer to rationalise unethical behaviour. This is usually the initial leap down of the continuum of compromise towards the tragic erosion of professional integrity that ends in abiding by the grotesque maxim “we do what we feel is right.” According to Celia Green, this motto is a lost voice of tribal ethics characterised by the imposition of arbitrary collective norms to individuals that may even finish in persecution of those who refuse to conform their own views to the group spirit.³² Green highlights the power of reaching consensus within professional group to affirm self-esteem of individuals through solidarity and their participation in the group actions. The trouble is that a policeman through the group does not necessarily gain the inner objective measure of goodness and moral uprightness, because the group itself determines what is right and what is wrong.³³ The predominance of such a particularistic worldview further strengthens the bonds between alienated policemen, who in the long run will inevitably resist compliance with code of conduct and ignore ethical decision making. Now, we hit the very same “wall of silence” hit by Frank Serpico in 1971, when he decided to report corrupt colleagues and managers. The unwritten “code of silence”—summed up in the motto “good cop never snitch on a fellow”—still seems to drive officers to protect each other even by immoral means.³⁴ On the other hand, a

30 Kevin M. Gilmartin and John J. Harris, “Law Enforcement Ethics: The Continuum of Compromise”, *The Police Chief*, Vol. 65, Issue 1, January 1998, pp. 25–28.

31 More details in: Thomas R. Shultz, Max Hartshorn and Artem Kaznatcheev, “Why Is Ethnocentrism More Common Than Humanitarianism?”, The Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society, 29 July–1 August 2009, <http://141.14.165.6/CogSci09/papers/500/paper500.pdf>, 26/01/2016.

32 Celia Green, *Letters from Exile: Observations on a Culture in Decline*, Oxford Forum, Oxford, 2004, pp. 41–44.

33 Celia Green, “Gang psychology”, www.celiagreen.com/Letters/GANG.htm, 28/01/2016.

34 Daniel Patrick Barry, *Handling Police Conduct in an Ethical Way*, master thesis, Graduate

police leader willingly abides by this code for his own pragmatic reasons, primarily to create or maintain embellished, sometimes fictional, image of high personal managerial skills and good results of the organisational unit under his command.

CONCLUSION

Serbian police officers as public servants and members of a professional community must be concerned with improvements in moral behaviour if they intend to produce fair outcomes for their fellow citizens and banish evil ghosts of the authoritarian legacy. Demonstrating acceptable behaviour is integral to a profession's long term interests and the well being of the society in transition. Entrusted with wide discretionary powers of law enforcement, police officers must be guided by sound ethical decision making in order to avoid great risk of human rights abuse. Embedding ethical standards in police performance is still in a rudimentary stage focused on strengthening compliance with the Code of Police Conduct through education and control mechanisms. The substantial part is still missing: the set up of a practice of sound ethical decision making by sensitisation of police officers to the ethical implications of situations they face in performing daily tasks. The development of the capability for good moral reasoning— i.e. for an autonomous judgment and action—requires in the first place helping police leaders and officers to understand and avoid negative effects of police culture.

In this brief analysis, I identified the flaws in professional socialisation in the police force of post-industrial countries which support behaviour hostile to the legitimate goals and ethical standards of the law enforcement profession. All things considered, the initial change in human resource management policy in the Serbian police must involve a training aimed at enhancing moral awareness. It is important to shift the focus in the working environment from pleasing the superior or colleagues to proper framing of ethical dimensions of issues faced in day-to-day activities. If ethics lacks in the frame of reference, police officers may frame every decision as simply a question of efficiency, without due regard for the common good. Well conceived ethics education programme may increase the ability of self-reflection and dealing with difficult situations to make police leaders and officers feel more comfortable when faced with ethical challenges and to sophisticate their moral reasoning.

Police culture exalts loyalty over integrity. Working environment in which only employees with political background or membership in interest groups or family clans are entitled to the senior and/or best-paying positions is highly unattractive for police officers of sound moral character. Honest policemen will soon start searching a job in the private sector, while those less brave will lose the motivation to serve the public interest and will become prone to misuse public power for private gain. This is why the role of sound ethical decision making in improving the police performance is substantial. The change of group values, attitudes, perceptions, informal rules and behaviours internalised through professional socialisation process demands consistent and sustained effort over a longer period. Without the determined political will combined with consensus of trade unions, it is unlikely to create new working climate in the Serbian police force by generating the critical mass of police officers who will bravely reject the perverted unwritten code of perverted loyalty to the superiors and colleagues.

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MODEL OF IDENTIFYING REQUIRED POLICE CAPABILITIES

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Abstract: This article presents a model of identifying required police capabilities in the process of police capability development planning. Required police capabilities are the ability of the police to perform coordinated tasks and utilize available resources in order to achieve particular results. Identifying capability requirements is crucial and most complex phase in capability development process. Based on developed scenario of police future engagement, police tasks are determined and decomposed in previous phases of capability development process. In order to determine and decompose police tasks, appropriate effects which achieve tasks must be assessed and included in phase of identifying capability requirements. In the end, the required capabilities must be linked with police tasks and effects which lead to tasks fulfilments, as well as appropriate parameters and metrics. Parameters and metrics are basic for setting standards for future phases in capability development process.

Key words: police, capability, capability requirements, police development.

INTRODUCTION

Capability Based Planning process enables transformation of the police organization according to future security threats and scenarios in which the police could be involved in future, but taking into consideration available resources. The advantage of this approach is the possibility of finding the most effective and efficient way and achieve future goals and mission of the police.

The process of Capability Based Planning consists of several phases, and one of the most complex phases is identification of the required capabilities. The outcome of the whole police Capability Based Planning process depends on the results of this phase, which is also shaping the future organization of the police and enabling the police objective achievements. The planned achievement of development objectives allows the police to carry out missions and tasks in confronting future security threats.

In order to properly identify the required police capability, it is essential to understand the link between police capability, objectives, effects and tasks. The link can be understood by examining the police objectives in confronting future security threats and the effects that the police need to accomplish in order to achieve their objectives. That is why, at the stage of identification of the required police capabilities, it is of particular importance to carry out a detailed analysis of the objectives, the effects and the task of the police.

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Properly identified capabilities are the basis for setting standards and conditions for the development of capability development options, by directing the police actions in certain areas or capability inputs, to achieve the required capabilities.

CAPABILITY BASED POLICE DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESS

Contemporary organizations are aware of capabilities development importance to the overall organisational performances. Capabilities development is a high priority for many of them but they have not yet figured out how to deal with that in an effective and efficient way, especially how to identify the required capability. To produce necessary capability, the whole organizational effort must be made, which include management and coordination of all resources and process. The police capability development model is presented in Figure 1.

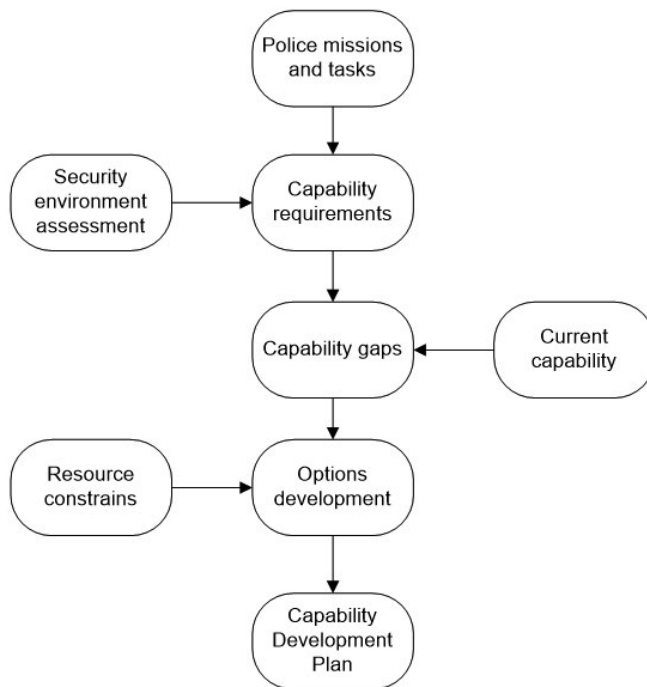


Figure 1: *The model of police capabilities development²*

According to the previously mentioned model, *analysis of police missions and tasks* are the first step to be performed. This step provides information on what the police should do. The next step, *security environment assessment*, gives the description of the future environment in which the police perform their tasks, as well as future tasks in providing security in constantly changing environment. This would give planners the answer to question: What should the police be prepared for?

² Adapted from: Stojković, D., Kovač, M., Mitić, V., The model of organizational capabilities development. SYMORG 2014, Zlatibor, 2014, p. 3.

Purpose of the next steps in generic model of organizational capabilities is to give the answer to two questions: what police capability is needed in order to face the future environment and how to develop required capability.

The basic step in capability development process is the *identification of capability requirements*. That is probably the most complex part of the process and requires a combination of imagination and subject matter expertise. The purpose of this stage is to identify types and quantities of police capabilities required to accomplish the police missions. A crucial part in the capability requirement step is description of capabilities. That is a very sensitive part of the planning process because it is important to establish a common understanding of how a capability is conceived and expressed. Description usually contains the key capability characteristics (attributes) with appropriate parameters and metrics, e.g. time, distance, effect (including scale). Capability description should give an answer to the question: "What capabilities do we need?" On the other hand, the quantitative context of capability should give an answer to the question: "How much of each capability do we need?"

Capability assessment is a stage that considers identification of capability requirements stage. The purpose of this stage is to assess achievement of the previously identified capability requirements. Using the identified police capability requirements and current police capabilities as primary inputs, in this stage a list of capability gaps that require solutions is produced. Capability assessment could also provide the relative priority of the gaps identified.

Option development is the next step in the process during which planners develop options that solve capability gaps taking both material and non-material solutions into account. At first, planners identify non-material solution, and if they do not bridge capability gap, material solution could be found. The development of realistic options is a crucial step in linking capability gaps to the resources. There is general agreement on the fact that capabilities are the result of the combined effect of multiple inputs. They cannot be simply built by purchasing new equipment or spending on research and development. Achieving necessary capabilities requires coordinated efforts in many areas and processes.

The main capability development process output is the Capability Development Plan. This plan needs to be carefully developed to ensure that the police have appropriate capability to fulfil their own mission. Some organizations determine the so-called capability strategy that defines what the organisation needs to do with the aim to develop and maintain its capabilities.

The implementation of the police capability development plan refers to official approval by the police management. This is a very complex process, and it is essential to be well prepared and led. A part of the police organization that is responsible for planning process prepares the necessary partial plans and programs which would specify the capability development plan and support its implementation.

Police capabilities are the result of combined influence of multiple inputs. It is not the sum of those influences, but the synergy that arises from the way those inputs are combined and applied. Capability inputs aim to develop options for bridging capability gaps.

The major police capability inputs are police procedures and rules, personnel, equipment, organization, training, education, facility, and interoperability.³

Procedures and rules are fundamental principles by which the police guide actions in fulfilment of given missions and tasks.

Personnel are individuals required in the police to accomplish the assigned missions and tasks. This is one of the crucial police capability inputs.

³ Kovač, M., & Stojković, D., Strategijsko planiranje odbrane, Vojnoizdavački zavod, Belgrade, 209, p. 437.

Equipment is representing all kinds of material necessary to supply the police forces in order to perform missions and tasks.

Organization is a system of the police elements that enables the execution of police missions and tasks. This capability input shows how the police organize its resources in order to provide desired effects.

Training is a process by which the police personnel are taught the skills that are needed for carrying out the police tasks. Training can be individual or collective.

Education is a process of teaching the police personnel in order to develop necessary knowledge.

Facility is police capability input that provides the police with required infrastructure, in order to meet required capability.

Interoperability provides the police with possibility to cooperate with another security subjects.

ROLE OF OBJECTIVES AND EFFECTS IN CAPABILITY IDENTIFICATION

In order to properly identify required capability of the police, it is necessary to fully understand the role of objectives and effects in capability identification. The role arises from the definition of police capability: police capabilities are the ability of the police to perform the activity (tasks) and generate required effects considering specific standards and conditions for achieving certain objectives.

During the execution of police tasks there are certain effects on the objects of action by which police objectives are attained. Therefore, in order to observe the link between capabilities and tasks of the police, it is necessary to take into consideration the definition of the terms "objective" and "effect". The objective is the result which system wants to achieve within a certain time period, or the desired future condition.⁴

Objectives express and determine police vision and mission in a more detailed way and, depending on the criteria, can be classified:

- by the level of organization: strategic, operational and tactical;
- by the possibility of quantification: quantitative and qualitative;
- by the hierarchical level: direct and indirect;
- by the planning horizon: long, medium and short term.

Effectiveness represents a measure determining how much the system successfully achieves the desired results.⁵ The effect can also be defined as the full spectrum outputs, events or consequences that result from certain actions.⁶

In the process of planning, objectives are achieved by effects, but also the desired effects are achieved by certain actions or execution of the task. This dual nature of the effects, in the planning and execution is shown in Figure 2.

4 Kovač, M., Dulanović, Ž., & Stojković, D.: *Određivanje efikasnosti vojnoorganizacionih sistema*, Vojnoizdavački zavod, Belgrade, 2006, p. 173

5 *Dictionary of Business and Management* - fourth edition, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2006, p. 185.

6 Mann, E. C., Endersby, G., & Searle, T. R., *Thinking Effects - Effects-Based Methodology for Joint Operations*, Air University Press, Alabama, 2002, p. 30

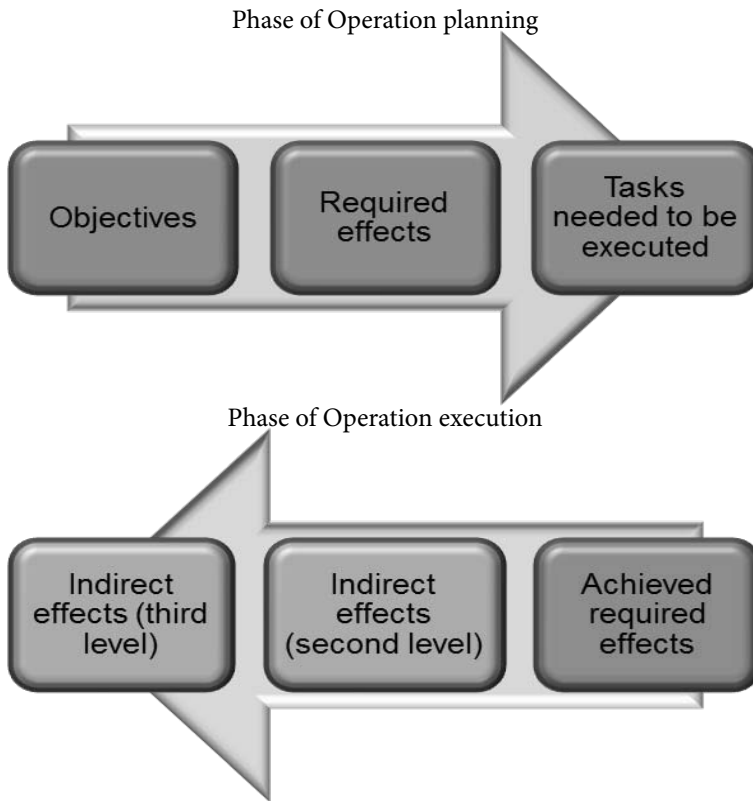


Figure 2: *Dual nature of effect*⁷

In the process of planning, the desired effects are generated from certain objectives, while the analysis of effect should result in task list that must be carried out. On the other hand, the results of executing the required tasks are the desired effects, which can cause other effects. The desired effects are direct effects (effects of the first order), and other effects - indirect (effects of the second or third order).⁸

According to capability definition, police capability must generate certain effect on an object of action that leads to objectives fulfilments. This linkage allows the simple determination of required police capabilities.

IDENTIFYING REQUIRED POLICE CAPABILITIES

The most complex and most sensitive phase of the capability based planning process is the phase of identifying the required capability. The results of this phase directly depend on the input from the police mission and tasks analysis phase and the future security environment assessment phase. On the other hand, the results of this delicate phase direct standards for capability gap determination phase and options development phase. That is the reason why

⁷ Adapted from: Mann, E. C., Endersby, G., & Searle, T. R., *Thinking Effects - Effects-Based Methodology for Joint Operations*, Air University Press, Alabama, 2002, p. 30

⁸ Ibid.

mistakes done at this stage can have major consequences on the development of the police and the achievement of the necessary capabilities to confront future security challenges.

One of the fundamental errors that can be made in the phase of required capability determination is to think about the capability as forces, resources and structures. In this regard, during the work on determining the required capabilities definition, the capacity should always be considered.

Taking into consideration that the capabilities are the possibility to achieve the desired effect, the first step is to determine the desired effects. It should be borne in mind that the effects of dual nature are directly related to the objectives and tasks. Objectives are achieved by effects, and the effects are achieved by completing tasks. Therefore, in order to identify the required capabilities, the analysis of objectives, effects and tasks of the police must be done.

The analysis of objectives, missions and tasks is conducted on the basis of the security environment assessment. Firstly, in this step, the identification of the police objectives in response to future security environment is performed, and then the determination of the effects on the object of action that leads to objective fulfilments. At the end of the phase, the tasks that should be performed in order to achieve the desired effects are identified. It is also necessary to have in mind that the police objectives are achieved by one or more effects, and the effects are achieved by executing multiple tasks. The objectives, effects and tasks are analyzed at the strategic, operational and tactical levels. The tasks at a higher level are converted into targets at a lower level (Figure 3).

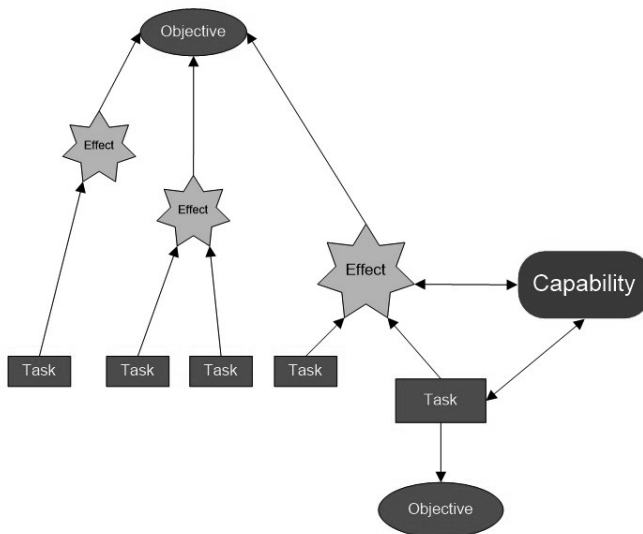


Figure 3: *Analysis of objective, effect and tasks*

After analyzing the objectives, effects and tasks, goals, effects and tasks are classified according to the functional areas of police work, and to facilitate identification and classification of capabilities that will be identified in the next steps. Functional areas of policing that can be used as criteria for tasks classification can be: criminal police capability, border control capability, public order capability, antiterrorist etc. The area of criminal police capability may be further broken down into data collection, analytics, forensics, etc.⁹

⁹ Stojković, D., Mitić, V., *Capability based police development planning*, Archibald Reiss days 2015, Belgrade, 2015, p. 490-491.

In the process of the Capability based police development planning it is useful to create a Police task list. A list of tasks can be a useful tool in the implementation of the planning process, in order to provide continuity update in accordance with the environment change. Additionally, a list of tasks can be used in the planning and force usage phase, achieving compatibility between the development planning and usage planning of the police.

In the next step the identification of required capabilities is performed. The identification of the required capability involves linking effects and tasks with police required capability that provides their execution. The result of this step is the list of the police required capability.

Each of the identified capabilities should be described. The description should contain an explanation of capabilities, or connection to the desired effect and the task, as well as standards and condition. The description of capability should be general enough not to prejudge the decision on implementation, but also detailed enough to clearly direct the further process options development.

Capability standards are made of combination of measures and criteria. Measures provide a base to describe the different levels of performance (e.g. hours, days, miles, number of offenders, etc.). Criteria define acceptable levels of performance and are often expressed as the minimum acceptable level of performance.¹⁰ The determination of capabilities standard should be handled carefully because they are the basis for the development of standard for capability development options, such are for example: standards of training, technical and tactical requirements of equipment, criteria for the organizational structure, etc.

Besides standards explanation, the police capability description must also contain conditions. Conditions are restrictions arising from the security environment, which affect the use of certain required capability. The examples of condition can be: meteorological, geo-topographic, legal, political, etc

At the end of the required capability identification phase, the police required capabilities classification are performed. In accordance with the objectives, effect and tasks, the required capabilities are grouped by levels (strategic, operational and tactical) as well as functional areas of police work. The result of the required capability identification phase there should be a list of required police capability grouped by levels and functional areas of police work.

The result of the required capability identification phase has critical influence on the Capability based planning process outcomes. The identified police capability directly affects the police development, so it is necessary to pay special attention to the realization of this stage.

CONCLUSION

To enable the police to carry out tasks in countering future security threats, the possession of certain capability is needed. The identification of the required police capability is the basis for the Capability Based Development Planning Process. The essence of capability identification phase is to avoid thinking about the capability as forces or resources. Connecting capability with forces or resources can lead to pre-defined development options resulting in process flexibility losses and reduction of the possibility to find the most effective and most efficient solutions.

To achieve correct capability identification, it is necessary to establish a linkage between capabilities and objectives, effects and tasks. In this way, capability can be described generally enough not to direct the process of development and capability development options selection, and yet in such a detailed way in order to set standards for the development of capability

¹⁰ Kovač, M., Stojković, D., Strategijsko planiranje odbrane, Vojnoizdavački zavod, Beograd, 2009, p. 439.

development options. In this way, identified capabilities need to answer the question: "What do the police expect in order to be able to execute duties and under what standards, rather than how they will perform them?"

Capabilities are developed by capability inputs synergy. Different solutions which act on the capability inputs to reach required capability are capability development options. Identified required capabilities should enable consideration of measures and the criteria for each capability. Measures and criteria are crucial for setting standards for every capability inputs in developed capability development options.

Identified required capabilities must provide flexibility of the Capability Based Planning Process, as well as establish the basis for performance management in capability developing and measuring the degree of development objectives achievement.

The complexity of the capability identification phase requires educated, trained and experienced personnel, as well as teamwork, good communication and involvement at all levels of police organization in the process of development planning. Finally, the identified required capability must be presented to the police top management, in order to establish their involvement in the development process and give legitimacy and authority to development plans.

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POLICE SYSTEM IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA BETWEEN ITS FUNCTIONALITY AND DYSFUNCTIONALITY

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Abstract: Every country in the world aims to establish a police system which will be functional and achieve favorable security situation. In addition to all the countries having the same goal in establishing a functioning and efficient police system, the world has no identical police system. This is a consequence of the fact that the police system design is influenced by many factors, such as regulation of the state legal system, government organization, the complexity of the state union, the geographical position, demographic characteristics, cultural heritage, historical circumstances and more. Bosnia and Herzegovina police system is a complex uncoordinated police system and, as such, it is characterized by numerous problems in its functionality. This paper will discuss the types of police systems, and about how the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina foresaw the division of responsibilities in the area of police operations between the common institutions and entities of the territorial organization of the police system at the end of indicators which clearly show that the police system located somewhere between their functionality and dysfunctionality.

Keywords: Bosnia and Herzegovina police system, police agencies, the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina, functionality, security.

INTRODUCTION

The police system is a broader concept than police organization (law enforcement agency) which is very important to keep in mind when considering that follow. Police organizations, in the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina police agencies, represent only a part of an integrated police system which exists in each country. It is completely irrelevant, when analyzing a police system, whether it consists of several police agencies that are independent in their work within a country because the police system in a country can only be viewed as a whole. Of course, when talking about the police system of one country, it absolutely does not presuppose that all police agencies in one country should be centralized and subordinated to only one center. The level of police system functionality depends on its proper organization (establishment), functioning and cooperation in it between its components (police agencies).

To be able to expect from the police system to be functional, it is necessary that it be organized in accordance with the Constitution of a country and aligns with the organization of the entire state or the union. The complex organization of the state presupposes a complex police system, but it does not necessarily presuppose a police system that is dysfunctional or less functional than a police system in less complex country. Examples of police systems in the United Kingdom, Germany, Canada, the United States of America, Australia or Switzerland show functionality and successfulness of complex police systems. In terms of the police

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system in Bosnia and Herzegovina and its perception of organizational structure, mode of operation and the problems encountered in its operation (of course, all viewed as a whole or part of the security system of Bosnia and Herzegovina), and which will be discussed later in this work, we can determine general hypothesis of this work. In consentience to the above mentioned, here is the preliminary general hypothesis of this paper: "The police system of Bosnia and Herzegovina can be considered partly functional and efficient in carrying out their duties, i.e. is in a state between their functionality and dysfunctionality".

TYPES OF POLICE SYSTEM

We will not enter into a broader discussion about the types of police system, but for the purposes of this paper we will only give a basic outline of the underlying classification and police systems, in order to get a view to a clearer understanding of the Bosnia and Herzegovina police system.

Primarily, the police system is divided into closed and open. Closed systems are those characterized by a traditional way of management and whose basis is a hierarchical structure with vertical communication and the dominant role of leaders.² In contrast to closed systems, open systems (models) are characterized by an emphasized role of providing recommendations and advice instead of orders, where you build partnership relations, which looks more like a business organization models.³

We can further distinguish simple and complex police systems. If the police system of a country is organized so that all the police forces are subordinated to a single police department, then we are talking about one police organization and simple model of police systems. On the other hand, if in a country there are two or more police organizations, each of which is subjected to special centers (controls) which are autonomous - in that case it is a model of a complex police system. The model of complex police system is more present and one could say it is a typical structure of modern police organizations.

When we talk about models of police system, it should be noted that the centralized and decentralized police systems also occur as a model of organization of the police, and there are also combinations of these two models. Whether it is a centralized or decentralized police system depends on the influence the central government makes on the management. This is often difficult to determine, since the rare application of one or another model in pure form.⁴ "Coordination"⁵ is a parameter that shows how in an organization, with more or less disjointed structure, parts link into a whole, and how the organization achieves top control on its parts. In other words, this parameter indicates the mechanisms used by a management of an organization in order to hold all the pieces together and provide a united corporate spirit, and it can be said that this is a parameter that holds the organization together. Basically, there are three possible basic coordination models: direct control (through the hierarchy of authority and chain of command (management)); standardization (input-output passage); direct com-

2 Kunic, P. (2001). *Administrative law - general and special part*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Law, p. 461.

3 Jovicic, D. (2008). *The organization and jurisdiction of the police*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Safety and Protection, p. 60-61.

4 Jovičić, D., Setka, G. (2015). *The organization and jurisdiction of the police*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Safety and Protection, p. 80.

5 According to Professor Obrad Stevanovic coordination represents a term that means harmonizing the actions of two or more participants in a single process, and coordinating and directing the interactions between the elements of a system in order to achieve the set goals or adopted. (Taken from Stevanovic, O. (2003). *Leadership in the police*, Belgrade: Police Academy, p. 29.)

munication (between managers and between managers and employees).⁶ Bailey classification is the sublimation of these criteria and defines the basic forms of police systems with regard to two main criteria: the centralization and coordination.⁷ The police models can be divided according to the measure of coordination: a unified, coordinated and uncoordinated; and according to the scale of centralization: centralized and decentralized. Intersection of these divisions produces the following models: single centralized, coordinated centralized, coordinated decentralized, uncoordinated centralized and decentralized uncoordinated.⁸

There is another major police classification mentioned in the earlier literature: complex coordinated model and uncoordinated complex model. This classification refers to countries with more police agencies (organizations), and the basis is the territorial division of jurisdiction between different police agencies. Complex coordinated police system is a police system where one police agency is responsible for one territory. Uncoordinated complex police system is a police system where more police agencies share the jurisdiction over one territory. This means that the basic characteristic of complex uncoordinated police system is "co-responsibility for the action of a private police agency in the same territory".⁹ Since the police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina consists of more police agencies on the level of joint institutions which have jurisdiction over the same part of the territory, as well as entity and cantonal police agencies, it can be concluded that the police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina is a complex uncoordinated police system.

POLICE SYSTEM IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Bosnian police system is characterized by a number of irregularities in their organization and functioning. First of all, the organization of the police system does not comply with the provisions of the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina is specific in many ways. It does not contain any stance about the principle of division or the principle of unity of authority. Analysis of the constitutional provision leaves no doubt that it comes to a specific, so far in comparative modern constitutionality unknown, model of power-sharing. With the serious consideration of the notes, it may be concluded that in Bosnia and Herzegovina there is a principle of separation of powers.¹⁰ It can be said that the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina seems to be a product of an international constitutional order, rather than domestic, which is certainly a key basis of dysfunctionality of the entire system in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The very question of the division of competencies in Bosnia and Herzegovina has become an important issue from the very moment of the signing of the Dayton Peace Agreement, and within these issues, the question of the competence of the security turns out to be the most important. Often the political framework describes it as a 'last defense' of the elements of statehood and even the existence of entities in general.¹¹

6 Cvetković, D. (2010). *Organizational design as one of the factors of efficiency of the police*, Business School, No. 1, Novi Sad: High Business School, p. 116.

7 Bayley, D. (1985). *Patterns of Policing, A Comparative International Analysis*, New York: Rutgers University Press, p. 13-14.

8 Puseljić, M., Jelenski, M. (2007). *Police constitution and - implementation of police functions throughout the organization*, Police and security, Zagreb: Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Croatia, No. 1-2, p. 4-5.

9 Jović, D. (2011). *The organization and jurisdiction of the police*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Safety and Protection, p. 64.

10 Dmčić, M. (2007). *Elements of the Federal constitutional structure of Bosnia and Herzegovina as a stacked state*, Yearbook of Law Faculty in Banja Luka, No. XXVII - XXVIII, Banja Luka: Faculty of law, p. 150-151.

11 Karan, S. (2008). *The jurisdiction of the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the field of security - political and constitutional aspects, Safety, police, citizens*, No. 1/08, Banja Luka, p. 104.

One of the fundamental issues in Bosnia and Herzegovina, as a complex state, is the division of responsibilities between the common institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Entities. "In terms of the distribution of jurisdiction, apply the presumption of competence in favor of entities. In Section III, item 1 of the Constitution listed the powers conferred upon the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina, while Article III paragraph 3a the same stipulates that all powers under the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina that are not expressly assigned to the institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina belong to the Entities".¹²

The Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina accepted the concept (known in constitutional theory), which lists the powers of the common institutions (positive enumeration method), while the rest, which the Constitution did not expressly provide, is put in charge of the entity through a general clause in the Constitution. Thus, the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina unequivocally determines that the job of the police (internal affairs) fall within the competence of the entities, because they are not mentioned in the Constitution as well as within the jurisdiction of the Bosnia and Herzegovina institutions.¹³

Despite the fact that the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina clearly designated that police activities are the responsibility of the Entities, the structure of the police system is not harmonized with the Constitution. Police system consists of police agencies that are on the level of the common institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Entities, the Brčko District of Bosnia and Herzegovina and cantonal level (this level is represented only in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina). At the level of the common institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Ministry of Security of Bosnia and Herzegovina has the following law enforcement agencies: State Investigation and Protection Agency (SIPA), Border Police of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Directorate for Coordination of Police Organizations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Police Support Agency, Agency for forensic examination and expertise, Agency for education and professional training and Service for foreigners' Affairs. These police agencies within the Ministry of Security work as an administrative organization with operational independence. Some of these police agencies have been created in April 2008 when they adopted the following laws: "The Law on the Directorate for Coordination of Police Organizations and Agencies for Support of Police Structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Law on Independent and Supervisory Organizations of the Police Structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina."¹⁴ These agencies, especially SIPA, work within its territorial jurisdiction on the whole territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

At the entity level in the Republic of Srpska police activities are controlled by the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Srpska. In the entity Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina police activities are controlled by Federal Ministry of the Interior and the Cantonal Ministries of Internal Affairs (FBIH consists of a total of 10 cantons and each canton has its own Ministry of Internal Affairs). In the Brčko District police services are being carried out by the Brčko District Police. The complexity of the organization of the police in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina can be seen in the fact that the Law on Internal Affairs (Official Gazette of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, No. 81/14) anticipates that any conflict of jurisdiction between cantonal ministries, as well as between cantonal ministries and the Federal Ministry, shall be solved at the Constitutional Court of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. It is envisaged that in an emergency the conflict shall be solved by the Minister of Interior of Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, while the Constitutional Court of Federation Bosnia and Herzegovina can decide on it later.

12 Sahadzic, M. (2009). *The nature of the political system in Bosnia and Herzegovina*, "Introduction to the political system of BiH - Selected Aspects", Sarajevo: Open Centre and Foundation Konrad Adenauer, p. 19.
13 Jovičić, D. (2011). *The organization and jurisdiction of the police*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Safety and Protection, p. 307.

14 Kekić, D., Đukanović, D. (2008). *Police Reform in Bosnia and Herzegovina*, Security, No. 4, Belgrade: Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia, p. 27.

FUNCTIONALITY - DYSFUNCTIONALITY OF POLICE SYSTEM IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

The efficiency of the police system is linked to the degree of compliance of its organization with the surrounding (relatively stable or turbulent). The purpose of the organizational structure of each police system, as well as the organizational structure of the police agencies that make up the police system, is the achievement of the mission, goals and tasks of the police system. The organizational structure should enable the police organization a quick response to the challenges, risks and threats to security that brings the surrounding to enable the police to effectively and efficiently function, i.e. for the achievement of defined goals and desired results with the minimum expenditure of human, material and technical resources.¹⁵ Knowing how police system is organized in Bosnia and Herzegovina, we are not sure that its degree of compliance with the surrounding is at the level that guarantees its effectiveness (functionality).

Starting from this conclusion, we will mention only a few examples that indicate that the Bosnia and Herzegovina police system is somewhere between its functionality and dysfunctionality. We can argue, because it works in some of its segments, but when you find yourself in the right security "temptation" then every weakness turns up as well as its dysfunctionality.

The first example is the events from the beginning of 2014 when there was civil unrest in Bosnia and Herzegovina¹⁶. These riots clearly showed that police agency responsible for ensuring the Presidency of Bosnia and Herzegovina (otherwise it is the Directorate for Coordination of Police Organizations of Bosnia and Herzegovina) failed to carry out activities within its jurisdiction to an effective manner (Presidency building was set on fire). However, during the riots Director sought help from the director of SIPA in terms of involvement of members of special units of SIPA. In the end, all the responsibility is borne by the then Director of SIPA, who was found guilty and sentenced to a suspended sentence of one year in prison for the crime of negligent performance of duty. It's strange because the director of SIPA was convicted of failing to provide assistance to the Directorate for coordination of police organizations in protecting the buildings that were damaged in the civil unrest in early 2014 in Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, while the competence of SIPA is not the protection of persons and facilities. Specifically, due to the formation of the Directorate, parts of the jurisdiction of SIPA pertaining to the protection of persons and facilities have become the responsibility of the Directorate. Head of the Directorate has not suffered any consequences because of the damage to facilities which were supposed to be protected by the members of his agency. When he submitted his resignation, Director said that in a few years of its existence, his agency has failed to establish any coordination between law enforcement agencies in Bosnia and Herzegovina¹⁷.

Another example is the attack on the Prime Minister of the Republic of Serbia at the marking of the day of suffering in Srebrenica. During his visit at the site of events, there was more than the present lack of coordination between multiple police agencies in Bosnia and

15 Šetka, G. (2016). *The impact of the organization of the police structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina on the state of security*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Safety and Protection, p. 105.

16 During the riots, which took place last week in Bosnia and Herzegovina, in which 219 people were injured, burned several buildings of institutions, and between the fire and the building of the Presidency of Bosnia and Herzegovina." Available: %BB%D0%B0%D0%BD%D0%B5%D1%82%D0%B0.480.html:477206-Smirila-se-situacija-povredjeno-219-osoba,searched: 3.3.2016.

17 "During the press conference, and account for their items to the recent Director of the Directorate for Coordination of Police Bodies stated of Bosnia and Herzegovina that almost five years Directorate, with colleagues from other law enforcement agencies trying to harmonize procedures for dealing with emergencies, coordination and procedures in the relevant insurance events and keep each other informed, but that so far it failed to agree." Available: <http://www.klix.ba/vijesti/bih/celnik-direkcije-za-koordinaciju-policijskih-tijela-bih-podnio-ostavku/140209061>, searched: 3.3.2016.

Herzegovina, which have been deemed responsible for providing protected person. However, as a consequence of such mismatch between police agencies, the attack on the protected person happened. None of the managers of police agencies (here we mean primarily the director of the Directorate for Coordination of Police Bodies) did respond for poor organization, but that is not a wonder in Bosnia and Herzegovina. It turned out that a major positive role was actually played by the Entity police (Police of the Republic of Srpska).

The third example of dysfunctionality, or, to put it mildly, irregularities in the functioning of the police system, is SIPA's perquisition of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Srpska at the end of 2015. This event brought up unjustified distrust between SIPA and the Police of the RS. The events culminated in a short-term interruption of the cooperation between the police of the Republic of Srpska and SIPA¹⁸.

Next, on the ground there is a great degree of non-cooperation between the Directorate for Coordination of Police Organizations and entity and cantonal police agencies at a time when the Directorate providing security protected the person on the go. Rather than to inform the local competent organizational units of the police agencies through which they escort the protected person (at the moment of its territory), they choose to do not.

All frequent drastic examples of criminal activities of members of police agencies in Bosnia and Herzegovina are a clear indication that the Bosnia and Herzegovina police system is far from the needed functionality. All criminal scandals suggest that the police system has an unacceptably poor selection of personnel for the police agencies, as well as in the prevention of criminal activities of its members (this claim is on the grounds of the recent number of criminal offenses with a high degree of organization, and in some cases the perpetrators were high-ranking officials of police agencies).

The lack of cooperation between law enforcement agencies and an unclear division of responsibilities, which directly contributes to the dysfunction of the system, was the most visible during recent terrorist acts in Bosnia (especially a terrorist act in Sarajevo - Rajlovac). It has been unclear which police agency will carry out an investigation at the crime scene (whether cantonal, entity or level of the common institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina). When this occurred as a problem, then we can only assume the profundities of complexities in acts of police agencies.

How the police system is efficient in their work (fighting crime) can best be illustrated by the indicators of the state of crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina for the period between 2007 and 2013. "In the reporting period all prosecutors in Bosnia and Herzegovina received a total of 256,888 applications from all police agencies, out of which 182,430 cases ordered an investigation, which means that 74,458 or 28.98% (almost one third) of applications was dismissed as unfounded and not at all ordered an investigation. Furthermore, although the investigation was ordered in 182,430 cases, it is not a prosecution in 45,830, or 25.12% of cases (more than a quarter). The ratio of convictions in relation to the indictments is such that the judgment of 6.062 or 4.64% less compared to how much was raised. This range is not as alarming as far as worrying if we compare the application and handed down the verdict in the reporting period or ordered investigations and convictions. If we look at these indicators, then there is information that the verdict of 51.892 or 28.44% less compared to the ordered an investigation, or the 126,350 or 49.18% less in relation to the applications that have been received prosecution

18 "During the campaign of arrests of Serbs in Novi Grad, on the order of Prosecution on charges of war crimes, the state agency SIPA took the police station of the MUP of the Republic of Srpska and the building of Novi Grad. The Government of the Republic of Srpska announced that stops all cooperation with the Court of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the agency SIPA". Available: <http://www.nspm.rs/hronika/bih-sipa-uhapsila-petoro-srba-u-novom-gradu-pod-optuzbom-za-ratne-zlocine-1992-vanredna-sednica-skupstine-republike-srpske.html>, searched: 3.3.2016.

(of which only one-half is processed).¹⁹ These data point to two facts. First, that there is something wrong with the quality of police work, and second, that the cooperation between law enforcement agencies and prosecutors' offices is on a sufficiently high level.

After conducting the research within the police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina (the survey did not include all levels of the police system, i.e. eight police agencies, a sample was 740 respondents - police officers), we came to a large number of indicators on the current state of the functionality of the police system. On this occasion we would like to mention just an answer to one question, which most strikingly illustrates the efficiency and functionality of the police system. To the question: "Could police structures in Bosnia and Herzegovina, organized the way they are, respond to the most complex forms of endangering security?"; the largest number of respondents, 61.2%, believe that such organized police structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina can only partially respond to most complex forms and types of threats to security. They are 10.5% of respondents who believe that such an organized police structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina is not able to respond to the most complex forms and types of threats to security. These results led to the notion that such an organized police structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina is not able to respond to the most complex shapes and forms compromising security.²⁰ These results point us directly to our claim from the title that the Bosnia and Herzegovina police system is located in the space between their dysfunctionality (unfortunately in more complex security conditions) and functionality (in a simpler security conditions). Contrary to this, the police system should be organized so that it can at any time respond to any threats to security, and that it can protect the country and its citizens at all times. Since this is obviously not the case with the Bosnia and Herzegovina police system, it is necessary to police a system organized in a way that can positively affect the preservation of the security situation and at all times to adequately respond to all forms and types of threats to security.

CONCLUSION

The situation of a police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina is unacceptably poor because it is actually located in the space between their functionality and dysfunctionality. In this paper we focused on the events that point to the incomplete functionality of the police system in the country. Also, the claim of incomplete functionality is supported by the data on the efficiency of the police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina regarding the prevention of crime. In order to confirm the general hypothesis of the paper, we can prompt the disharmony of the police system and the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina. So it is clear that through the paper the general hypothesis is confirmed: "The police system of Bosnia and Herzegovina can be considered partly functional and efficient in carrying out their duties, i.e. is in a state between their functionality and the dysfunctionality".

Bearing in mind the presentation of the results of the study, as well as all the facts about the police system in Bosnia and Herzegovina, we can conclude that the condition of the police system is unacceptably poor because of many reasons: the security situation is not at the required level, the trust of citizens is extremely low, the possibility that the system responds to modern challenges, risks and threats is also far from the real needs, etc. It should also be emphasized that it is unacceptable that the system operates on the current basis because it costs citizens a lot, only to achieve partial functionality.

¹⁹ Setka, G. Vukovic, M., Popovic, P. (2015). *The results of the work of police agencies and prosecutors in Bosnia and Herzegovina as an indicator of their expertise*, Belgrade: Police Academy and the Hanns Seidel Foundation, Proceedings of the Symposium, Volume III, p. 75-76.

²⁰ See more in: Setka, G. (2016). *The impact of the organization of the police structure in Bosnia and Herzegovina on the state of security*, Banja Luka: Faculty of Safety and Protection, p. 260-292.

And finally, as a recommendation it can be said that it is necessary to initiate changes in organization of the Bosnia and Herzegovina police system, so that it becomes functional. We believe that as the most appropriate solutions we can offer either the alignment of the police system with the provisions of the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina (return of the seized jurisdiction of the entity police agencies – which is highly unlikely) or creating complex coordinated police system with a clear division of responsibility between the police agencies that are located within the system (thus replacing complex uncoordinated police system - now current, with a complex system of coordinated police headquarters). The return of the seized jurisdiction of the entity police agencies would require the abolition of certain police agencies established at the level of the common institutions of Bosnia and Herzegovina and therefore that is less likely. In contrast to this solution, the establishment of a complex coordinated police system would entail an obligation to police agencies from the level of common institutions that they can undertake activities within its competence under the supervision of the competent local police agency. A clear distinction in terms of actual jurisdiction between police agencies in Bosnia and Herzegovina would also give a significant contribution to the functionality of the police system.

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THE PUBLIC AS A CONDITION FOR ESTABLISHING AND FUNCTIONING OF COMMUNITY POLICING

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Abstract: The operation of all state bodies is under public scrutiny. This, in particular, applies to police, bearing in mind that their operation is of vital importance for the survival, development and successful functioning of the state as a whole, but also that it is in the interest of each individual to secure personal and property safety, and to create conditions for the fulfilment of other rights and duties. On the other hand, the content and nature of police work, as well as the powers that they have for their achievement, impose the need for the police to be transparent to the public as much as possible.

Establishing positive, two-way, relations between police and the public is particularly evident in the new model of work - community policing. In fact, the successful establishing and functioning of community policing depends on the level of trust and cooperation that exists between the police and the public. For this reason, within this model of community policing a significant emphasis is on public relations in order to secure cooperation in the fight against crime and other occurrences endangering safety.

This paper deals with: /1/ relations of police and the public /2/ community policing and its conditional trust and support of the public and /3/ some modalities of cooperation between the public and community policing.²

Keywords: community policing, the public, the public and the police.

INTRODUCTION

The public is interested in the work and functioning of all organs of state administration, including the police. Citizens as taxpayers provide funds for the work of state organs, and therefore have a right to be informed about their work. Therefore, respecting this right of citizens, bodies of state administration should have the greatest possible openness and transparency in the work, which enables control of their work by the public. State administration bodies are obliged to provide public insight into their work, according to the law regulating free access to information of public importance. They are obliged to inform the public about their work in the media and in other appropriate ways.³ The public may be excluded only in

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² This paper is the result of the research project funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia (no. 179045) and implemented by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011-2015), entitled Development of institutional capacity, standards and procedures for countering organized crime and terrorism in terms of international integration, and the result of the research on project: Management of police organization in preventing and mitigating threats to security in the Republic of Serbia, which is financed and carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade – the cycle of scientific projects 2015-2019.

³ Transparency of state administration can be accomplished in other ways. Thus, the Law on State Administration stipulates that the state administration bodies are obliged to submit reports on their

extremely rare situations, "if that is necessary in a democratic society for the protection of a serious violation of an overriding interest based on the constitution or the law."⁴

The interest of the public for the functioning of state bodies is particularly important for the police, bearing in mind that their acts are of vital importance for the survival, development and successful functioning of the state as a whole, but also in the interest of each individual, in order to secure personal and property safety, and create conditions for the fulfilment of other rights and duties.

The relationship between the police and the public today is a matter of great importance. Both sides recognize the necessity of establishing a wide spectrum of positive relations. On the other hand, police increasingly realize that efficient police work depends largely on the public and its support of the police organization.

There are many ways for the police to improve relations with the public. Some of them are: understanding the problem of the public; professional and successful resolution of issues that fall within the scope of the police; consciousness and appreciation of their own problems; presentation of the possibilities of the police to solve such problems and jointly and conscientiously resolving issues concerning both sides.⁵

It is obvious that the public need the police, but the police still need the public even more, so that the public and the police are interdependent and mutually interconnected. Looking at the police of today and their organizational and functional aspects, it is more than obvious that the public is more and more necessary to the police, and that it is necessary for the police to gain support, confidence and understanding of the public. This is especially emphasized within the model of community policing that can give good results only if the police cooperate with the local community and with the public at large."Building relationships with the public, the police laid out as a key factor of success of the concept of community policing. Without public support this concept and even the police as the subject of security, many efforts to improve the situation in this area will remain futile."⁶

Since these relations are of great importance for the establishment and functioning of the police in the community, they are seen as a kind of prerequisite that must be fulfilled in order to ensure that the concept of community policing in general makes sense and gives the desired results. Given the current situation in our country, this relationship has yet to be established and built. Therefore, one of the priority tasks of the current police leadership is to restore public confidence in the police and animate the public for active cooperation and assistance to the police in the exercise of their duty to protect the safety of citizens and the country as a whole. The public will contribute to the overall performance of police tasks and improve the security situation if it becomes a "partner" of the police and participates in the execution of certain tasks and special programs. To achieve this, the police must improve their public image. This implies a whole range of police activities, ranging from respect for human dignity and rights of citizens, through legal and ethical performance of their duties, to the full availability of their work to the public.

work to the Government at least once a year, and to give information, explanations and data related to their competence to the National Assembly and the President of the Republic. One aspect of the transparency work of the state administration is certainly their duty to organize public debates when preparing a law which essentially changes the legal regime in one field or which regulates issues of special interest for the public.

4 Zakon o slobodnom pristupu informacijama od javnog značaja, „Službeni glasnik RS“, br. 120/04, 54/07, 104/09, 36/10.

5 Tulezi, J., (2000), *Policija i javnost*, Zagreb, MUP RH, Policijska akademija, p. 19.

6 Pena, D., Đukić, P., (2013), *Odnos policije i javnosti sa aspekta primene koncepta rada policije u zajednici*, Bezbjednost, policija, građani, br. 3-4, Banja Luka, MUP RS, p. 94.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLICE AND THE PUBLIC

The public is an expression and a guarantee of democratic processes and behaviours in society, the way of establishing and solving problems with a critical focus on particular aspects of social reality. Citizens must be provided the possibility within the framework of basic political rights and freedoms to give their knowledge, opinion, or a critical review of some relevant issues of society, without fear that an individual or group will rear responsibility for their views.⁷ And while the public (being so critical) could never have identical visions with the state officials, the police were an instrument of government which managed “national cause” and not much worried about their public image and the consequences of their actions. Because of that the police are still perceived as an “extended arm” of government and specific body of the state administration, which has special powers, with the possibility of the use of force and invasion of privacy of citizens.

British police first began planning to develop their relations with the public in 1829, which can be taken as a turning point. They proclaimed two principles: /1/ the principle according to which the success of the police “depends on the approval, acceptance and cooperation of citizens” and /2/ the principle according to which “the police should be public, and the public police.”⁸

It was only relatively late that police turned to the public because of excessive confidence in the power of technical and technological resources in fighting and preventing crime. Furthermore, police organizations by their nature have a tendency to act as closed systems, believing that they are not obliged to look back on the judgements of the public about their work, so, they did not bother to build adequate relations with the public until after the Second World War, when the situation in many countries changed.⁹ However, the relationship between the police and the public has not been established in a satisfactory manner even in modern times. This is a complex relationship, viewed from the standpoint of the public and from the standpoint of the police, which is burdened with a set of prejudices and misunderstandings on both sides. Relations between police and citizens are marked by multilateral controversy. On one side, human rights are protected by the police, as an institution of public authority, and on the other side of the police, at the same time, are such a service that needs to protect human rights. Thus, the police appear as the holder of a dual role in relation to human rights: on the one side, police play the active role of human rights defenders, because in exercising of their functions they create the conditions for the enjoyment of human rights for all members of society. Yet, on the other hand, they are obliged to do so with maximum respect for human rights. Because of this, the police have to provide most consistent respect for legality in their work and to continuously develop professional awareness, which is a prerequisite and guarantee of the lawful actions. Good relations between the police and the public cannot appreciate only after the effective accomplishment of its functions, it must first of all be borne in mind if and to what extent its work based on the law and the respect of citizens and their rights. If they want good relations with the public the police must comply with the principle of legality in their work, because it is “One of the most important means of achieving legal order, to maintain its integrity and the achievement of its objectives.”¹⁰

It is generally known that the attitude of our public towards the police is generally negative. In particular, the public believes that the police do not sufficiently serve the citizens and that their function is to act as a closed, bureaucratic system that serves the interests of political parties, the interests of the government and the people at the top of the police, to manifest

7 Masleša, R., (1999), *Policija, organizacija i funkcioniranje u demokratskom društvu*, Sarajevo, Fakultet kriminalističkih nauka, pp. 408-409.

8 Milosavljević, B., (1994), *Uvod u policijske nauke*, Beograd, Policijska akademija, p. 151.

9 Kešetović, Ž., (2000), *Odnosi policije sa javnošću*, Beograd, VŠUP, p. 110.

10 Lukić, R., Košutić, B., (1985), *Uvod u pravo*, Beograd, Naučna knjiga, p. 293.

intolerance and unfair attitude towards the citizens, and is inaccessible, rigid, incompetent, corrupt and least of all a service that is supposed to serve the public. On the other hand, the police have no better opinion of the public and the citizens, believing that they are not willing to cooperate with the police, and that they insufficiently value the police profession and everyday risks that it entails. Concretely the police believe that: citizens are passive and indifferent to the criminal events in their environment, reluctant to provide assistance and information to the police; insufficiently cooperate, provide information and necessary assistance to the police during the intervention; there is a general mistrust of each other; citizens openly oppose justified interventions of the police, there is an open criticism of the police, and often open hostility and antagonism.

The existing relationship between the police and the public has a negative impact on the security situation, as the passivity of citizens in reporting and suppression of incidents appears to be ultimately conducive to increasing crime and reducing personal and property security of citizens.

Such a causal link clearly shows that it is necessary to work on establishing and improving relations between the police and the public. "Public confidence in the police is a prerequisite for effective policing. Without this trust they will not be willing to report crimes and give the police the information needed for a successful operation."¹¹ The improvement of these relations, especially coaxing the public to the side of the police, i.e. gaining trust and support, is extremely difficult and complex.

Police organizations in modern and democratic countries make more determined efforts to improve their reputation in the public, opening up for the media and using different techniques for this purpose. One way to be sure is to provide public insight into police work and to cultivate communication and mutual understanding between the public and the police. Without the consent of the public, the police would be imposing their services rather than responding to the needs of society. The main feature of the democratic police force represents policing with the consent of the people. Policing must be predictable. It must be clear what the public can expect from the police, and these expectations should be realistic. The police must send a strong signal to all within and outside the organization that, due to its high professional standards, the organisation will perform its job well, be open and approachable, and not tolerate the abuse of power, corruption, neglect of duty or overstepping of authority, nor will they cover any acts of wrongdoing. Moreover, this signal should be sent to and by every police officer individually.¹²

"Public confidence and positive attitude of the police can be taken as a key value in a police philosophy and specific police activities. Without sufficient public support in a democratic law-based state there cannot be talk about the success of the execution of police activities."¹³ Therefore, all democratic countries, including ours, tend to form stable, yet flexible police organizations, which are characterized by specialization and professionalism and which enjoy good reputation and public trust. Only such police will be able to respond to new security challenges, risks and threats.

In order for the relations between police and the public to be at the required level, it is necessary to adhere to certain principles of police work that are accepted in most democratic countries. These principles are as follows: /1/ police must be focused and must act in accordance with the principles of democracy. /2/ The work of police officers must be guided by the code of professional work. /3/ The police must have as its highest priority the protection of

11 Greenwood, D., Huisman S. (2005). *Transparency and Accountability of Police Forces, Security Services and Intelligence Services*. Geneva: DCAF.

12 <http://www.osce.org/sr/secretariat/23808?download=true>, 15.01.2016.

13 Masleša, R., (1999), *op.cit.*, p. 411.

life. /4/ The police must serve the people and respond to the people they serve, which means that the essence of police work in the service of the community. /5/ The protection of life and property is the primary function of policing. /6/ The police must perform its tasks while respecting human dignity and basic human rights of all persons. /7/ The police must carry out their tasks in a non-discriminatory manner.¹⁴

Not only police should strive to establish good relations between the police and the public, but also citizens, because these relations are an indispensable factor if they strive to protect the vital values of society and achieve security for all citizens. In the process of European integration and democratization, success of police is measured by how much they respect the rights of citizens and whether they have a good relationship with the community, and not only, as before, by the number of solved crimes and other operational indicators.

COMMUNITY POLICING AND THE CONDITIONAL TRUST AND SUPPORT OF THE PUBLIC

Without good and stable relations between the police and the public there is no effective police, and there the concept of community policing cannot be implemented at all. Without a relationship of mutual trust, understanding and respect for both sides there is no real prerequisite for the implementation of a new model of community policing. These relationships are crucial for the establishment of partnerships with community and problem-oriented work as the main components of the concept of community policing.

This model requires the police officers to be located close to or in the area for which they are competent, and to encourage daily contact of police with citizens, in order to ensure mutual exchange of information in connection with all phenomena and activities that can lead to problems that most often cause the occurrence of crime. In addition, police officers should be trained and encouraged to teach citizens that they directly and in cooperation with the police take part in solving security problems, with special attention to the protection of children, young people, old people and other risk groups.

Good relations between the public and the police are not the only objective pursued by the police in the community, but also a precondition for its success. Therefore, on these relationships must invest and work on their improvement and enrichment, and the concept of community policing is a creative process that makes it possible. This concept openly argues that preventing and combating crime is not only the task of the police, but the whole community, and in this sense is committed to the establishment of closer relations between the police and all structures of society.

The very idea of the concept of community policing, and understanding of impact of public on its operations, is not new. In this testimony, as mentioned above, the strategy of the British police in 1829, which stated that the police should act preventively with a focus on constant patrol and their success based on the support and involvement of the public.¹⁵

The concept of community policing is not only a program, a new model of performing police work, but it's a whole new philosophy of police-civil cooperation, with the aim of determining the problems, the needs of the community and harmonious work in identifying these needs.¹⁶ This concept of the relationship of the police and the public demands more than

¹⁴ Jovičić, D., (2011), *Javna bezbednost*, Banja Luka, Fakultet za bezbednost i zaštitu, pp. 112-113.

¹⁵ Milosavljević, B., (1997), *Nauka o policiji*, Beograd, Policijska akademija, p. 252.

¹⁶ More about the concept of community policing: Nikač, Ž., (2014), *Policija u zajednici*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, pp. 48-49.

just informing the public about developments and events that threaten their safety or operational activities of the police, but a much deeper and better relationship that involves public participation in specific activities in achieving security in the community or joint operation of the police and the community. Safety problems in the world are such that more police cannot oppose them alone, without the help, cooperation and participation of the public and the community.

The establishment of good relations between the police and the public is a long and painstaking work that requires planning, time, patience and flexibility on both sides, as well as the existence of an adequate reputation and special status of community policing. The mutual trust between the police and the public is difficult to build and very easy to distort by even the smallest incorrect or inadequate police responses. Therefore, for the good relations between the police and the public is not only important functioning of the entire police organization, but every individual police officer.

It is necessary to create a new basis on which the police can effectively it works on the principles of the new philosophy, organization and style of work. The first thing to be done is to mobilize public support and regain its trust in the police. In order police improve its functioning and became a public service for citizens, must be more focus on "problems" and not as far to the "case". It is necessary for the police to establish a systematic process review (records) and analysis of the problems that the public expects to be resolved. When planning and preparation any preventive programs, venture or other actions, it is necessary to consult the public, because in the absence of public participation in its adoption, chances are that the program experienced a failure.

Police need public sympathy since it needs to seek information in all layers of the population, receive criminal complaints and information about other negative social phenomena and with the help of the public discovers and catches their stakeholders, influence the public to minimize infringing regulations in its jurisdiction, and ensure yourself sympathy regarding the acquisition of funds for its own functioning (salaries, flats, equipment). Public support is necessary in the implementation of laws and regulations, undertaking of the operational and tactical measures and actions, the implementation of a specific program, receiving budgetary funds for equipment, buildings and staff. Hostile public contributes that the tasks of the police are becoming more numerous and working conditions less favourable. Police encounter difficulties at every step, which negatively affects the motivation and morale of their members.¹⁷

On the one hand, public support is necessary to have received the information necessary for preventing and solving crime problems. On the other hand, by means of social control, the wider community has the opportunity to directly contribute to improving the social environment. The police can serve as a catalyst by inviting people to accept their share of responsibility for the overall quality of life in their community. In exchange for support, individuals who abide by the laws deserve the opportunity to give their contribution to the work of the police, the police must be prepared to listen and to act in accordance with their requirements and problems. This approach of partnership between the police and the wider community may, however, be achieved only if both parties to establish trust.¹⁸ That is why communication with the public must be regular, proactive, reciprocal, transparent and inclusive. The police should use a wide spectrum of channels and mechanism for sharing information with the public. The commitment of the police to serve the citizens requires that citizens be acquainted with all aspects of police work, the problems they are facing, plans, methods and goals towards which the organisation strives.

¹⁷ Kešetović, Ž., (2000), *op.cit.*, p. 111.

¹⁸ Dobra iskustva u izgradnji partnerstava između policije i šire društvene zajednice, pripremio viši policijski savetnik Generalnog sekretara OEBS-a, OSCE, Beč, 2008, str. 14.

The existence of public confidence in the police even more is important in countries that have different multi-ethnic composition, like our country. And if we add that it and its immediate vicinity, until recently, existed armed conflicts in which the police forces participated, and the existence of a long tradition of repressive and undemocratic mode, recognizes all the complexities of establishing good relations between the police and the public in our country.

The Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia set by and developing practice of community policing as one of its strategic goals.¹⁹ If the Serbian police really want to begin to implement a new model of community policing, they must, in addition to work on improving their reputation, strive to gain the respect, understanding and support of the public, which will finally result in cooperation and immediate assistance to citizens.

Bearing in mind the historical development of our police organisation and modern practice in its operations, it will be a great challenge and a very difficult task. The Serbian police still carry a heavy heritage of the nineties which have left bad consequences for the police. Increased mistrust of the citizens towards the police results in the lack of readiness to cooperate with the police. This was contributed more intense and stronger, sometimes less and sometimes more visible, link between the police and crime. A wave of corruption in society has penetrated the police ranks. All of this, together with the lack of ethical codes and the absence of external and internal controls, resulted in an unprofessional police.

A large gap between the police and the public, lack of trust and respect, the lost reputation of the police, the coming years and decades it was difficult to compensate in spite of efforts in this direction. Although since then made many changes in the police organization to create an efficient and professional police, still has a lot of work on the creation of a modern police that will enjoy public confidence and that will serve as a good basis for the establishment and realization of community policing. In the Serbian police is still present predominantly traditional way of policing, which focuses on repression and excessive use of force, with a minimum contacts with citizens and uninterested in their problems with an extremely bureaucratic and centralized way of work.

The lack of public participation in any part of implementing the new model of community policing, will inevitably judge him to fail, and every action taken in this regard shall be deemed a political decision imposed "from above" without any real will to change the existing situation. Although established basic guidelines for the development of community policing in the Republic of Serbia, adopted the community policing strategy²⁰ and action plan for its implementation, they are still only the first steps on the establishment and functioning of community policing, while most of the work is yet to come. This is a lengthy process that requires substantial changes in the performance of police tasks and organizational structure of the police."Achieving a strong partnership with the community and the elimination of the main causes of crime in the community requires planning, flexibility, time and patience. Availability and transparency of the police organization for all citizens who live in the local community and responding to their needs, concerns and requirements is the basis of modern ways of policing."²¹ It is necessary to win over the public "on your side" and the establishment of good relations between the police and the public, who for many years burdened with misunderstandings and disagreements." If the police ignore their relations with the public, there is a situation that is being relegated to the repressive functioning because the public is not ready for wider preventive, socio-psychological and socio-pedagogical endeavour and cannot properly understand the interest they share with the police."²²

19 Strategija razvoja Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova, 2011-2016. [http://www.mup.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/Strategija razvoja MUP-a 2011-2016.pdf](http://www.mup.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/Strategija%20razvoja%20MUP-a%202011-2016.pdf)

20 „Službeni glasnik RS“, br. 43/13.

21 Litavski, J., *Kako do uspešne implementacije koncepta policije u zajednici u Srbiji*, Zbirka predloga praktične politike za reformu policije u Srbiji, br. 8/2013, Beograd, Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku, Beogradski centar za ljudska prava, p. 26

22 Kešetović, Z., (2000), *op.cit.*, p. 111.

SOME MODALITIES OF COOPERATION BETWEEN THE PUBLIC AND COMMUNITY POLICING

As soon as he saw the importance of good relations between the public and the police for its effectiveness, police around the world have struggled to various measures and means to improve this relationship. As already pointed out in this paper, these good relations are particularly important for the realization of the concept of community policing to the extent that they represent the essence of its existence. The need to establish good relations with the public, police determined the basic guidelines of the development of community policing in the Republic of Serbia and is reflected through its vision, mission, and values of community policing and strategic objectives that were identified in community policing strategy.

For this reason, under this concept, in the process of its establishment and implementation, devise and implement different forms of cooperation between the public and the police in the community. One must gain the public on their side, but it is not always easy to implement, especially if there is no trust between the two sides. This is especially the case in countries in transition, like ours, considering that the level of democratic work of policies much to be desired, and the police in our recent history is often used as a repressive instrument of the state against political opponents. Therefore, the support and trust of the public can not be assumed, but must win and deserve.

Community policing strategy as a strategic objective determined strengthens citizens' trust and the community in the police. This can be done through activities: /1/ Informing of the community and increasing confidence in the police and /2/ Informing police about facts of importance for its work.

Among the many modalities for cooperation between the public and the police, the most recognizable and most characteristic for community policing is the direct contact and communication with police officers.

Policeman, as the foremost and most recognizable segment of the community police, usually is a factor on the basis of which the public gets the impression and builds its attitude towards the "whole" police service. His appearance, professionalism, behaviour, education, eloquence, decency, honesty, "in favour or to the detriment" reputation of the police, that has a direct impact on the strengthening or weakening public confidence in the police. Each policeman is a kind of spokesman of the police who is in charge of public relations. His behaviour is not only important for his personal reputation, but also for the entire police organization of which he is a member, because it will public their opinion on the police to build on the basis of personal experiences arising from direct contact with him. Kindness of policemen, tact in approaching the victim, the willingness to provide assistance, competence and culture in their contacts, validity of technical resources and police equipment, speed and quality of intervention, contributes to the model of "serving the citizens" becoming the generally accepted way of police work in relation to the citizens as users of services. Visibility and accessibility of policemen contributes to the improvement and establishment of regular, two-way channel of communication between the public and the police. In this way, cooperation is encouraged and mutual trust is established between the police and the public.

As one of the most important factors in establishing good relations between the police and the public appear media. This modality of cooperation with the public is perhaps the most vulnerable because they have to respect certain rules of mutual communication in order not to violated freedom of the media, but also withhold information whose disclosure would endanger police investigations or other confidential information of importance for the maintenance of security in the country or community.

Current relationship between the police and the media is not satisfactory. Police is not satisfied with the media, because it is not shown in a positive light, but even the media are not satisfied with the police, because information submitted to arbitrarily and selectively.

Because of the importance of the media and the fact that the mutual relation can be full of challenges and conflicts, the police must be prepared and trained to manage their contacts with the media. In this sense, it is essential to specifically authorize persons who will communicate with the media. These can be trained and experienced liaison officers, spokesmen, authorized police officers, representatives for the press, who will communicate with the media impartially, eloquently and professionally or special organizational units such as offices for relations with the media. In order to develop mutual tolerance and respect workshops and other forms of training can be organized for representatives of the media and the police, at which they would be mutually acquainted with various aspects of their jobs and simultaneously develop mutual cooperation and trust. Good relations with the media and clear rules governing mutual contacts increase the effectiveness of policing.

The media should be used to inform the public about the reform measures which are taken, but also for the overall improvement of the image of the police and promoting good relationships.

Police use other modalities of establishing cooperation with community and try to obtain a partner in the fight against crime. This is because effective policing directly depends on good cooperation and trust between the police and the public. Therefore, in many countries in which the concept of community policing is applied developing various forms of formal and informal forms of cooperation, including the direct participation of citizens in police activities. Some of the most common are:

Creation of various preventive, educational and other programs which seek to influence the public to enhance its readiness to act against crimes and general crime prevention. These programs must be adapted to the characteristics of the public or the community in which it will be applied (its economic, age, educational structure, ethnic and religious affiliation, etc.), and specific target groups that exist in the community.

Creation of advisory police bodies with the aim to familiarize citizens with the most appropriate preventive action and improvement of the security situation in the community (for example, preventing theft and burglary, property marking, installation of alarm systems and other means for securing, etc.).

Involving citizens in performing certain, less dangerous, police work, mostly *ad hoc*, but may be permanent form, with the aim of mutual rapprochement and the creation of trust.

Special attention is paid to certain categories of the population, such as returnees, juvenile delinquents, deviant group prone to commit offences and criminal acts in general or certain types etc.

Printing various promotional materials such as posters, flyers, brochures, newsletters, etc.

Recording films, special programs, video clips, commercials, and other information campaigns in newspapers, radio, television, the Internet, which popularize the police, good community relations and mutual cooperation. Such campaigns can have positive and mobilizing effect.

Organize the participation of representatives of the police in educational institutions in order to maintain the different lectures, for example, on traffic safety, the harmfulness of drugs, the influence of religious sects, peer violence, the dangers of the Internet, etc.

Organize informal socializing with the citizens, such as sporting events, concerts, police celebrations, exhibitions (e.g. seized drugs, apparatus for forging money and documents, moulds for casting).

Also, on the *special events like marking the Day of the Police* or other police parades, as well as extremely attractive, for citizens, especially the youngest, a demonstration of police skills, processes and procedures (search of a person, taking fingerprints, shooting exercises, polygraph testing) and other police actions that contribute to a better image (reputation) of police in public.

Introduces an open-door policy and thus allows citizens to visit police premises and laboratories, directly acquainted with the work of the police, its organization, resources, equipment and others. This is an opportunity for the police to hear complaints, problems, suggestions of citizens, but also simultaneously to get to know them with the introduction of a new style of community policing and the benefits it brings to the community.

Meetings, lectures, panel discussions, TV and radio programs, in which the police managers will answer questions of interested citizens.

Within the different modalities for cooperation between the public and the police, *special attention is paid to minority and socially vulnerable groups* (in terms of nationality, sex, age, disability and developmental disabilities, sexual orientation, then, refugees and internally displaced persons, etc.).²³ Regular communication and practical cooperation of the police, which is sensitive to the problems of those categories of persons, and to more responsive to their security needs, with the consequence that minorities and vulnerable groups have much more benefit from the work of the police. Such experiences are not retained for itself, already spreading any further, which improves the reputation of the police and bringing it closer to the public.

Each of these modalities for cooperation between the public and the police, contributions to the public to get to know with a new way of police work which focus on the delivery of services to citizens, rights and responsibilities of the community and the benefits that it has on the community policing. Individually and together form and affect the relations between the public and policeman interactive modalities for cooperation between the public and the police, contributions to the knowledge of the police about the public attitudes, as well as their exchange and establishing cooperation. The police should regularly and proactively communicating with the public and exchanges information, as this is essential for community policing, a community allow their opinions, experiences, proposals, suggestions contribute police planning, decision making and action.

CONCLUSION

The issue of relations between the public and the police is considered one of the central issues in the work of the police in any modern democratic country. It becomes even more important in the process of establishing and functioning of the community policing. What kind of attitude the public will assume towards implementation of the concept of community policing depends on the general relationship between the police and the public and the level of democratic policing that already exists in a society. Even the best relationships require additional support and confidence for this new way of community policing in order to contribute to the improvement of the quality of life by promoting a sense of security. This is a long process which requires joint work of the police and the public, understanding and effort on both sides.

²³ About relationship of the police with minorities and socially vulnerable groups of citizens more in: Nikač, Ž., (2012), *Koncept policije u zajednici i početna iskustva u Srbiji*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, pp. 102-122.

In our country there is a legacy of poor relations and mistrust between the police and the public. Such circumstances require additional efforts by the police in the process of transition from a traditional to a new model of community policing. It is necessary inform the public in detail of this new philosophy of police work, which assumes full democratization of policing and their redirection from “use of force” to “providing services”. Also, community policing implies the transformation of the police in a democratic institution, which is freed from dependence on political structures and responsible in its work, not only within the justice system but also directly to the public. The public needs to express a clear position and to provide unequivocal support for the establishment and functioning of the community policing. If there is no cooperation and public support there is a high probability that this concept will be doomed to failure and remembered only as a project that was done under pressure from the international community without a sincere desire to change the present situation and reform the police.

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STRUCTURING OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL UNIT FOR SECURITY THREAT ASSESSMENTS OF CERTAIN PERSONS AND FACILITIES

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Abstract: This paper questions the structuring of the organizational unit for security threat assessments of certain persons and facilities. In this regard, this paper is processing the following: 1) basic assumptions about organizational structure, 2) starting points on the design of organizational structure, 3) analysis of key activities as supporting structural elements of the organization, 4) analysis of contribution of the key activities that affect the elements of the organizational structure, 5) relational analysis of the elements of the organizational structure, 6) the rules and peculiarities of formation of the organizational structure and 7) creation of a new model of organizational structure of the organizational unit for making security threat assessments of certain persons. The paper is focused on explaining the importance of centralization of making security threat assessments of certain persons and facilities, as well as the need for structuring, i.e. the creation of a new unit for making assessments. Special attention is paid to the theoretical model of the structural organization of the unit for security threat assessments of certain persons and facilities, as well as its graphical modeling due to the need for visualization of the newly created organizational architecture. All of the above, relating to the structuring of the organizational unit for security threat assessments of certain persons and facilities is subject to the constant need for improving of the functioning and operation of units engaged in security of persons and facilities. Undoubtedly, enhancing their work affects the increase in the security of persons and facilities. Moreover, some attention in the paper is paid to the proposal for an action plan to make this model come to life in practice.

Keywords: structuring, security assessment, endangering security, certain person, the security protection

INTRODUCTION

Threat assessment of certain persons and facilities represents the very first step in planning protective measures for certain persons and facilities.² The threat assessment is baseline upon which depends what particular security measures would be undertaken and to what extent. Available legislation and other regulations which should define the process of deriving threat assessment, including possible experts in the process, as well as using any needed material resources, suggest that this field is not defined enough. On the one hand, it is the result of the lack of commitment to this area of security services, while, on the other hand, a real

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² Term "certain persons and facilities" refers to those persons and facilities upon which security services undertake protection measures, based on legislation or the relevant authority's order.

obstacle is the need and obligation to keep these measures highly classified, which often makes them unavailable for research.

In all available materials there has been no record of a single document that refers to structural organization of an organizational unit that deals with assessing security threats of certain persons. The case is the same with both domestic and foreign security services. Analysing available written materials, it was not possible to determine if there are separate units within security services that are responsible for threat assessments, what their internal structure and organization would be, or on what principles it would be based. In security experts' opinion, from the field of threat assessment, there is no unique service or a particular department which deals with threat assessing.³ Therefore, there is a real need for formulating theoretical postulates regarding organizational structure in order to define a proposition for this type of unit.

BASIC POSTULATS REGARDING ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The very first task in applying any strategy is definition and selection of a suitable organizational structure, i.e. adequate organizational unit which would work on applying a chosen strategy. If we understand the definition of an organization as a group of people integrated in order to achieve certain goals in commerce or society, it is clear that "organising is a process of defining a task that needs to be fulfilled, as well as creating adequate structure needed for fulfilling such a task".⁴ In fact, organizational structure is a means to a cause. In order to define a suitable organizational structure, one should have in mind specific tasks that it should fulfill.

Specifics of organizational structuring come from the goal which a given organization sets for itself, in accordance with its abilities and needs. In order to achieve that preset goal/task, it needs to be divided in segments, which upon completion contribute to achieving a general goal. The defined organizational structure is in compliance with general and particular tasks and supports the principle of work distribution in a way that it is assembled out of a number of organizational units that deal with one particular task. Work distribution implies taking a general, global task and dividing it into sections, and as a result, each individual performs a certain task which contributes to overall achieving a given global task, strategy, or a project.⁵ Organizational structure represents symbiosis of both human and material resources in a way that they in an optimal fashion could contribute to a task completion.

When choosing organizational structure, one should bear in mind that it represents a means to achieve a given goal. Which particular organizational structure is going to be chosen, depends on a number of factors, but defying one is a success in fulfilling the strategy, or a global goal. For a favourable choice, one needs to analyse the process of forming organizational structure and different available examples of forming different organizations or theoretical models. British management theorist, Massie J.L. says that effective strategy implementation requires a manager to consider numerous key influences, while a leader decides how to structure an organization and how to manage people and resources in order to achieve defined organizational plans.⁶

3 Report of the Commission for investigation of assassination of Zoran Djindjic, Serbian Prime Minister, stated that Zoran Djindjic's threat assessment never existed and that it was unclear who was responsible for it.

4 Јовановић, М., *Стратегијски менаџмент*, Мегатренд, Београд, 2001, p.70

5 See: Schermerhorn, R.J., *Management and Organizational behavior*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1996

6 See: Massie, J.L., *Essential of Management*, Prentice Hall, London, 1987

BASELINE IN SHAPING ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Despite traditional organization theories, contemporary theories insist more on better explanation of principles, methods, criteria and rules of forming and developing organizational structure, and deal less with providing definitive answers and showing good model examples of organizational structures (although these models are most often of an empirical nature and proven to be efficient and show good results in practice). Therefore, it is of the essence to lay out briefly the procedure of developing organizational structure. There are four basic questions that organizer faces in identifying and modelling organizational structure elements:

Which parts of organization should be defined as organizational units?

1. Which components should be integrated and which separated?
2. What shape and size suits different components?
3. How to arrange and interconnect different organizational units?

There are no absolutely correct answers to these questions, but in respect to certain principles, criteria, methods and rules effective organizational structure can be defined. According to Obrad Stevanovic, "organizational structure basically consists of four dimensions (levels of organization): 1) macrostructure (organizational level), 2) mesostructure (group level), 3) microstructure (individual level of organization) and 4) infrastructure (structural connections)."⁷ Macrostructure consists of basic organizational units (sectors, departments...) and their relations. Mesostructure consists of internal organizational units (directorates, divisions, groups, teams...) grouped in macro structural units. Microstructure consists of working positions, their number, types, conditions for applying to those and their internal relations within each organizational unit. Infrastructure represents internal ties formed between elements of macrostructure, mesostructure and microstructure, as well as relations of authority, responsibility and coordination between them.

KEY ACTIVITY ANALYSIS

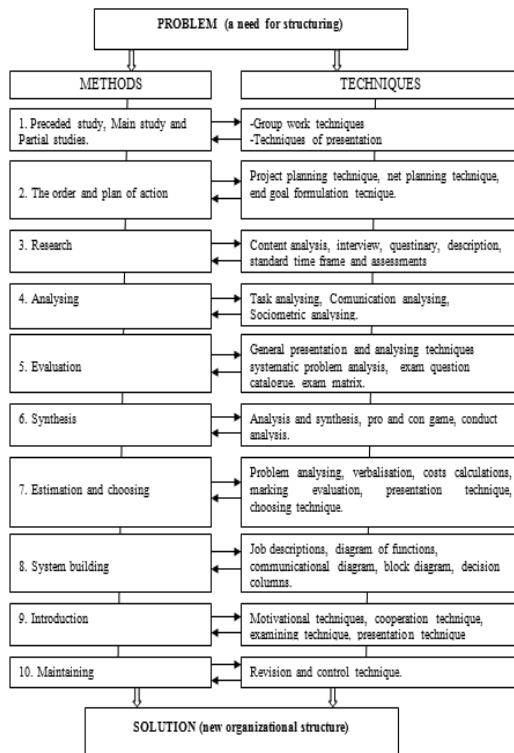
Identifying basic structure elements does not mean analysing all of the organization activities, just those being fundamental, key activities. Therefore, shaping of an organization, as Peter Drucker⁸ says starts with questions: 1) In which areas perfect compliance is required in order to meet organization goals? 2) Which are the most sensitive areas – areas which malfunction in organization would cause serious damage or endanger the existence of the endeavour? 3) What are the values of exceptional importance for the organization?

Using those three questions as identification criteria, a list of key activities can be formulated – structural elements of organization. All other activities are secondary however important they seem, regardless of the number of employees and material resources they engage. Of course, they should also be analyzed, organized, and positioned inside the structure, but main concern must be essential activities crucial for business strategy and reaching organization goals. The main rule is to identify, define organize and position key activities in the centre of a given structure. During modelling of an organizational structure, adequate techniques and methods are used (Scheme No. 1), which lead from starting problem, a need for structuring an organization, to a solution (a new organizational structure). Key activities analysis is not performed in case of new organizations. It is needed for existing organizations as well, when they reach their biggest successes, fast and rapid productivity growth, because growth can be

⁷ Стевановић, О., *Безбедносни менаџмент*, КПА, Београд, 2012, p.144

⁸ Drucker, P.F., *Management – Tasks, responsibilities, Practice*, Harper Busines, USA, 1993

a factor of destabilization and disorientation. Besides, it is needed every time an organization changes strategy, because changed strategy requires adjustments in organizational structure.



Scheme No.1: Lindelaub's overview of methods and techniques used during projecting of organizational structure⁹

KEY ACTIVITIES CONTRIBUTIONS ANALYSIS

In order to structure new organization, it is needed to group certain tasks together. Which tasks can be grouped, and which ones should stay separate is decided according to the analysis of what type of contribution they make.¹⁰ There are four groups of activities:

1. activities in producing results,
2. support activities,
3. general activities and
4. top management activities.

Activities in producing measurable results are directly or indirectly tied to overall organization results and its ability to function. These activities include those tasks which directly show result or express direct care for the main goal. This group comprises works of experts in charge of particular vital segments for the organization functioning.

⁹ Lindelaub, H., *Anderthalbjahrzehnt Organisatoren – Ausbildung u: Zeitschritt tur Organization*, Wienbaden, 1980

¹⁰ See: Дулановић, Ж., *Пројектовање организационе структуре*, ФОН, Београд, 1995.

Although necessary, even essential, support activities do not produce work results. They produce results only when other parts of an organization use their results. The first group of support activities would be quality organizing activities. Setting standards, creating visions and controlling performance in regard to those standards, especially in key areas, where an organization needs highest levels of performance. The second group of support activities consists of advisory and education function within an organization, seen in a traditional sense of the term. Contribution of these activities is recognized through their ability to influence other parts of the structure in order to function and create results. Activities needed for systematic and organized conducting of designated tasks are work planning, research possibilities, training of the employees and work management, as well as financial activities toward ensuring adequate material and technical resources.

The third group of support activities that produce results are information activities. These activities as their "final product" have information which is needed by all other parts of the system. The success of conducting information activities can be evaluated if not quite accurately defined and measured. Based on information, the work results are achieved and final documents are being made.

The last group of activities defined by their contribution represent activities of maintaining protection of data, acquiring necessary commodities, data storage, etc. These activities have neither direct nor indirect relation to an end goal and organization results. These activities do not contribute to achieving set results or functioning of the organization as a whole, but without them an organization would suffer.

This is a very strict classification that has no intention of being purely scientific, especially because in a particular business organization they would be classified in one, and in another in a different group of activities, while in another they would be left completely outside this classification. A question emerges: Why classify? The answer would be that activities differ by their contribution, and as such should be treated. Contribution defines rang and position of an activity in a way that:

- key activities should never be subordinated to a non-key activity;
- activities that produce results should never be subordinated to those which do not;
- support activities should not be mixed with activities that produce results.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE ELEMENTS RELATIONAL ANALYSIS

A final step in shaping organizational structure is relational analysis. It determines a position of a particular component in overall structure dealing with the issues, such as: what other component a given one would have to cooperate with; what is expected of it; and what does it expect out of others. A basic rule says that a particular activity should be burdened with as little ties as possible. At the same time, activity should be positioned in such a way that it allows essential ties, ties that determine its success and effectiveness of its contribution, or simply accessible and central to an organizational unit it belongs to. The rule is, therefore, keeping the number of ties at a minimum and making them significant.

The way in which activities are positioned within organizational structure lies a difference between the model that is shown here and traditional functional organizations. Traditional approach dictates that work planning should be positioned together with all other planning activities in a single organization unit. On the other hand, relational analysis places a work planner to a high level manager as close as possible, "way in the production"; so to speak,

where he belongs according to the importance of ties he needs to maintain in the process.

If a conflict breaks out in the process of allocating activities based on the results of decision analysis as well as relational analysis, that conflict should be resolved in favour of the logic of relational analysis. Additionally, all four types of analysis of key activities should be performed as simply as possible, but should not be neglected or skipped altogether because they do have great significance in shaping organizational structure.

So far in this discussion about organizational structure theory of system approach has been followed: identification and defining elements, their position within the structure and their inner ties. However, an organization requires the architecture, structural regulations and principles. For the experts it means understanding the requirements of design specifications that a certain organizational structure should meet.

RULES AND SPECIFICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE SHAPING

Those who project organizations follow nine models of organizational structure which dictate allocation of activities and relations arrangements within the organizational structure.¹¹ Basic models are traditional and known throughout the years as: line, line-command post, functional and divisional models. The most important and the most developed ones are functional and divisional models. All other models are of a later date and represent basic models modifications and are known as: project models and matrix models, which are based on modified functional models, strategic business units, which are based on a modified division model. Nowadays, situational approach to organization is being developed, both in theory and in practice.

Although all of these forms are empirically based on targeted specific needs, all of them represent different understandings of how to model things.¹² Each of them takes one general, generic dimension of an organization as a foundation which is used to build a structure on. Work and assignment surely represent generic dimensions of an organization. And three of existing models of shaping/modelling are structured according to work and assignment: functional, project and matrix model. These models differ only as to which elements are considered to be static and which dynamic regarding an organization and the way they are to be balanced out. In functional organization, phases of work and skill are shaped as static elements, as where work moves from one to another component. With project and matrix structure, work is static, and skills, experts are transferred from one team to another, whatever tasks dictate. It would be incorrect to assume that these two principles are opposite and self excluding. They are even complement for one of the biggest organizational problems – structuring the work of experts.¹³

Relations are generic components of organizing and managing organizational structures as well. The last available principle of shaping, the so-called situational approach is in fact focused on relations. Relations are less in number and less clear to define than work and assignment or results, for that matter. This implies that a structure focused on relations would be more complex and not clear enough, but still more appropriate for certain organizational issues. Classification of the principles of organizational structure shaping according to the scale of management they are based-on draws to a conclusion that there should be at least one more

11 See: Gouilart, F.J., *Transforming the Organization*, McGraw-Hill inc., New York, 1995

12 Compare with: Ansoff, H.I., *Corporate Strategy*, Penguin Books, London, 1977, p. 122

13 Ibid, p. 196

principle of shaping. A principle would be focused on the decision, because decision making is as important dimension of organizing as work and assignment, results and relations are.

It should be pointed out that every available model, principles of structure modelling, is based on only one dimension of a multidimensional entity such as the organization, which means that all of them have their specific limitations. Each and every one is good for some of them, applicable but not as efficient for others, and completely wrong for some other tasks. Furthermore, each principle creates a demand for specific kind of management and organization in general.

Any given structure by definition has to fulfil certain demands that have nothing to do with the purpose of the structure, but are inherent to the nature of the structure. Structures are forms, and forms need to meet formal specifications. Organizational structure has to fulfil the minimum requirements regarding clarity, efficiency, vision driving, understanding what individual and collective goals are, decision making process, stability and adaptability, continuity in existing and ability to regenerate.

Clarity of a structure states that each component of management, every individual within organization, especially the manager in charge knows where his place in organization lies, and where he can seek what he needs, information, council or a decision. Clarity does not imply simplicity. Complex structures can be clear, whereas a simple structure can lack clarity. A *need for efficiency* is in connection with clarity. Structure needs to be composed in such a way to make it possible to control, oversee and make people perform with a minimum of effort. Efficient structure should allow self control, encourage self initiative in order to make only a small number of people have to deal with management, organization, control, communication or human resources related issues.

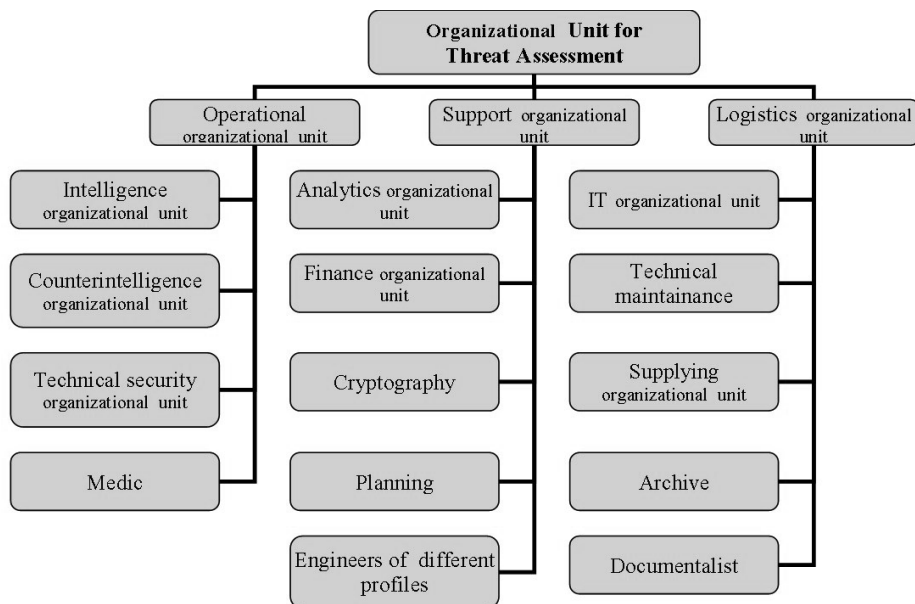
Driving the vision is a demand that enables the structure to drive individuals and organizational units to function together and create end results, having in mind the organization as a whole. Well shaped/formed and structured assignments will allow the individual to better understand its *specific role*, but at the same time as a member of an organization to understand the *common goal* – the goal of entire organization. Therefore, the structure of an organization is supposed to help and not block communication within organization. Although the dimension of decision making is never primary, decisions must be made regardless of the type of organization. Decisions are being made on an appropriate organizational level and have to be transformed into work and actions.

Every organization, especially regarding individuals working within needs *stability*, in opposite to constant changing in working conditions. Besides stability, every organization needs a high level of adaptability seen as ability to adjust to any given situation, demand and work condition in order to endure. Lastly, an organization must secure *continuity* of its existence and ability to *regenerate*. This above all means that every organization must allow each employee to learn and develop. In order to last, an organization must be able to prepare employees how to cope with future demands, meaning it needs to be “open” and ready to accept new ideas.

All of the above can be applied to any given organization, no matter whether it is big, small, complex, simple business and non business one. Therefore, it can be applied to protective services, because they represent specialized purpose units. And within, it can be applied to those units responsible for deriving security threat assessment for certain persons.

CREATING AN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF A NEW MODEL OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL UNIT FOR SECURITY THREAT ASSESSMENT FOR CERTAIN PERSONS AND FACILITIES

Using shown theoretical basis, as well as empiric experiences of some experts who create threat assessments, factors that influence possible structural organization model of a unit in-charge of threat assessment derivation had been determined: lack of legislative framework; current organizational structure of these units is not in conjunction with the process of deriving threat assessment of certain persons and facilities; lack of written rules in threat assessing and applying protective measures in the process; lack of strategic planning in order to improve and regulate the process of threat assessing, overlapping with other security services and units; not being familiar with foreign services experinaces, their organizational structure, and contemporary models in the field of providing security for certain persons and facilities; lack of cooperation with domestic and foreign independent experts on the subject; not enough specialised personnel for creating assessments; not enough specialised agents in the field; not enough agents educated abroad; inadequate conditions for permanent education in threat assessment; inadequate simulated real situation training, lack of equipment; software, other material and finacial means; different views on what kind of specialists are required. The listed facors are synchronised with the content of a threat assessment for certain persons, and a new organizational structure model (proposition) of a security unit for creating threat assessments (scheme no. 2)¹⁴.



Scheme No. 2: *New Model of organizational structure of the organizational unit for security threat assessment of certain persons*

¹⁴ More information on organizational structure of security services can be found in: Subošić, D., Daničić M., *Bezbednosni menadžment – organizacija i odlučivanje*, Univerzitet Sinergija, Fakultet za bezbednost i zaštitu, Banja Luka, 2012.

This model, according to previously shown theoretical postulates, consists of head of the unit and a specialised unit which: 1) produces concrete measurable results in order to foresee needed protective measures for certain person (operational division), 2) support to security assessment process (support division), 3) general affairs (logistical division). Therefore, the suggested model consists of three organizational units, such as: Operational division, Support and Logistic.

Operational division consists of an intelligence section that gathers information, counterintelligence section for security protection of certain person and facility, as well as close protection officers, section for technical security (video surveillance, access control, fire protection, etc.) and a medic in charge of medical security of a certain person.

Support division should consist of an *analytics section* for processing all incoming data, planner, for organizing the work flow of the unit, a *cryptography* officer, for protecting secret written and electronic data, *finance section*, for taking care of financial and material matters, *engineers of different profiles* (electronics engineers, technicians...) that would be in charge for threat assessments of different facilities.

Logistics division would consist of IT sector for maintenance of information and electronic support systems, a document archive officer for storing and keeping classified documents, a supplier of material necessities, archive for storing documentation and section for technical maintenance.

Based on the described model, a new organizational unit for security threat assessment of certain persons and facilities could be formed. That unit could be part of the Directorate for security of certain persons and facilities. The Head of this unit would be responsible for his work and subordinated to the head of one of the previously mentioned Directorates in the Ministry of Interior or Military of the Republic of Serbia. Threat assessments would be made upon requests of heads of organizational units which are parts of these Directorates or heads of similar security services (such as Security Information Agency, Military Intelligence, Military Security Service, and Security Service of Ministry of Foreign Affairs). A newly formed unit would be using security data from similar security services besides its own security data.

CONCLUSION

Organizational structure of an organizational unit for threat assessment of certain persons and facilities represents a necessary tool in achieving full security protection. At the same time it represents symbiosis of human and material resources that in an optimal way contributes to successful task completion. The analysis of the key activities for organizational structure modelling of their grouping and their contribution can define contribution of proper organizational structure of the unit for security threat assessment of certain persons and facilities: production of results, assistance in decision making, and definition of general activities.

The principles of organizational structure modelling of a certain persons and security threat assessment organizational unit consists of clarity, efficiency in vision driving, understanding of individuals, decision making, stability and adaptability, continuity and ability to regenerate. Using these theoretical foundations, a new organizational structure model has been derived for a threat assessment unit of certain persons and facilities. Structured in such a way a given unit is capable of: 1) producing concret measureable results in order to foresee security measures that should be undertaken toward certain person or facility, 2) offering support to security assessment process, 3) conducting general tasks in order to secure the security assessment process.

In order to implement this model it is necessary to: a) change Police law and Army law, as well as other related legislation, b) issue a new rulebook for organization and systematisation of working positions in all security services relating to this matter, c) further and complete the guidelines for conducting the certain person and facilities security protection activities, d) create cooperation with domestic and foreign experts on the subject; e) conduct a program for education of personnel that would include education in field work, analytics, prognostics, physical and technical protection and f) provide necessary material and technical resources.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL EXPLORATION OF PERSONALITY OF THE NATIONAL FORENSIC CENTER EMPLOYEES FOR THE PURPOSE OF OPTIMISING ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AND WORK EFFICIENCY

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Abstract: Work at the National Forensic Center is stressful and responsible; therefore the choice of an adequate employee profile in accordance with the requirements of a certain post is of vital importance, both for the preservation of the employee's mental health and for the work efficiency. Led by this idea, in 2013 a team of the Center's psychologists, at the initiative of the management of the Center, conducted a comprehensive research aimed at obtaining an overview of employees in terms of their capacities, potentials and limitations, for the purpose of more precise predictions of their individual success, team success or management of others. The results have given a clear picture of the criteria based on which it can be foreseen in future which persons are adequate to work at the Center and which are the prototypes of a successful employee and a successful superior. The purpose of the research is strategic planning of optimizing the organizational structure, but also care for the employees in the context of improving cooperation and communication between the employees, as well as achieving optimal work atmosphere and efficiency of the Center. The persons adequate for work at the Center primarily have stable personal structure because of the nature of the work. The results have singled out "problematic" employees in terms of violating team atmosphere and inadequate performance of work, as well as those who might become "problematic". The results have shown that the most successful employees are those who are emotionally stable persons, with team orientation, who cope with stress well, organize their time efficiently, are disciplined, reliable and characterized by conventional behavior, given the structure of the Ministry of the Interior. The research has provided us with the model of a "good employee", which will help us find such an employee in practice during personnel selection. Likewise, we have also obtained a prototype of a successful superior who should be distinguished from others by good leadership and managerial skills and who will be a good planner and supervisor. As the new organizational structure has foreseen new managerial positions as well, the results of the research have been helpful as a tool to develop the structure and, consequently, functioning of the police organization.

Keywords: human potential management, team roles, emotional stability, prototype of a successful employee, prototype of a successful superior.

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INTRODUCTION

One of the key tasks of human resource management is to identify the needs of employees, as well as to screen their mental health, their values and interests, perceptions of the work environment and to harmonize the characteristics of employees with the structure of the work organization. By fulfilling this task, the benefit is twofold, both for employees and for employers. The achievements of a work organization and execution of the employees' work tasks certainly depend on the effective employment methods carried out by the human resource department, but also on the follow-up of the staff progress. It is therefore of great importance to be well acquainted with the job description and requirements of the job position, as well as with the psychological profile of the ideal candidate for such a position. To that end, our research was aimed at psychological exploration of personality, in order to get an overview of employees in terms of their personality characteristics that may represent their potentials and limitations. The purpose of the research was, therefore, strategic planning of optimization of the organizational structure, as well as care for employees in the context of preserving their mental health and improving cooperation and communication among employees, as well as optimal working atmosphere and efficiency of the Centre.

PERSONALITY AND EMOTIONAL STABILITY

Personality is one of the most important fields of research in human resource management, as it assumes the importance of personal values, perceptions and other characteristics for the achievement of workers.² We could say that personality traits come to the fore upon selection of candidates, evaluation, improvement and in communication between employees. It is particularly important to monitor employees and align their needs with the needs of the organization and work.³ A great number of research has been done in the field of human resources in the police force and certain authors believe that there is something called a police personality, which has certain characteristics more pronounced than general population.⁴ A number of authors point to traits such as courage, authoritarianism, cynicism, aggression, and focus on tasks, skepticism, pragmatism, assertiveness, energy and emotional stability.⁵ Given that the work of the National Forensic Center is very stressful and responsible, emotional stability of the staff is crucial in order to preserve their mental health and for operational efficiency and achievement of better work performance. Emotional stability refers to the ability of a person to react to the stimuli from the environment in a calm and composed manner, that is, to the number and strength of the stimuli that cause negative emotions in a person. Negative emotions are usually within the range of anxiety, worry or anger. Emotionally stable people need more stimuli in their environment and these stimuli must be very strong to bring them into trouble, whereas more reactive people react to larger varieties of stimuli which do not have to be strong to upset them.⁶ The study conducted by Detrick &

2 Forero C. G., Gallardo-Pujol D., Maydeu-Olivares A. & Andrés-Pueyo A. (2009). A Longitudinal Model for Predicting Performance of Police Officers Using Personality and Behavioral Data. *Criminal Justice And Behavior*, 36, 6, 591-606.

3 Stanton, N. & Matthews, G. (1995). "Twentyone traits of personality: An alternative solution for the occupational personality questionnaire", *Journal of Management Development*, 14, 7, 66 - 75.

4 Twersky-Glasner, A. (2005). Police Personality: What Is It and Why Are They Like That? *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 20,1, 56-67.

5 Hogue, M., Black, T., R. & Sigler, R. (1994). The differential use of screening techniques in the recruitment of police officers, *American Journal of Police*, 13,122 -131.

6 Smederevac, S. & Mitrović, D. (2006). *Ličnost-metod i modeli*. Beograd: Centar za primenjenu psihologiju.

Chibnall⁷ pointed to extraversion, emotional stability and responsibility as the predictors of successful performance of a job. On the other hand, Abrahamsen suggested in his study these properties, which he classified within the “personality of a police officer” as the characteristics that are positively correlated with the performance of police duties, clarity and responsibility in performing tasks. The same author has noticed a negative correlation between successful execution of tasks and emotional instability.

TEAM AND TEAM ROLES

Man is a social being and his life is inseparable from a group, both in private and in business life. The most important groups from career aspect and human resource management are work groups or teams. A team can be defined as a work group consisting of a small number of people with complementary skills, dedicated to a joint goal and considered mutually responsible for the manner and activities that lead to accomplishment of the goal.⁹ The team includes people with the necessary capabilities, knowledge and skills to perform certain tasks. People in teams have tendency to take on different team roles. Belbin¹⁰ believed that team roles are tendencies of persons to behave, contribute and connect with others in a precise manner. Depending on the role of a member of the team, he/she contributes differently to the success of the team. Belbin named nine team roles that influence the success of a team: Coordinator, Team worker, Plant, Shaper, Monitor–Evaluator, Implementer, Completer–Finisher, Resource Investigator and Specialist. Belbin’s questionnaire proved valuable in the assessment of an individual, assessment of a job post and suitability of a candidate, as well as the assessment of the team. Upon assessment of an individual, the result obtained in the questionnaire enables the growth of awareness about oneself and behaviour preferences, points to the work tasks that suit the person’s style of work best and lead to the feeling of fulfilment and satisfaction with the job post and determine the plan and development of career. Upon assessment of the job post, it provides clearly defined tasks, desirable characteristics and capabilities that the person should have. Upon the assessment of a team, it enables quality selection of team members, identification of team members with the strongest roles, understanding of unique strengths between the team members and optimal distribution of work tasks. Belbin believed that in order for a team to operate at its best, it should comprise one Coordinator who will be the leader, a Plant to stimulate ideas, an Evaluator to provide clarity and honesty in tasks and one or more Implementers, Team workers, Resource Investigators or Finishers to set the things in motion.

POLICE STYLES OF MANAGEMENT

Researches on the “prototype” or ideal profile of a police superior and employee are not numerous, but are mostly given as listings of personal characteristics that would be advisable for these posts or are given within the research of a “typical personality of a police officer”. However, a research of the National Institute of Justice in America points out that the way superiors implement their power and manage employees to a great extent affects the behaviour of police

7 Detrick, P. & Chibnall, John T. (2006). NEO PI-R personality characteristics of high-performing entry-level police officers. *Psychological Services*, 3, 4, 274-285.

8 Abrahamsen, S. (2006). *Police personality and the relationship between personality and preferences for conflict resolution tactics*. PHS Forskning, Oslo.

9 Gratton, L. & Erickson, T.J. (2007). Eight ways to build collaborative teams. *Harvard Business Review*, 85,11, 100-109

10 Belbin, R.M. (1993). *Team roles at work*. London, England-Butterworth-Heinemann.

officers and the feeling of security and respect within the team and can also influence the cooperation and communication between the team members¹¹. Abrahamsen identified four profiles of superiors: traditional, innovative, supporting and active. The traditional type requires strict compliance with the rules and hierarchy, with the accent on a more formal type of communication between the members, as well as an aggressive approach to work. The innovative type is characterized by orientation towards team members, rather than tasks and a more flexible approach to compliance with the norms. The aim of the innovative type is to help his employees solve problems through mentorship, facilitation and consultation. In contrast to the traditional type, the innovative type does not tell the employees what to do, but inclines towards mutual agreement and delegation. The supporting type is based on supporting the employee by protecting them from possible punishment and providing them with constant stimulus to cope with difficult situations. This type of the superior is very protective towards their team, protecting it from criticism and punishment from higher instances. He trusts his employees and is oriented towards creating good working atmosphere. The active type is characterized by directive approach to employees, decisiveness in making decisions, control of employees and their work, but also by encouragement of constant team building, equal participation of all members and respect. He sees his employees in a positive light.

Given the scarcity of research uniting the mentioned fields of operation at the police, we believe our research has enabled a better insight into the mental status of the employees and provided basis for strategic planning of optimization of organizational structure, as well as creation and implementation of a programme for enhanced cooperation and communication between the employees with a view to achieving maximally efficient work results.

METHOD

SAMPLE

The research was conducted in February 2013 in Belgrade, Novi Sad and Nis. A total of 118 employees at the Ministry of the Interior within the Division for Forensic Investigations participated in the research.

Most of the examinees are from Belgrade, from the Centre, seated at the Belgrade Police Department – 35 employees and 47 at the seat in Kneza Milosa Street. A total of 22 employees are from Novi Sad and 14 of them from Nis. With regard to the sections, most of the staff work at the Section for Physical and Chemical Examinations, followed by the Section for Physical Expertise and AFIS. As for the gender division, it can be seen from graph 3 that the equal number of men and women was tested in the sample and that the distribution of the sample with regard to professional qualifications is equal in both men and women. Most examinees have university education. The employees at the Division for Forensic Examinations were aged 25 to 63 and the average age was 40.35 years. In terms of distribution by hierarchy – 14 superiors and 104 performers were tested.

INSTRUMENTS

Plutchik emotionality test – measuring nine dimensions of emotional reactions – Incorporation, Protection, Orientation, Deprivation, Rejection, Aggression, Research and Reproduction.

11 Ashcroft, J., Daniels, D.J. & Hart, S. L. (2003). *How Police Supervisory Styles Influence Patrol Officer Behavior*. National Institute of Justice, USA.

Belbin's team roles test is an instrument constructed to determine which role an individual mostly has in a corporate system. According to Belbin, there are nine such roles, whose combinations can draw certain conclusions on the existing organization structure. In addition, the candidates suitable for advancement,

rewards, etc. can be determined. The nine basic roles are: Coordinator, Team Worker, Plant, Shaper, Monitor-Evaluator, Implementer, Completer-Finisher, Recourse Investigator, and Specialist.

360 degrees feedback is an instrument constructed for the needs of this research, for the purpose of assessing the quality of work of colleagues in a team and assessing a group cohesion. Two versions of the instrument were created, one designed to assess the superiors' work and the other to assess the employees' work.

The superiors' questionnaire consists of 19 items relating to the superiors' quality of work, their sensibility for management and people management and creation of quality team and work atmosphere. Reliability of this questionnaire expressed in Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.939, which means this instrument has reached high reliability. The analysis of major components shows that two factors stand out, the first of which is saturated with items 5, 1, 6, 10, 4, 3, 16, 9, 12, 19, 11, 13 and 2, while the second factor was saturated with items 14, 18, 17, 15, 7 and 8. With regard to the item content, the first factor could be named Management and organizational skills, and the second Creating a pleasant working atmosphere.

The employee questionnaire consists of 18 items relating to the employees' quality of work, the quality of communication with colleagues, reliability in performance of tasks, strive for improvement and advancement. Reliability of this questionnaire is 0.919, which is a high reliability. Factor analysis of major components shows three factors standing out. The first factor is explained by items 11, 7, 9, 17, 8, 10, 18, 14, 13, 5, the second factor is explained by items 1, 2, 3 and 6, while the third is explained by items 16, 12, 15 and 14. With regard to the item content, the first factor could be named Collegiality, the second Expertise and the third Leadership potential.

VARIABLES

Scores on the first major components of scale, gender, age, professional qualifications.

STATISTICAL DATA PROCESSING

All data are processed in statistical software package SPSS 19.0 for Windows and the procedures used were descriptive analysis, factor analysis and one-way analysis of variance.

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The testing was conducted in Belgrade, Novi Sad and Nis in February 2013.

THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

ASSESSMENT OF SUPERIORS

A total of 14 superiors were assessed, three of which are from the Belgrade division, five from Belgrade – head office and three from Nis and Novi Sad respectively. All superiors have university education. Their age is from 40 to 52, the average being 45.5 years.

BELBIN'S TEAM ROLES

In terms of Belbin's team roles, Chart 1 shows average scores by subscales representing individual team roles. As shown in the Chart, the highest average scores were obtained for the subscales Finisher and Monitor-Evaluator. When it comes to the role of the Monitor-Evaluator, its strengths are his sober, strategic and careful thinking, ability to see all options and precise judgments. The weakness of this role is that people with a high score on this scale lack the drive and ability to inspire others. The role of the Finisher is characterized by conscientiousness, which is extremely important for work at the Ministry of the Interior, the ability to search out errors and omissions and the diligence in completing tasks in time. Even though this result may be contradictory, as one role refers to employees and the other to leaders, such a result is most probably the consequence of overlapping of work tasks of superiors themselves (i.e., most probably the chiefs are not only chiefs, but also employees in some situations). Besides, most superiors who were tested are not only chiefs, but are employees themselves (e.g., they work in laboratories). The lowest scores were achieved in the role of the Plant, which relates to unconventional, creative and imaginative persons, but who may be too preoccupied to communicate effectively. As the Ministry of the Interior is a conservative and conventional institution with hierarchical organization and strict rules, persons with high score in this role most probably would not adjust to such an environment.

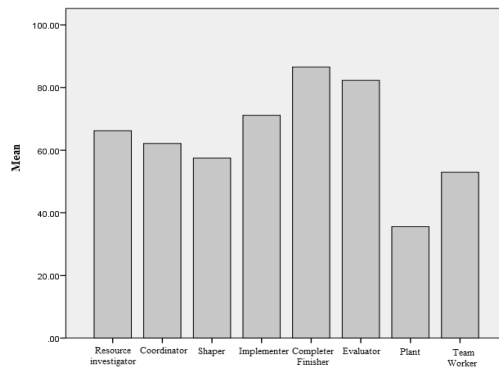


Chart 1: Average scores by subscales of Belbin's Team roles questionnaire

Looking at individual results of Belbin's test, perhaps the most interesting result is that five of the 14 tested superiors have high scores on the roles of the Coordinator and Shaper, the combination of which is a predisposition for a good leader. What is also important is that all the tested superiors, except for one whose score is average, have high scores on the role of the Monitor-Evaluator, which is the role typical of superiors. Furthermore, extremely high scores were obtained in the role of the Finisher, except for two with average scores and this role in combination with the Monitor-Evaluator is a predisposition for a good Corrector, i.e., the one who corrects mistakes, which is also an extremely important feature of a superior.

EMOTIONAL STABILITY

Regarding Plutchik's Emotionality test, Chart 2 shows average scores by subscales for the group of superiors. As seen in the Chart, all scores are within average value, except for the score on Reproduction scale, which is above average.

The following can be concluded from the individual results, i.e. from the combination of individual scores:

1. There are four persons among superiors with a tendency towards disobedience who are stubborn, that is, who have lower scores on Incorporation and Protection;
2. As for the tendency towards reckless conflicts, six superiors stand out, who have high scores on Orientation and Aggression;
3. As for psychopathic tendencies, none of the superiors have Protection and Reproduction lower than 50 and Research lower than 65th percentile;
4. When it comes to the state of despair, none of the superiors have high Deprivation and Rejection;
5. A tendency towards feeling contempt, hatred and hostility is present in five superiors who have high scores on Aggression and Rejection and low scores on Protection;
6. As for the tendency toward high moral feelings, two superiors have low Aggression and Orientation and high Incorporation and Protection.

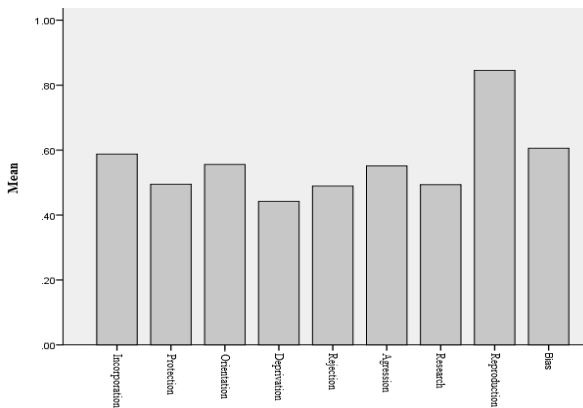


Chart 2: Average scores on subscales of Plutchik's emotionality test.

360 DEGREES – PROFILE BY SUBSCALES OF SUPERIORS

Table 1 shows percentile ranges for the total score and the scores on subscales Organizational and managerial skills and Creation of a friendly atmosphere.

Table 1

	Percentiles						
	5	10	25	50	75	90	95
Total score	68.93	70.16	74.01	80.81	85.45	91.41	.
Organizational and managerial skills	44.04	45.05	46.93	54.08	57.99	62.29	.
Creation of a pleasant atmosphere	22.86	23.63	25.20	27.61	28.44	29.50	.

When it comes to the assessment of superiors by their employees, Chart 3 shows the profile of scores for all 14 superiors by the total score on the 360 degrees questionnaire for superiors and by the scores in two separate dimensions – Organizational and managerial skills and Creation of a friendly atmosphere. As we can see in Chart 3, the superiors who stand out the most by the marks are those who were under unique serial numbers of 16, 48 and 74 and they were best evaluated on all aspects of the questionnaire. The lowest estimates are persons under the serial numbers 96 and 27. All the names of the highest or lowest evaluated superiors were presented to the heads of the Centre.

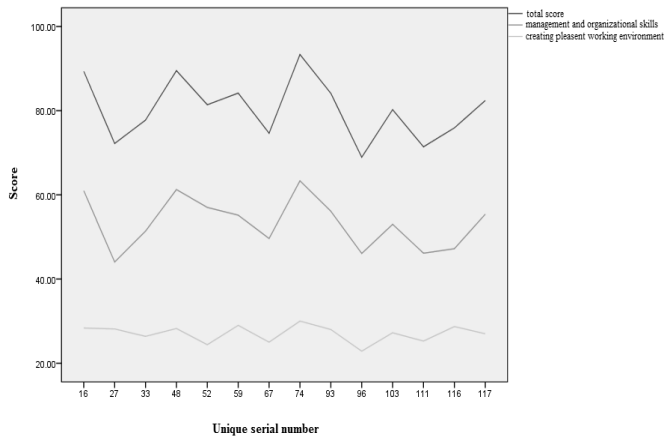


Chart 3: Profile for 360 degrees assessment for superiors – by total score and subscales

As the Chart 4 shows, the superiors from the central department in Belgrade were best evaluated, although the reviews of other superiors are relatively high - and go about 80 (the highest score could have been 95, and the smallest 19). When it comes to organizational management skills, a slightly better rated are the superiors from the central department (although all estimates hover around the average score of 53), while the aspect of creating a pleasant working atmosphere is rated in a satisfactory manner in all cities, since the average score for this dimension is 27.

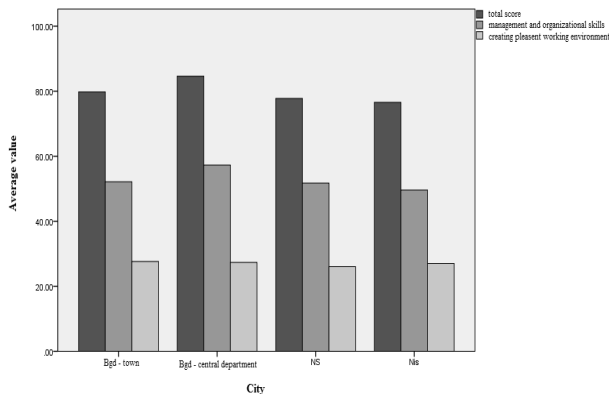


Chart 4: Average scores for 360 degrees assessment by towns – a total score including subscales

ASSESSMENT OF EMPLOYEES

A total of 99 employees were assessed (actually 104, but five of them did not take part in the 360 degrees assessment, so they were excluded from this group analysis, even though their other results are available for individual assessment), 27 of which were from the city division in Belgrade, 41 from Belgrade – head office, 20 from Novi Sad and 11 from Nis. When it comes to the division of employees by professional qualifications, 25 of them have high school education and 74 university education (some also have master's degree). The employees are aged from 25 to 63, the average being 39.96 years.

BELBIN'S TEAM ROLES

When it comes to Belbin's team roles, Chart 5 shows the average scores by roles for the employees. As it can be seen, the highest score was obtained for the role of the Finisher, followed by the Implementer and the Monitor-Evaluator. These three roles are above average, whereas other roles are within average and the lowest score was achieved for the Shaper. Chart 6 show the profiles of the roles by towns. The profiles are more or less similar in all three towns. The roles of the Implementer, Finisher and Monitor-Evaluator are above average in all three towns and their value is around 80. Only at the city division in Belgrade, along with these three roles, the roles of the Resource Investigator and the Team Worker are slightly above average compared to the other towns. It is interesting that these three roles dominantly stand out in the group of superiors as well. As it was not commented at the time, such a profile of team roles probably derives from the structure and nature of the organization, i.e. the Ministry of the Interior is a disciplined, responsible, conservative organization, with a strict hierarchy and division of work, which was confirmed by Belbin's test.

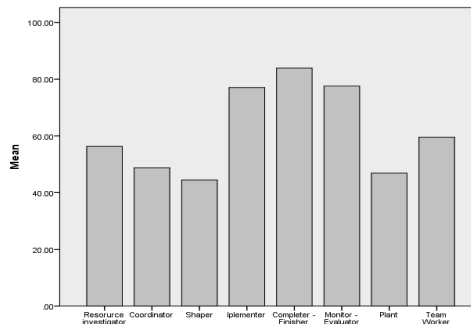


Chart 5: Average score by roles from the Belbin's test for employees

As for the individual results, when the scores on these roles are combined, the persons who tend to be good leaders can be determined (high score for the roles of the Coordinator and Shaper) and there are 11 such persons among the employees; then, the leaders of small teams are potentially those with high scores on the roles of the Shaper and Team Worker and there are also 11 such persons among the employees. Besides, this questionnaire can select those who would be good Navigators (routers) and they are potentially those with high scores on the roles of the Plant and Coordinator (there are potentially 15 such employees). When it comes to potentially good Researchers, i.e. those with high scores on the roles of the Plant and Resource Investigator, there are 23 such employees. There are potentially 34 employees who

tend to be good organizers, i.e. who achieved the high scores on the Coordinator and Implementer. And finally, there are potentially 20 employees who would make good employers, i.e. in another sense work supervisors and they have high scores on the roles of the Shaper and Implementer.

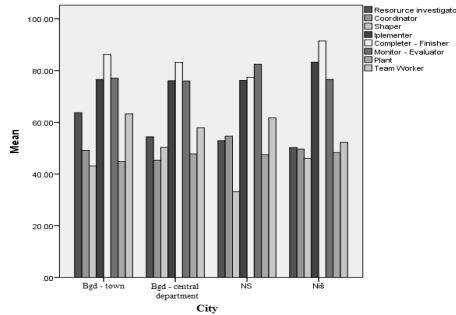


Chart 6: Average scores by roles from the Belbin's test for employees by towns

EMOTIONAL STABILITY OF EMPLOYEES

When it comes to emotional stability tested with Plutchik's emotionality test, Chart 7 shows the average scores by subscales for the group of employees. As it can be seen in the Chart, all scores are within average, except for the score on the scale of Reproduction and Incorporation, which are above average (over the 60th percentile). Therefore, on a group level, the employees obtained a similar profile to that obtained by the superiors. High scores on these two dimensions, combined with low Rejection indicate that apart from the care about others, the employees have basic trust in people, which is an essential prerequisite for good interpersonal relationships in the workplace. In addition, relatively high scores on Protection and Research indicate that the employees are open to new experiences, gaining knowledge in their field of work, but they do not undertake risky actions easily, which is one of the essential characteristics of a police employee. In addition, low aggression and deprivation indicate that in general, the employees are not prone to aggressive and depressive reactions, which is a significant indicator that possible misuse of firearms is unlikely.

However, Plutchik's emotionality test is most valuable when it is interpreted at an individual level and in this regard, the following employees can be singled out according to some "risky" profiles:

1. There are 14 persons who tend to be disobedient, that is, who have low scores on Incorporation and Protection.
2. As for the tendency towards reckless conflicts, 21 employees stand out, who have high scores on Orientation and Aggression.
3. When it comes to psychopathic tendencies, there are 6 employees who have scores on Protection and Reproduction less than 50 and Research less than 65th percentile.
4. As for the current state of sadness/despair, 6 of them have high score on Deprivation and Rejection.
5. Tendency towards potential feeling of contempt and hostility is present in 13 employees with high scores on Aggression and Rejection and low on Protection.

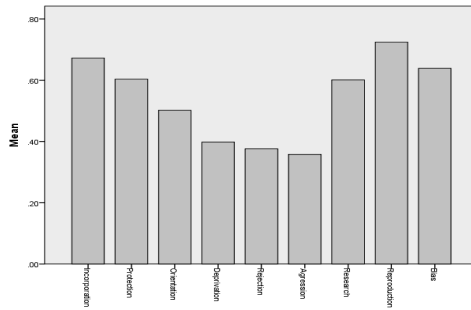


Chart 7: Average subscale scores in Plutchik's Emotionality test

360 DEGREES – PROFILE BY SUBSCALES OF EMPLOYEES

Table 3 and 4 shows descriptive statistics for the 360 degrees employees' scale assessment – for the total score including subscales (Table 2) and percentiles by total score and subscales – collegiality, expertise and leadership (Table 3).

Table 2

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Arithmetic mean	St. deviation
Total score	99	48.29	87.75	72.22	7.94
Collegiality	99	26.43	50.00	41.09	5.19
Expertise	99	10.00	19.67	16.52	2.07
Leadership	99	8.71	19.25	14.60	2.46

Table 3

		Percentiles						
		5	10	25	50	75	90	95
Averages	Assessment score	56.59	59.66	67.00	74.00	78.00	81.80	82.50
	Collegiality	31.16	33.00	38.14	42.66	45.10	46.80	47.67
	Expertise	12.62	13.85	14.75	17.00	18.25	18.75	19.00
	Leadership	10.60	11.12	12.71	14.50	16.50	17.90	18.66

When it comes to mutual evaluation of the employees, it can be concluded that the central department in Belgrade has the employees who are better assessed, as the total score, as well as the dimensions Individually - collegiality, professionalism and leadership. According to the total score, the five employees are set aside as the best rated by their colleagues. Also, there were a few with the lowest scores both in the overall standings and by subscales. All names (either the best or the worst estimated), were presented to the mayors of the Centre. Table 4 shows the extreme values (max/min) by the total score and of the following values on the subscales of the 360 degrees questionnaire.

Table 4

		No of case	Unique serial No	Value	
Total score	The highest	1	38	45	87.75
		2	64	76	85.00
		3	39	46	84.25
		4	71	83	82.67
		5	99	118	82.50
	The lowest	1	21	25	48.29
		2	25	30	53.43
		3	98	115	54.25
		4	47	56	56.00
		5	3	5	56.60
Collegiality	The highest	1	38	45	50.00
		2	9	12	48.75
		3	59	70	48.33
		4	30	36	48.20
		5	48	57	47.67
	The lowest	1	21	25	26.43
		2	47	56	27.50
		3	3	5	29.89
		4	25	30	30.86
		5	92	107	31.17
Expertise	The highest	1	71	83	19.67
		2	45	54	19.60
		3	10	13	19.50
		4	38	45	19.50
		5	27	32	19.00 ^a
	The lowest	1	21	25	10.00
		2	98	115	10.75
		3	23	28	12.00
		4	35	41	12.10
		5	1	3	12.63
Leadership potential	The highest	1	69	81	19.25
		2	39	46	19.00
		3	64	76	19.00
		4	45	54	18.80
		5	60	71	18.67
	The lowest	1	25	30	8.71
		2	41	49	9.80
		3	27	32	10.00
		4	98	115	10.50
		5	37	43	10.60

CONCLUSION

The results of our research allow us to define the criteria to be used in future to foresee which persons are suited for work at the Centre and who are the ideal candidates for employees and superiors. As it can be seen, the persons suited for work at the Centre are primarily characterized by high degree of emotional stability, which is reflected by the fact that most examinees achieved the average score on the scales of Plutchik's emotionality test, except on the scale of Reproduction with the superiors and Incorporation with the employees. All these results suggest that superiors are open, extrovert and affable, striving to sustain the employees, while the employees, along with the above qualities, expressly accept new ideas and experiences from the superiors. According to professional literature, a superior would fall within the Active type of management. All the listed features are a "winning" combination, characterized by pleasant work atmosphere, which contributes to successful and adequate performance of tasks. In terms of team roles, the superiors have the pronounced roles of the Finisher and Monitor-Evaluator, while the employees have the pronounced roles of the Finisher and Implementer. As we can see, a "good employee" is the one focused on the team and on the performance of team tasks, open to cooperation and requests from superiors, resistant to stress and successful at implementing work orders. A "good superior" has good leadership and managerial skills, is good at planning and supervising, but at the same time open to his team and its needs. Based on these results of our research, in future we can select candidates with greater precision and improve the existing work structure and thus contribute to more successful functioning of the police organization.

Attachment 1

WORK ASSESSMENT

Service/department/section/group	
Superior	
The name of the assessed colleague	

This questionnaire is ANONYMOUS in order for you to reply as honestly as possible to the questions on the colleague whose work and behaviour you are assessing. Your honest replies will be of importance to the Centre with a view to perceiving the employees' work efficiency as realistically as possible and in order to gain a better insight into your work atmosphere. This questionnaire aims, with the help of its results, to detect good and critical fields of functioning of an employee, assessed by the nearest peers, so that the assessed person would gain insight into his/her own 'strengths' and 'weaknesses'. Evaluation results will be disclosed to every employee with the intent that the employees should accept them as a tool for self-improvement. By responding sincerely, you are helping both yourself and the Centre optimize work atmosphere and success at work.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR WORK – On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning not true at all and 5 completely true), please rate how much the claim relates to your colleague.

He/she demonstrates independence in the majority of tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she has a high level of knowledge and his/her peers occasionally ask for his/her advice.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she generally meets quality standards in his/her work in terms of accuracy and reliability.	1	2	3	4	5
People like to share work tasks with this person.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is bad at planning and managing time and activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Within operational work, he/she sometimes provides ideas on his/her own initiative that could help a more successful work process.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she does not have good communication and relationships with the colleagues and is often the subject of problems and conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she constructively solves problems in communication with colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is a positive and outgoing person and in this regard respected by colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is willing to offer help if it is needed by a colleague.	1	2	3	4	5
Colleagues like to be in his/her company.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she has strong leadership skills.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she does not accept values of the organization and is rebellious towards them.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, he/she is seldom creative in work and only performs the tasks that were strictly given.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she aspires to professional development in the field of his/her work.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she shows ambition in terms of professional advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she can “trip up” colleagues in order to reach certain goals.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she helps new colleagues or is willing to help a colleague who is overloaded with work.	1	2	3	4	5

Strengths of this employee in your opinion _____

Weaknesses of this employee in your opinion _____

Attachment 2

ASSESSMENT OF THE SUPERIOR'S WORK

Service/department/section/group	
Superior	

This questionnaire is ANONYMOUS in order for you to reply as honestly as possible to the questions on the superior whose work and behaviour you are assessing. Your honest replies will be of importance to the Centre with a view to perceiving the superior's work efficiency as realistically as possible and in order to gain a better insight into your work atmosphere to which your superior certainly contributes. This questionnaire aims, with the help of its results, to detect good and critical fields of functioning of your superior, so that he/she would gain insight into his/her own 'strengths' and 'weaknesses'. Overall evaluation result will be disclosed to the superior with the intent that he/she should accept it for self-improvement in the workplace. By responding sincerely, you are helping both yourself and the Centre optimize work atmosphere and success at work.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR WORK – On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning not true at all and 5 completely true), please rate how much the claim relates to your superior.

He/she is considered an expert in his/her field of work and creates good new work practices and sets standards.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she generally meets expected quality standards in his/her work in terms of accuracy, reliability and good presentation of the intended projects.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she effectively manages work with other people.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she thinks "outside the box", overcomes obstacles and finds solutions, takes initiative to create new work processes, organizational manner, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she has not built good relationships and needs to make more of an effort in this field.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she happens to be the subject of a problem or conflict more than other people.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she does not have developed managerial skills and is not accepted as a leader. He/she does not achieve his/her own managerial or team goals.	1	2	3	4	5

He/she manages his/her team well, leads and controls people, so that the goals are regularly achieved.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she builds positive team atmosphere among the employees.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she always implements and demonstrates the values and principles of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is ready to listen to employees' personal and professional problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Employees feel uncomfortable in his/her presence.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she requires "the impossible" from employees (in terms of the given tasks or deadlines).	1	2	3	4	5
He/she follows the work of employees and by using certain mechanisms, rewards employees for their effort or good performance.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is hot-tempered.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she intimidates employees with threats as his/her position of power allows him/her to do so.	1	2	3	4	5
With this person as a superior, employees can develop personally and professionally.	1	2	3	4	5

Strengths of this superior in your opinion _____

Weaknesses of this superior in your opinion _____

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LAW ENFORCEMENT ADMINISTRATION IN CRIMINAL SERVICE

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*“The Type of Detections Determines the Quantity
and Quality of the Available Data”²*

Abstract: Our research focuses on how the organizational structure and informal networks of the Hungarian police determined the criminal proceedings against organized crime bands. In terms of organizational sociology the professional officers of criminal service carry out their tasks differently. The investigation process is divided into two branches in Hungary. The procedures begin with 'unknown perpetrators' where the detectives have to nominate the possible suspect. Following that the investigators get the cases to collect evidence against the particular person or group of people. Therefore the detectives keep contact mainly with the reconnaissance officers, while the investigators have tight official cooperation with the prosecutors. According to the research the first stage of the investigation is determined by the social performance (SP), which is dominated by the media and the public opinion. Thus the social performance is a so-called external controlling function, which must be fulfilled by the police organization. The second stage of the processes with 'known offender' are usually limited by the organizational effectiveness (OE), because the success of the prosecution becomes the most prevalent expectation. Therefore we can state that the organizational effectiveness is a so-called internal controlling function. These two organizational sociological aspects (SP, OE) have to be connected for the sake of the cases however this cooperation is differently implemented. When talking about homicide cases detectives work together during investigations on several occasions. Notwithstanding in cases of crimes against private property the detectives and the investigators work totally separated. Officially they are to meet when the cases are taken over by the investigation department, nevertheless informally they are obliged to consult with each other and in many cases the investigators have to investigate the cases despite of the investigation of the detectives.

Keywords: police leadership, organizational sociology, criminal investigation, structure of police, public opinion, social performance, organizational effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION

Under which circumstances can it be imagined that police give up the right to imitate criminal proceedings? If we can give a unanimous answer, it means that we can determine the boundaries of monopoly of the legitimate use of physical violence and the tangible limits

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² Interview with Z. B. police colonel, (2015. 10. 12.) in the Bureau of National Investigation

of liability of law enforcement. Beyond the probably successfully investigated criminal cases there are many so-called failed matters which are usually lost in the mists of time, and this will be accepted by all the parties concerned. These cases serve as an example, where lack of preparedness of investigators can be apparent. Explaining the failure always emphasizes the inefficiency of human factors or just blaming the lack of luck with stoic silence. This kind of understanding gives us a reliable stand-point without asking about the legitimacy of the structure or the usually applied processes. Different types of cases involve the opportunity of failure, and some instances can hardly be explained.

The causes bringing about the ceasing of the cases are much more pregnant when talking about organized crime. In this presentation we would like to shed a new light on investigating organized crime, therefore the paper focuses on these kinds of illegal actions. To strengthen our argumentation, we take examples from various types of crime committed by different kinds of organized crime groups.

In terms of researching organized crime-committing we always have to keep in mind that a particular police organization during the investigation faces with another type of organization, the criminal gang. Both of these “*so-called organizations*” have to keep track of their spending and they have to calculate with their draft budget for the future. Nevertheless there are some differences between the two kinds of organizations, namely how they provide their budget.

There is an old Anglo-Saxon police saying that criminals always have to be lucky, but the detective only once. Margaret Thatcher used this saying against the IRA bombers in the 1980's, when she declared: “*we only have to be lucky once – you will have to be lucky always*”.³ Apparently this remark confirms the inevitable advantages of police as compared with the criminals who always have to adopt their activity to the environmental conditions. This over-simplified argumentation neglects the fact that criminal organizations can be more successful because they have to always adapt themselves to the external conditions. Consequently they establish their organizations and draft their budget according to the current situation, while the police are stuck in a cell of detailed description of the state budget (assuming that their tasks are - in a modern nation-state - the same year by year). It is worth mentioning that the costs of prosecution of organized crime members are much more tangible and higher than the damages caused to the criminal organization by the police.

In the real field work we can easily find a suitable example for the above highlighted argument. In the southern part of Hungary a not too well-dressed foreign man, in an Audi A8, a high-end luxury car came across the border of Serbia-Hungary.⁴ During the customs inspection 50 kilos of pre-packed cocaine was found in the trunk. Due to the fact that the driver was the citizen of a foreign country and because of the big quantity of the drug the local police immediately handed the case over to the special police authority dealing with transnational organized crime. This police organization continued the investigation half a year long, nonetheless they finally released the foreign citizen from the preventive custody and the case was terminated without any result. The driver could not be connected to the drug, because the CSI officers did not find the fingerprint of the suspect on the package. With the help of an official interpreter the authority found out that the foreign citizen parked this car in front the house of his brother-in-law in Afghanistan. Unfortunately the investigators cannot check what part of the testimony was true, because his brother-in-law had already left his home country to fight with the ISIS. So the authority had to contact the police of that particular foreign coun-

3 John Bingham: Margaret Thatcher: Seconds from death at the hands of an IRA bomber. *Telegraph* 8., April, 2013. (internet access: <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/politics/margaret-thatcher/9979915/Margaret-Thatcher-Seconds-from-death-at-the-hands-of-an-IRA-bomber.html>)

4 Interview with M. H., police major (2015. 09. 25.) in National Bureau of Investigation.

try. They had to make criminal request to the local competent authority about the suspect and offer the participation in the interrogations in Hungary. The police also had to contact the Embassy of the foreign state and ensure the presence of a counsellor. The Hungarian police organization made use of an interpreter and official translators in each investigative action. On the whole the investigation costs amounted to almost 50 million Forints, (1.5 million euro.) Because of the geographical scope in the Criminal Procedure Act, the authorities were obliged to initiate a proceeding. Nevertheless from the aspects of the Hungarian law enforcement the authority detracted human resources from other potentially successful cases and spent a considerable part of their yearly budget for this only case.⁵

METHODS

Due to the above mentioned investigation factors we would like to approach the evidence-based policing (EBP) from the risk assessment point of view. Lawrence Sherman, criminologist, defined EBP nowadays as triple-T.⁶ The police are first targeting, in other words they try to find the best intervention area. Testing is part of the process when the suitable form of acting or response is chosen, and during the tracking the police focus on how to accomplish the particular task from the criminal or a public order aspect. The goal is to determine the boundaries of the successful performance of the Hungarian police authorities relating to organized crime. To justify our argumentation, we use the real level of scientific research instead of other analogical examples, such as “medicine”. This latter one has a very popular career in social sciences. The sociology tried to use it at the end of the 19th and the beginning of 20th century. However, later on the social scientists realized that it is only the perception of public opinion about medicine that is similar to the structure of state or in this case to the policing. Not the specific discourse of doctors, in which treatment of lingering illnesses is totally different, how we try to maintain the public order, moreover control the possible field of organized crime. In the world of medicine the possible side effects appeared suddenly as in a deterministic model or researchers can create mathematical formulations to give direct chance of a stochastic model. In the world of policing, moreover, as regards organized crime, the researchers can honestly speak about tendencies only.

For the police no kind of representative sampling is available. Reliability of criminal statistics could hardly show the total number of the crimes. Because of the latency the estimated authenticity challenged by the governmental interventions easily create well popularized and not really analyzed by-products in the society.⁷

The threat of bit coin “as possible money laundering techniques” is quite a good example; however it does not correspond to our perceived reality, because every human decision has dead weight. Essentially, the way of thinking can change or, figuratively speaking, the pendulum can only move out, when the cost of previous decision from the perception of the decision maker becomes higher. Therefore the changing methods are not always connected to the expected profitable percentage of something, much more the significance of the dead weight of the previous decision. This mechanism appears in the work of police officers and detectives as well, when they try to initiate an investigation against organized crime group. Even if they know that in a Joint Investigation Team (JIT) they can easily transfer evidence instead of information only, within the framework of international legal aid, the police officers tend to work rather in a mirror investigation to confirm or use the information as evidence. The

⁵ Interview with F. K., police major (2015. 11. 02.) in the National Bureau of Investigation.

⁶ The Rise of Evidence-Based Policing: Targeting, Testing, and Tracking. *Crime and Justice* 2013. 1. 377-451.

⁷ Georges Canguilhem: *A normális és a kóros*. Gondolat-Infonia, Budapest, 2004

Hungarian police officers and detectives make use mainly of the low-cost international legal aid, because it can be accessed more quickly than a Joint Investigation Team, accessed only in a long procedure which needs to be finally signed by the Chief Prosecutor General, instead of the prosecutor responsible for the particular case. Although using legal aid to create a so-called “*mirror case*”, in which they can cooperate from the very beginning of the investigation with detectives from another country.⁸

The other supporting reason against medical metaphor is that latency exists in terms of socially interdependent situation, but it far less appeared in case of medical treatment. According to this in terms of research approach to evidence-based policing, the targeting can be comparable with epistemological level of any kind of investigation. The authority must be able to ascertain, which investigation can be suitable for an efficient accusation against a particular organized criminal gang, and which can involve costs that make it impossible to carry out other potentially successful proceedings. The second step is the methodological level which is similar to testing, because the authority has to decide what kind of investigative methods can be useful. In the above mentioned example, when the detectives try to convict the driver of transferring 50 kilograms of cocaine, the police can only use reactive tactics. Therefore they can usually find out certain types of evidence, because the type of detection determines the quantity and quality of the available data. However, due to the insufficient resources, the authorities – in many cases – will not be able to initiate the criminal proceedings. Considering the above fact the last aspect can be seen as a so-called “empirical level” which is connected to the tracking in Sherman’s theory.

DIFFICULTIES OF INVESTIGATING OF ORGANIZED AND ECONOMIC CRIMES

Further on we will review the effects that the change of political regime in 1989 had on the *police force’s cooperation when investigating economic crimes*. By doing so, we hope to enlighten the true nature and extent of impact of organized gangs on economy. The following analysis aims to show a real case. Mr. Stadler from Akasztó was – and would have remained – a profitable businessman without committing economic crimes. This assertion is also closely related to the rejection of the assertion that the main source of illegal revenues of Mr. Stadler came from VAT-fraud. The fact that the media persistently identified him as a VAT-fraudster is due to several things.

For one, *investigative journalists of that time were not particularly well informed* about different methods of economic crimes. At the time of the regime change, the public ownership protection of the police departments (TT – as the informal police language referred to the public ownership protection) were on the verge of being closed down, and by the dawning of the market economy, several high ranking police officers advocated that these *not to be transformed into general property protection departments*. In his testimony in front of the Parliament’s Oil Committee in 2000, Brigadier General Ernő Kiss said: “*some police leaders expressed definite opinions, according to which in a market economy, there was no need for any economy-related police work.*”⁹ This citation allows us to come to the conclusion that some prominent police officials of the day had a very optimistic, vulgarized understanding of Adam Smith’s “*invisible hand*” theory. Their simplified idea has suggested that – *following the market*

⁸ Interview with A. O. police colonel (2015. 12. 11.) in the National Bureau of Investigation.

⁹ Minutes of the Parliamentary investigative committee created to investigate any possible links between the oil business and organized crime. In 2000, at 10 o’clock on Monday, October the 30th, the meeting was held at meeting room number 61 of the Parliament, accessible online at: last download: 2013.05.15http://www.parlament.hu/biz36/olaj/v006-021.htm

economy coming into existence, committing economic crimes that *were perpetrated during the time of majority state ownership and incumbent state companies would become senseless.*

The lack of understanding surrounding the nefarious activities of Mr. Stadler was compounded by another issue. On the 5th of January, 1990 prominent politicians from SZDSZ and FIDESZ brought charges against the State Security Service of the Ministry of the Interior, for illegally spying on the opposition parties and civil society initiatives, although, according to the amendments to the constitution of October 23, 1989, such methods were banned. However, the official police charges included incriminating documents, like Report 219, prepared by József Végvári, group leader of the Ministry of Interior's Interior Security Group BM III/III-7 dated 10th of November 1989. The opposition parties held a press conference in the Cinema "Bányász" *after they had disclosed the charges.* Here they presented also the reports from the same group. Reports of December 6th, 20th, and 22nd contained a significant amount of information attained by operative methods (phone tapping, violation of private correspondence, informants). As an immediate consequence of the ensuing scandal, Minister of the Interior István Horváth resigned from his office at the end of January 1990 (DUNAGATE – report 2015).

As a result of all the public attention the case was getting, high ranking police officials felt compelled to indiscriminately disband informant networks, including assets working in the field of criminal justice.¹⁰ This decision proved to be detrimental. Without assets, carrying out operative investigations proved to be nearly impossible. Investigations regarding economic crimes took a particularly heavy blow. During the transition period many of these crimes were committed against the state itself.¹¹ In many cases, the damages caused were less apparent and thus remained unnoticed. In contrast to the pre-1989 mentality, the Criminal Code of the day did make it possible (in chapter XVII) for economic crimes to be committed against private entities, not just the state and its companies. Informally, however, the state remained *in the focus* for the authorities' perception of economic crimes. On the one hand, the newly established private sector relied largely on the process of privatization to gain access to equipment that was once state property.¹² On the other hand, through the criminalization of *tax avoidance*, the state retained its presence in the market economy.

That time, the National Police Department¹³ (ORFK) did not have a separate property damage department. The Budapest Police Department's (BRFK)¹⁴ property damage department functioned as an operative *entity only*, with particular investigations being conducted by a general *investigative* department. County police departments had property damage departments, which conducted both operative and investigative work. However, without informants, conducting *considerable* operative work became impossible (Prof. KORINEK, 2015).

The decision not to transform the structure of the police force to better suit the changing economic circumstances – i.e. by not converting the Communal Property Damage Departments into Private Property Damage Departments, and the decision to disband the informant networks – led to a drastic increase in economic crimes like fraud, embezzlement or malfeasance.

Both Brigadier General Ernő Kiss and Police Colonel László Tonhauser emphasized that the above mentioned decisions affected the detective work relating the economic crimes the most. In case of a homicide or larceny case, it is easier to find witnesses and the media can

10 Interview with "N.L." retired police colonel, 2013.04.17

11 Interview with "B. M." police colonel, 2013. 02. 24.

12 In the current tax-law (Law C. of 2000) the basic accounting equation makes it possible to describe a company's accounts by looking at the changes in tools and financial instruments. (Losonczi Csaba – Magyar Gábor: *Pénzügyek a gazdaságban.* Juvent Kiadó, Budapest, 1996. pp. 415-417.)

13 Hierarchically the highest national body of law enforcement in Hungary.

14 The main police department of Budapest.

be used to support the investigation to *greater avail*. As regards economic crimes¹⁵ however, internal information or converted witnesses are frequently the key to resolving the case, with the media playing no role in the investigative process. This is due to the fact, that intricate economic crimes are much harder to present in an intriguing way towards media consumers.¹⁶ It is common knowledge that many crime-investigation related movies and series portray or rather misrepresent the actual nature of detective work so as to make it more appealing, while economic type of investigation, however, is never even portrayed.¹⁷ Over the past twenty years, a considerable amount of investigative journalism has focused on introducing these crimes into the perception of the wider society. *Even so*, the transgressions of politicians and other public office holders are most often presented in the media. Economic crimes (domestic and transnational alike) committed by non-public figures mostly fly under the radar – apart from a few exceptions.¹⁸

The realization and acknowledgement of these processes calls for the reinterpretation of the statistical data presented in Mihály Tóth's research paper: *Market Economy and Criminal Law*. Tóth's (1995: 4–5) data show that the number of crimes committed per year has risen from approximately 100,000 in 1974 to over 400,000 by 1994. The most significant increase took place following the transition to the market economy. Between 1986 and 1988 the annual number of crimes that became known to the authorities was on average 180,000. This number steadily increased: to 225,393 in 1989, to 341,061 in 1990, to over 400,000 in 1991 and to 447,215 in 1992. According to Tóth's (1995: 4–5) data, the number of economic crimes stayed more or less stagnant at 8000 a year throughout this period. As it can be seen from the article, the author had difficulties explaining this stagnation, saying that two-thirds of these crimes were tariff- and foreign exchange related offences whose: “*number was constant (or at least, the amount of money spent on uncovering these crimes was)*” (Tóth 1995: 5). However, this does not explain, why only the number of economic crimes stagnated disregarding the fact, that other departments or segments of the police force were working at full capacity as well. Tóth's argument is more useful in explaining why the number of economic crimes has decreased by 1994: the opening of the borders and the transformation of economy brought about new customs regulations as well. At the end of his explanation, Tóth said that the authorities were lagging behind the criminals. He pointed out, that several areas of criminal behaviour were ignored by the police force. He mentioned the deficiencies of the 1994 Criminal Statistical Handbook as an example. Although profiteering had been taken out from the Criminal Code, and the definition of unfair price increasing had changed significantly, the handbook still included the pre-system change criminal categories (Tóth 1995: 7).

The lack of restructuring the police force following the transition in 1989, as outlined above, seems like the most plausible explanation for this lack of increase in the statistics. The anachronistic language used by Tóth in his analysis and the outdated problem-understanding behind the statistics totally disregarded the fact of the regime change. This gives a further indication of the ill preparedness of the police force of the day.

15 For the sake of simplicity, we define economic crimes as those that, according to the Hungarian penal code, may be committed against property, since fraud and embezzlement investigations are conducted by property protection departments regardless of their placement in the penal code.

16 One of the refreshing exceptions from the past years is the series produced by criminal investigative journalist David Simon, entitled: “The Wire”, which chronicles crime fighting in Baltimore.

17 Enough to emphasize the complaints of police officers who mentioned several times to the media that the citizens demand from them the techniques and methods that they saw in the TV. Fekete Gy. Attila: A magyar nyomkeresők beleszanak a CSI-on. *Népszabadság* 2009. 11. 28. (<http://nol.hu/lap/hetvege/20091128-nyomkeresok>)

18 Most of the exemptions may be found in print or online media forums, like the Hungarian weekly HVG, or Átlátszó.hu.

According to Tóth, the radical decrease in economic crimes in 1994 does not indicate a “*spectacular improvement*” (Fekete Gy. 1995: 1) as seen by the frequency of stories of economic crimes being published in the press. Since many crimes remained hidden, Tóth only aims at estimating the approximate share of economic crimes in relation to other crimes, to see if their importance was increased or decreased. Partly based on the press material published by an investigative journalist, who interviewed the director of ORFK’s criminal unit (Fekete Gy. 1995: 1), Tóth concluded that the weight share of economic crimes had increased. In the leading article the journalist, Attila Gy. Fekete interviewed Antal Kacziba, the Criminal Director of the time, who claimed that counterfeiting (Vegeta spice, Herendi Chinaware) was one of the major threats during his tenure. For the latter, unauthorized loans, VAT refunds, and fake collateral certificates were the biggest issues. At the request of a political TV program (“*A Hét*”) a Hungarian public opinion research company, SONDA IPSOS, made a poll, in which they found that according to two-thirds of the respondents the reason for the growing phenomenon of economic crime was associated to regime change and the incomplete nature of economic rules (Fekete Gy. 1995: 6).

So while the detection of these crimes by police decreased during the first half of the 1990s, according to the police officer cited by Tóth, and according to other public statements made by police leaders – that we will refer to later – the actual number of economic crimes showed an unprecedented boom.

In 1996, Antal Kacziba, Deputy Secretary of State of the Ministry of Interior was already talking of the “*explosive increase*” of fraud and bankruptcy crimes, owing to the introduction of new legislation in 1994-95 relating to public procurement, bankruptcy crimes and protection of intellectual property rights. The new laws led to an increased role of property protection departments in unveiling economic crimes as “*step by step, previously only rarely used criminal categories »came to life«*” (Kacziba 1996: 61).

Enumerating all the reasons for the initial latency of many crimes seems an impossible endeavour. We do however wish to identify the most important reasons. It is essential to highlight the problems accompanying the capitalist transformation of the economy at large. Capitalist statecraft did not appear instantaneously following the collapse of the Iron Curtain in the post-socialist region of the Soviet Union. The collapse was followed by a transitional phase. Based on empirical findings, the manager-capitalist theory of Iván SZELÉNYI shows that it was the technocratic managers and leaders of ex-incumbent socialist companies whose power and influence increased exponentially in the 1990s, and not that of the small and medium entrepreneurs. In the period of low market capitalization, these managers – who mostly went on to lead the privatized equivalents of the socialist incumbents – could not create a stable capitalist market overnight. Their main assets were their informal contact networks, which they used as investable and transformable assets. During the socialist period the ownerships could be seen as a vacuum according to Pavel Campeanu,¹⁹ therefore József Böröcz emphasized the informal practices of the regime change.²⁰ The system of mutual favours also played a very important constituent role in this world. Endre Sik stresses these aspects of the system as well when he talks about the system-specific processes of the system change.²¹ The joke of the day – cited by Szelényi (1995) – illustrates this situation: it is known, how fish-stew (socialist state) can be made from an aquarium of fish (capitalist state), however the method of making fish out of fish-stew is yet unknown to people.

19 Pavel Campeanu: *The Syncretic Society*. Armonk, New York, 1980.

20 Böröcz József: Kettős függőség és tulajdonvákuum: Társadalmi átalakulás az államszocialista félperiférián. *Szociológiai Szemle*, 1992. 3., 3–20.

21 Sik Endre: *A kapcsolati tőke szociológiája*. ELTE Kiadó, Budapest, 2012.

The next reason that is worth mentioning is the outdated justice system of the day. In 1994, Tóth pointed out that it is often the case with new crimes, that they are interpreted totally differently by the prosecution and the police authorities. At the time, it was often the case, that crucial facts of the case were only established well after the initial investigative processes, since only qualified experts, like accountants were able to certify these facts. In relation to this phenomenon, Tóth cites an article of February the 7th 1995 from the daily *Népszabadság*. The title of the article is already meaningful: “*The lack of experts makes difficult the investigation of economic crimes*”. Since then, experts in this field had much more respect and their pay has increased significantly. Indeed, the field has become so lucrative, that there are many fraudulent “experts”. The phenomenon is well chronicled by an article in the 70th edition of *Criminology Review* written by István Jávör and Dávid Janics (2012), entitled *Corruption in the courthouse and the economy*.

Another good example is István Jávör’s article (*Corruption in the judiciary and the economy*), dealing with the issue of abusing the system of “experts”. Mihály Tóth in 1994 supported the usage of experts, especially on the side of the defence. Notwithstanding Jávör (2011) found that the misuse of the experts changed the aim of the whole trial, facilitating endless polemics. Therefore the financial background of the defendant decided the outcome of the trial.²²

In 1995, Mihály Tóth argued for the extensive use of experts, advocating the defence’s right to employ them as well.²³ However, looking at the findings of Janics and Jávör, we may say, that the overuse of experts and their fundamentally different assessment of the same situations has, in many cases, lowered the overall quality of the debate in court cases.

RESULTS

From our perspective of evidence-based policing we need to carefully consider who is a stakeholder and who is a shareholder in a criminal proceeding. From our organizational sociological point of view in terms of investigations police officers, detectives and prosecutors can be seen as stakeholders, while the general public can be identified with the role of shareholders.²⁴ This differentiation is crucial when talking about the “*Hungarian type of criminal proceedings*”. For this research we made 20 in-depth interviews with detectives and investigators about how they work against organized crime. It is difficult in English to reasonably distinguish the above cited two different kinds of positions that still exist in Hungary. During the socialist times criminal proceeding has changed considerably because it was divided apparently into equal parts. First comes the investigation, when the detective tries to locate and identify the possible perpetrator and finally press charges against him or her in a formal way. At this point the case is transferred to the investigators whose job is to collect and arrange evidence against the suspect for the future successful prosecution. The prosecutor deals with the *prosecuted* person accused before the Court. The classical detective work at present is divided into two parts, although this system is source of constant conflicts. The Criminal Procedure Act which is currently in force does not *differentiate* between detective and investigative work. Although the present structure of the Hungarian Police Organization is structured according to this differentiation, separate so-called detective and investigation departments have so far been functioning in every police station. From the perspective of an internal organizational logic the detectives mainly cooperate with the *reconnoitring* officers, who in many cases

22 Jávör István: Korrupciós mechanizmusok a magyar bírósági eljárásban. *Társadalomkutatás*, 2011. 2. 247–267.

23 Tóth Mihály: Piaccgazdaság és büntetjog In: Lévay Miklós (szerk.): *Kriminológiai Közlemények* 52. Magyar Kriminológiai Társaság, Budapest, 1995. 4–23.

24 James G. March: *Szervezeti tanulás és döntéshozatal*. Alinea Kiadó, Budapest. 2005. 12–24.

conduct surveillances that do not require permission of the Prosecutor.²⁵ On one hand these activities could be very successful from their perspective, because they fulfil the expected aspects of organizational effectiveness. On the other hand there is a so-called external effectiveness factor, the social performance of the police. At this point we would like return to the differentiation between stakeholders and shareholders. In the terms of police organization detectives and investigators are stakeholders. Due to this fact the police are not only interested in the effectiveness but also evaluated by the statistics. Otherwise they would have risked their promotion or moreover their jobs. The public opinion can be considered to express the view of the shareholders if we speak about the police as a special company which owns the monopoly of legitimate physical violence and initiating criminal proceedings. These persons are interested in better public security, though they know very little about *how this "product" will be successful*. The public opinion expressed in the media pushes *the expectations* for the social performance of the police. Detectives try to achieve the organizational effectiveness with the hints from informants who want to be unknown for the legal proceedings and with the surveillance carried out in partnership with reconnoitring officers. Yet they are subject to a lot of pressure to fulfil the social performance, which usually means that they have to nominate the possible perpetrator as soon as possible. After indicating someone, the investigators hand over the case, therefore the detectives easily defend themselves that they cannot verify the guilt of the suspect beyond any doubt.²⁶

The investigators always have to cooperate with the prosecutors since the prosecutor is the head of the case from the denunciation or from the "ex officio" ordered investigation. According to the Criminal Proceeding Act the prosecutor investigates or calls the police officers to investigate. Due to the scope of their task the prosecutors do not have so much time to deal with the proceedings against unknown perpetrators, because from the prosecutors' point of view the key factor of the organizational effectiveness is to accuse and convict the previously suspected person. In terms of organized crime the public is much more interested in the successful investigation therefore the detective seeks to track down the presumable offender as quickly as possible. These detectives base their work on surveillance and buying information, while these activities are not under direct control of competent prosecutors. From this point of view the investigators are faced with the fact for the first time that certain items of evidence are not allowed to be used against the possible perpetrator. Moreover in Hungary the reconnoitring officers can carry out so-called information checking in secret for maximum 90 days and conduct secret investigation for 6 months. Only the latter one is permitted by the prosecutor.

During the procedure it is in the interest of the detectives, to find the suspected perpetrator as soon as possible. Therefore at the first stage of the investigation process it is often the case that the relevant information and the proofs are mixed for the police officers; certain data cannot obviously be considered as a proof, but can be made use of as basic information future evidentiary use. The detective meets the suspect already before the reasonable doubt is established and for this reason they are compelled to "catch up with" the suspicion of the detectives with a few weeks' investigation work.

However this period is important for the suspect as well, who has – together with the attorney – to get to know the documents of the case. From the point of view of investigation-tactics the investigator of the case will be at a disadvantage since the attorney of the suspect overwhelms the prosecutor with several defence proposals. A part of these comprises the witnesses not contributing to the worthwhile exploration of the case. The investigator originally would have disregarded their hearing since he was clearly aware of their possible confession even without their substantive hearing.²⁷

25 Interview with Gy. Sz. Police lieutenant (2016. 01. 14.) in the National Bureau of Investigation.

26 Interview with Gy. B. Police colonel (2016. 01. 14.) in the Pest County Police Headquarter.

27 Interview with V. K. Police major (2016. 01. 16.) in the Pest County Police Headquarter.

Another, somewhat more dangerous defence proposal is, when the attorney asks for the interrogation of a witness, whose interrogation has been planned by the police – due to investigation-tactics reason – at a later time only. The police have different ways and possibilities to connect the identified perpetrator to the commitment. The witnesses belonging to the “circles” of the suspect would presumably be willing to make an incriminating testimony, if the police can support it by pieces of evidence, especially in case if the police dispose of evidence proving that the witness should have known about it. However because of the quick suspicion the investigator does not have enough time to set up the system of evidences by which he could drive the witness to the wall.

It is often the case, however, that due to his being overloaded, the prosecutor “goes into the depth” of the case after a person has been suspected, so he forces the investigator to interrogate witnesses, who – withholding relevant information – impede the accusation.

Further on it is very difficult to persuade the witness to change his confession, without the risk of giving false testimony. Therefore the investigator will be compelled to use other methods to establish that the perpetrator is connected with the commitment.

Suggestions for the new Criminal Proceeding Law:

- Eliminate the investigation being divided into two parts,
- Establish a separate criminal intelligence service to improve the proactive opportunities against organized crime rather than to follow the nowadays existing one, mostly based on reactive version.

Hungary is the only country from the post-Soviet region, where the police do not have a separate organizational unit which is responsible for surveillance, telephone interception and other operative detection activities.

CONCLUSION

As a conclusion we have to view and carefully consider possible threats to the structure and dynamics of the Hungarian official investigation procedure as outlined above. In order to ensure a clear insight in the dangers hiding (as if in an ambush) behind almost every police measure, it is crucial to get an opportunity to identify suggestions and solutions. It could be a kind of risk-analysis, or assessment focusing on the investigation procedures and activities. From theoretical side and as an organizational-sociological perspective, the first important threat is basically the misunderstanding of the organizational position of the police. It comes from the misinterpretation of lots of political and historical traditions, and the totally false interpretation of policing and police functions. This anomaly can result in the malfunctioning of the police (mainly, but not only in the police investigation) more often than not. What is it all about, then? This is a misunderstood reflection on what police should do, what they should be capable of and how fast, while conducting their investigation work.

Instead of a direct answer from the police leadership, like: “*police can do this and this, according to law and this fast*”, we often face misapprehension of the role of the police, saying like this: “*we will do it as fast as possible, we will do whatever you want...*” This effect on organizational psychology has a term, called ‘*urge of convenience*’. When an important case begins, the police organization gets under big pressure both on the part of the society and politics. This is normal, but how to handle and deal with this pressure and publicity, is a different thing. Police leadership needs to behave professionally as well, not only in policing, investigating and maintaining public order. It is crucial to prevent stress from affecting the organization and their daily work and routines when dealing with the most difficult cases. The ill effects

of stress could compromise such cases and create additional reasons for discommending the police and their work and professionalism. Perhaps it is enough to recall two of the most infamous cases from the recent times. These investigations were both in the focus of the social and political interest in Hungary, the pressure on the police was extremely high, and the police as an organization made almost all the possible mistakes.

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DISCRETIONARY ADMINISTRATIVE ACTS IN THE FIELD OF WEAPONS AND AMMUNITION

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Abstract: Administrative acts represent the application of the general legal norm in concrete situations, in which administration, in order to protect and achieve public interest, authoritatively decides on the rights and obligations of individuals. Discretionary administrative acts, which are adopted in cases where public interest cannot be precisely defined in advance. Instead, its protection and achievement depend on circumstances in concrete cases and administrative acts that also must be based on the law. In these situations, administration is given certain discretion when determining content of an administrative act.

Inability to determine public interest in advance is especially characteristic for the field of internal affairs. Discretionary administrative acts are thus common in this field. Administrative acts relating to weapons and ammunition are the typical example. The aim of this paper is to determine which administrative acts in the field of weapons and ammunition can be considered discretionary, having regard to, primarily, provisions of the new Law on Weapons and Ammunition. The answer to the this question is not simple, taking into consideration that the legislator often does not lay down authorisation for conducting discretionary assessment in a clear and unambiguous way. On the other hand, the answer to this question has a great practical value. The limits of administrative act's judicial control depend on its character.

Keywords: administrative act, discretionary administrative act, weapons and ammunition.

INTRODUCTION

The essence of a legal state is an idea of limiting the administration and placing it within the legal order. Before that, the administration was not bound by the legal order. Instead, it was managed exclusively by the principle of opportunity. The limits of its power were in reasonable assumption of what is useful and recommend, and not in the law.² Only in a legal state does the administration become an authority that applies the law, and not a free authority.

The essence of the principle of legality of the administration means that the administration derives all of its power from the law. It is another question what the type and scope of this power are. This power is sometimes narrowly defined, and does not leave the administration any freedom when exercising it. Sometimes, this power is wider and leaves the administration a possibility to perform the discretionary assessment. Discretionary assessment is, therefore, a certain space defined by law, in which the administration can freely move.

In a legal state, discretionary assessment is an exception, placed under legislative limits and frames. However, there are certain areas of social life in which traditionally discretionary

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2 O. Mayer, *Deutsches Verwaltungsrecht*, Leipzig 1895, p. 39.

assessment if found more often. One of them is the field of internal affairs, and within it, especially the field of weapons and ammunition. The aim of this paper is, therefore, to identify and single out discretionary administrative acts in the area of weapons and ammunition, having regard to provisions of the new Law on Weapons and Ammunition.

DISCRETIONARY ADMINISTRATIVE ACTS

The principle of legality of the administration implies that administrative acts should be based on the law. It can be said for administrative acts that they are adopted when applying the law to concrete situations, that they are 'placed between the law and an individual'³.

Situations, in which administrative acts are adopted, however, cannot always be legally prescribed precisely and in detail, in a way that the role of the administration is solely to apply them. In certain situations, the public interest cannot be defined in advance. Instead, its protection and achievement depend on concrete circumstances. In these cases, the administration gets wider power and a certain creative role. It has discretion to assess what is the best way to protect and achieve the public interest, taking into consideration these concrete circumstances.

Administrative acts that are adopted in situations prescribed precisely and in detail in the law are called bound administrative acts. When adopting these acts, the administration does not have any discretion, because all their elements are provided for beforehand. The administration has certain discretion only when adopting administrative acts in situations which are not prescribed precisely and in detail in the law. These administrative acts are called discretionary.⁴

There are different theoretical interpretations in terms of what the discretion of the authority when adopting discretionary administrative acts is. In accordance with the first and most common interpretation, the discretion can relate to both the adoption of an administrative act, and to its content.⁵ According to another interpretation, discretionary assessment includes only the discretion in determining content of an administrative act, but not to decide whether an administrative act should be adopted.⁶

There is no doubt that the discretionary assessment is related to the content of an administrative act. Given the fact that there is discretion in determining its content, all administrative acts can be divided into bound and discretionary. The division that is done in accordance with this criterion is, therefore, comprehensive. This, however, is not true for the second criterion, discretion in deciding whether an administrative act should be adopted. Even if we would assume that this discretion falls into the discretionary assessment, this could not be true for all administrative acts, but only for those that are adopted *ex officio*. In case of administrative acts that are adopted upon the request of a party, this discretion does not exist. Adoption of an administrative act, in this case, is the obligation of the administration, because, otherwise, it would be deemed 'silent', i.e. the administrative-legal relationship established would seem the same as in the case when the request of a party is denied.

3 F. Fleiner, *Institutionem des deutschen Verwaltungsrechts*, Tübingen 1913, p. 174.

4 Having in mind that all administrative acts are based on the law, the expression 'discretionary administrative act' is not the most suited one. Therefore 'marking these acts as discretionary is something that should be understood conditionally, i.e. only as a shortened name for administrative acts that are adopted by virtue of discretionary assessment'. D. Milkov, *Upravno pravo II – upravna delatnost*, Novi Sad 2012, p. 33.

5 See I. Krbeč, *Upravni akt*, Zagreb 1957, p. 30. R. Marković, *Upravno pravo*, Belgrade 2002, p. 261. Z. Tomić, 'Diskreciona ocena u upravnom pravu', *Pravni život*, no. 10/2006, p. 295.

6 See D. Milkov, *Upravno pravo II – upravna delatnost*, p. 33.

The essence of the discretionary assessment always includes the choice between two or more options that are provided for by the law in order to solve certain administrative issue. The possibility of choice between options provided for by the law exists in order to achieve a certain goal. The goal, as well as the options from which the administration can choose, are provided for by the law in advance. Broadly observed, the goal in which the discretionary assessment is performed is connected with the public interest. The protection and achievement of the public interest in a concrete situation are laid down in detail in the same law which gives power to the administration to make the discretionary decision.

The possibility to perform the discretionary assessment when adopting certain administrative acts does not, therefore, mean that they are not based on the law. On the contrary, each discretionary administrative act has, apart from legally free part, legally binding parts. Legally binding parts include authorisation to perform the discretionary assessment, limits of this authorisation and goal for which it is done. Apart from this, it goes without saying that discretionary administrative acts have other legally binding parts, which are not characteristic only for them. These include jurisdiction, conditions of the substantive law, rules of procedure and findings of fact.

Although legally free parts of a discretionary administrative act are not defined by the law, this does not mean that the administration can act on its own will when defining it. There are also boundaries in this aspect, but they are not laid down by the law, but by the principle of opportunity. The administration needs to choose between the provided options, the one that enables protection and achievement of the public interest in the best possible way, taking into consideration the needs of each concrete case.

Perceiving the differences between legally bound and legally free parts of a discretionary administrative act is not only of theoretical, but also of practical importance. It relates to the possibilities and limits of judicial control. Namely, the court in an administrative dispute controls only legally binding, but not legally free parts of discretionary administrative acts.

Apart from theoretically developed notion of the discretionary assessment, perceiving the difference between bound and discretionary administrative acts is not always simple. Authorisation for performing discretionary assessment is not always clearly prescribed in the law, in a way that there is no doubt in terms of the character of an administrative act.

Difficulties when determining the existence of authorisation for performing discretionary assessment often stem from the fact that provisions of the administrative law contain numerous unspecified notions. However, the fact that a notion is unspecified does not mean that it gives the administration the authorisation to perform discretionary assessment. The characteristic of provisions that contain unspecified notions is that in each concrete case there is just one conduct that is adequate to their disposition, although it is not precisely defined in advance.⁷ The task of the administration is to determine, by appropriate interpretation, what conduct in a concrete case is the essence of that unspecified notion. This should be done not just for the concrete case that initiated the adoption of the administrative act, but for all other, similar cases. As long as the administration is establishing the will of the law, and not choosing between more options, equal from the view point of the law, it is not the case of discretionary assessment.⁸ The essence of the discretionary assessment is seen in the choice that the administration makes according to its sole discretion for each concrete case separately, and not for all similar cases. Finding the answer to the question whether a certain administrative act is discretionary or not, can be done only by careful interpretation of legal provisions. In doing so, one cannot assume that an administrative act has a certain character just because it seems logical, or it stems from a natural thing.⁹

7 R. Lukić, *Uvod u pravo*, Belgrade 1976, p. 208.

8 I. Krbeć, *Upravno pravo I* (po predavanjima I. Krbeća), Klub slušalaca prava, Zagreb 1938, p. 19, 20.

9 Đ. Tasić, 'O slobodnoj oceni (diskrecionoj vlasti)', *Arhiv za pravne i društvene nauke*, no. 5/1927, p. 374.

DISCRETIONARY ADMINISTRATIVE ACTS
IN THE FIELD OF WEAPONS AND AMMUNITION

After observing the entire practice of the administration, the conclusion is that there are less discretionary administrative acts than legally binding ones. However, if we take into consideration the fact that powers of the administration are greater when they are adopted, and that they are adopted in especially sensitive administrative issues, it is clear that the importance of these acts is inversely proportionate to their number.¹⁰

The inability to determine public interest in advance is especially common in the field of internal affairs, thus this field has the most discretionary administrative acts. Discretionary powers are the necessary consequence of the specific nature of this field.¹¹ Administrative issues in the field of internal affairs regularly include sensitive situations, related to security of the citizens and state. Administrative issues that relate to weapons and ammunition are typical example for this. Of course, as it has already been said, this does not mean that the discretionary character of administrative acts in these administrative issues is implied. In this case also, if one wants to determine whether an administrative act is discretionary, one can do this exclusively through analysis of relevant legal provisions.

At this moment, legal regimes for weapons and ammunition in the Republic of Serbia are laid down in a specific way. In 2015, a new Law on Weapons and Ammunition entered into force¹², but it will start being applied a year after its entry into force. In the meantime, the old Law, adopted in 1992¹³, is still valid. Having in mind that the new Law will soon start to be applied, its provisions will be the subject of the analysis.

In attempt to determine their character, for easier and clearly arranged overview, administrative acts in the field of weapons and ammunition can be divided into two basic groups. The first group comprises administrative acts relating to procurement of, possession of and carrying weapons. The second group includes administrative acts relating to performing different economic activities related to weapons and ammunition.

DISCRETIONARY ADMINISTRATIVE ACTS RELATING
TO PROCUREMENT OF, POSSESSION OF AND CARRYING
WEAPONS AND AMMUNITION

In general, determining the character of administrative acts relating to procurement of, possession of and carrying weapons and ammunition is a difficult task. Provisions of the new Law on weapons and ammunition mostly do not offer clear and precise answer to this question. On the contrary, they pose numerous dilemmas. Although based on sound grounds, the intention of the legislator to organise the legal regimes of weapons and ammunition in a restrictive way has, in many cases, lead to confusion between legally binding and legally free parts of an administrative act. As the result, it can be said that some administrative acts contain certain elements of the discretionary assessment. However, it is not certain that they belong to discretionary administrative acts.

10 D. Milkov, 'Moderna državna uprava u Srbiji', *Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta u Novom Sadu*, no. 2/2004, p. 87.

11 See D. Vasiljević, *Zakonitost uprave i diskreciona ocena*, Belgrade 2012, p. 122.

12 Law on Weapons and Ammunition – LWA, 'Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia', no. 20/2015.

13 Law on Weapons and Ammunition, 'Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia', no. 9/92, 53/93, 67/93, 48/94, 44/98, 39/2003, 101/2005 – different law, 85/2005 – different law, 27/2011 – decision of the Constitutional Court and 104/2013 – different law.

Thus, some discretionary elements are contained within those administrative acts that relate to the procurement of weapons for natural persons, the procurement of weapons for legal persons and entrepreneurs, issuance of licences for carrying weapons, issuance of collection permits, the procurement of, possession of and carrying weapons for members of foreign diplomatic-consular representative offices and foreigners with temporary residence in the Republic of Serbia, and taking weapons and ammunition out of the Republic of Serbia.

Approval for procurement of weapons for natural persons relates to the category B weapons¹⁴. The discretionary character of this approval is seen in the facts that it is issued if a natural person, *inter alia*, based on security-operational clearance in place of domicile, place of stay and work, does not indicate, with his/her behaviour, that he/she will pose a threat to him/herself or others, or to public order and peace.¹⁵ Whether a natural person will pose a threat depends on the assessment of the competent authority of internal affairs, conducted according to circumstances of a concrete case. If the competent authority of internal affairs assesses that such a threat does not exist, it will issue the approval. On the other hand, if it assesses that there is such a threat, it will deny the request. The problem, which poses the dilemma on the character of this administrative act, is that the assessment of whether or not there is a threat is classified among exhaustively listed conditions of the substantive law for issuance of this approval. The discretionary assessment comprises a choice that can be made only when all substantive law conditions are met, and they fall under legally binding parts of an administrative act. It turns out that what is essentially a discretionary assessment is formally classified into legally binding parts. The problem, of course, is not just of theoretical nature, but also of practical. Only legally binding parts of an administrative act can be controlled by the Administrative Court. Does this mean that security-operational clearance performed by the competent authority of internal affairs is also subject to judicial control?¹⁶

The competent authority of internal affairs has certain discretion in issuing this approval when determining whether a natural person who wants to procure weapons for personal security has a duly justified reason for this. Duly justified reason exists if a natural person proves that his/her personal security could be jeopardised due to the nature of his/her work or other circumstances.¹⁷ Determining vulnerability of personal security that is caused by the nature of work or other circumstances, however, does not constitute the performance of the discretionary assessment. Actually, this is the case of unspecified notions that should define their content according to the circumstances of a concrete case. However, this should be done in a way which is applicable to other similar cases. If it is assessed that the nature of a certain work or some other circumstances could threaten the security, then this does not apply solely to one concrete natural person, but for all those who perform the said work, i.e. that are found in these circumstances.

Licence for carrying weapons can be issued to a natural person that has a registered weapon for personal security from the category B, if he/she meets conditions prescribed for procurement of weapons and if he/she proves that his/her personal security is significantly threatened or could be threatened to an extent in which it is necessary to carry weapons.¹⁸ Firstly, the question is posed whether notions 'significant threat to personal security' and

14 Convertible weapons and firearms, apart from disabled, automatic and weapons with suppressors.

15 LWA, Article 11, Point 6.

16 There is no dilemma like this in the old Law on Weapons and Ammunition. According to that law, approval for procurement of weapons for natural persons is classified into discretionary administrative acts. Only after meeting conditions of the substantive law, is there a possibility for the competent authority to deny the request of a natural person, if this is necessary for protection of personal and property security of other persons, public order and peace, or for security and defence of the Republic. See Z. Lončar, *Upravno pravo – posebni deo*, Belgrade 2005, p. 107.

17 LWA, Article 11, Point 8.

18 LWA, Article 25.

'threat to an extent that it is necessary to carry weapons' are seen just as unspecified notions, or, on the other hand, authorisation for performing the discretionary assessment. In contrast to assessing whether there is a justified reason for procuring weapons, here it seems that the above mentioned expressions do not constitute unspecified notions, but that they refer to the performance of the discretionary assessment. The competent authority should assess whether the security of a natural person is threatened exclusively according to the circumstances of a concrete case, and not taking into consideration all related cases. By taking account of a particular case alone, the competent authority of internal affairs should assess what is the degree of this threat and whether the carrying of weapons is necessary. The next problem stems from the fact that, as it is the case of the approval for procurement of weapons, the authorisation for performing the discretionary assessment is laid down within the legally binding parts, in the form of a condition for licensing within the substantive law. Finally, the matter is additionally complicated by the fact that it is prescribed that a natural person should make the threat to his/her security likely. To make something likely means that there is a certain degree of probability that some facts exist. Should this mean that the legislator wanted to put the question of good reasons for carrying weapons under determining of facts? If this is the case, it takes us back to the field of legally binding parts.

Legal persons and entrepreneurs can procure weapons if this is in compliance with the activity they perform.¹⁹ Whether the procurement of weapons is in compliance with their activity depends on the assessment of the competent authority of internal affairs. However, it must not perform this assessment solely in view of a concrete case, but of all similar cases. If the nature of an activity is such that it demands weapons to be performed, then this is true for all subjects that perform this activity. Therefore, one should note that these are unspecified notions, and not the discretionary assessment.

This, however, could not be said for the possibility for legal persons and entrepreneurs to obtain automatic long guns. The approval for procurement of these weapons is issued only in extremely justified cases.²⁰ When assessing whether it is an extremely justified case, the focus should exclusively be on that concrete case, and not on similar cases. Therefore, we could say that this approval has a discretionary character.

The need to draw a line between the unspecified notion and discretionary assessment also exists in approvals for taking weapons and ammunition out of the Republic of Serbia. The competent authority of internal affairs issues this approval if a person possesses evidence on consent, issued by the foreign competent authority, i.e. has a duly justified reason for taking weapons and ammunition out of the country.²¹ Although justification depends on the assessment of the competent authority of internal affairs, it seems this is not enough to classify this act among discretionary ones.

Somewhat different dilemma is present when issuing collection permit, the approval for procurement of, possession of and carrying weapons for members of foreign diplomatic-consular representative offices, and foreigners with temporary residence. The issuance of these approvals is prescribed by the Law as a possibility of the competent authority of internal affairs.²² The expression that these administrative acts 'can be issued' if prescribed conditions are met, points to this. However, is this enough to characterise these administrative acts as discretionary? If we take into consideration the fact that for discretionary administrative acts it is important that the administration have a possibility to choose in terms of whether to acknowledge the request of a party, then we could say that they are. However, the discretionary

19 LWA, Article 40, Paragraph 1.

20 LWA, Article 40, Paragraph 2.

21 LWA, Article 34, Paragraph 4.

22 LWA, Articles 18, 36.

assessment does not serve its own purposes, but it should achieve a specific, legally defined goal. The choice that the administration makes depends on its assessments which option is better for achieving this legally defined goal. In these concrete examples, legal provisions do not clarify what should the competent authority of internal affairs assess and on what should it base its decision.

DISCRETIONARY ADMINISTRATIVE ACTS RELATING TO PERFORMING DIFFERENT ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES RELATED TO WEAPONS AND AMMUNITION

In contrast to administrative acts that relate to procurement of, possession of and carrying weapons, the character of administrative acts that relate to performing different economic activities related to weapons and ammunition can be more clearly and more precisely defined. Instead of discretionary elements, here we can speak of discretionary administrative acts. Such character have the administrative acts relating to performing training in handling firearms, repairing and altering weapons, trade in weapons and basic parts for weapons and ammunition, mediating the trade in weapons and ammunition (brokering), and transport of weapons and basic parts for weapons and ammunition.

The example of these administrative acts clearly shows that conditions of the substantive law are different and separated from the approvals for performing the discretionary assessment. The administration has discretionary power to assess which decision is best suited for the protection and achievement of the public interest, only after establishing whether all conditions of the substantive law are met. If the competent authority of internal affairs establishes that prescribed conditions are not met, it will deny the request of a party. However, the competent authority can deny a party's request even when the conditions are met, if this is necessary to protect the public security.²³

The above mentioned administrative acts, therefore, completely fit into the theoretical definition of discretionary administrative acts. The law, first of all, lays down all legally binding elements of these administrative acts, including also the conditions of the substantive law for their adoption. Only after that, does the competent authority of internal affairs face two options. One is to acknowledge the request of a party, and the other one is to deny it. The law does not state which option the competent authority should choose, instead this choice depends on its own assessment. Of course, this assessment is not completely free. It has to be performed in a way to achieve a certain goal, i.e. to protect the public security. If it is performed with this goal in mind, the choice is always legal. However, in order to be expedient, it is necessary for the competent authority of internal affairs to choose an option that enables achievement of that goal in a better way.

The only administrative act which causes a certain dilemma in this field is the approval for procuring weapons in order to sell them further. The law prescribes that this approval can be issued by the competent authority of internal affairs to authorized dealers.²⁴ However, as it was mentioned earlier, in lack of other criteria for establishing the existence of the discretionary assessment, the expression 'can issue' is not sufficient to conclude that this administrative act is discretionary.

²³ LWA, Articles 38, 41 and 42.

²⁴ LWA, Article 39.

CONCLUSION

Discretionary administrative acts are adopted in cases where public interest cannot be precisely defined in advance. Instead, its protection and achievement depend on circumstances in concrete cases. In these situations, the administration has a possibility to choose one of the legally defined options, which it deems to be the best for the protection and achievement of public interest.

The field of weapons and ammunition falls into one of the fields in which discretionary administrative acts are the most common. This, however, does not mean that the discretionary character of administrative acts in this field is implied. Only after detailed analysis of relevant legal provisions, can one reach a conclusion of the discretionary character of certain administrative acts. At this moment, these are the provisions of the new Law on Weapons and Ammunition, whose application is soon to be expected.

In general, it can be sad that provisions of the new Law on Weapons and Ammunitions, which lay down solutions in administrative issues, are unclear. It can be seen that the intention of the legislator was to organize legal regimes of weapons and ammunition in a restrictive way, which is justified. However, the manner in which this was done leads to vague border between legally binding and legally free parts of certain administrative acts. The character of these administrative acts, thus, cannot be determined with certainty. They contain certain discretionary elements, but the question is whether this is enough to classify them as discretionary administrative acts. The problem is that the very question has not only theoretical, but also great practical value. The limits of administrative act's judicial control depend on its character. If these limits are not clearly defined by the law, then they can be defined only by the court in an administrative dispute. This, however, is not in compliance with the essence of the discretionary assessment. The meaning of the discretionary assessment is in the freedom which is given to the administration not by the court, but by the law.

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COOPERATION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECURITY SECTORS IN SECURING PUBLIC GATHERINGS AND SPORTS EVENTS

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Abstract: Contemporary security challenges, risks and threats have led to the fact that the state is no longer the only (exclusive) security provider. Accordingly, the non-state (private) security sector has an increasing role and greater importance in achieving public security. This has led to the fact that police work is slowly narrowing down to confronting the most dangerous (most destructive) forms of threats to security, while at same time the affairs as well as responsibility of the private security sector is broadened.

General trends and developments in the field of internal security over the past few decades have been to establish closer cooperation between public and private security sectors. The areas in which cooperation between two sectors is most visible are the following: the security of public gatherings (e.g. football matches and other sport events), the security of critical infrastructure, the transport of money and other valuables, apprehending offenders, information-sharing, etc. Therefore, the paper especially analyses the cooperation that exists between the public and private security sectors in the Republic of Serbia, as a country in transition. The subject of the analysis is the cooperation in securing public gatherings of citizens and sports events as a form of public gathering. To this end, solutions within legal framework that regulate the jurisdiction and authority of both sectors in these areas will be analysed.

Keywords: public and private security sectors, cooperation, public gatherings, sports events.

INTRODUCTION

One of the main goals of each country, since foundation until today, is to survive, develop and improve its security (and the security of its citizens). The turbulent events in the former Yugoslavia during the 1990s, followed by war and economic sanctions, were only one of the causes that created a large number of socially deprived citizens in the Republic of Serbia. Over the years, the social dissatisfaction has manifested more and more through violence at public gatherings, especially at sports events, which often considerably disturbed public order and peace. This has been a challenge for the state, which on the one hand must enable the citizens to exercise their freedom of gathering, but on the other hand, it must maintain the public order and peace. This ambivalent nature of the state functions created the need for a reorganisation of the entire national security system, with the aim of integrating other entities in the system.

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The growing phenomenon of violence manifested at public events, primarily sport events, has led to the fact that countries increasingly delegate certain jobs of (public) security to private security sector. This is done through law, which enables establishment, functioning and development of private security sector.² This process necessarily involves the integration of private security sector in the national security system. In this way, the state combines the joint efforts of both sectors for the realisation and protection of the overall (integral) security. A necessity of every country is to clearly define the responsibilities, organisation, authorisations, control and cooperation between these entities (mutual and with other state authorities). It should be noted that these requirements have been primarily realised in the developed Western countries, where the level of cooperation between the two sectors is at a high level.

COOPERATION BETWEEN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECURITY SECTORS ABROAD

The increasing number of criminal offences with elements of violence has led to the fact that police today relies heavily on the private security sector as an equal partner. The inability of the state and the police to prevent the terrorist attacks on 11 September 2001 has, once again, put the private security sector in the forefront, as well as the necessity for further development of cooperation and partnership with the police. Further efforts towards partnership have been realised in New York by promoting the program in the fight against terrorism, which includes an intensive exchange of information and joint training. A similar program called the "Project Griffin" was launched in London in 2004.³

Cooperation, as a model of relationship between the two sectors, involves the interaction and support between security agencies and the police in the prevention and repression of crime. This cooperation should be organised and permanent, and it is mostly based on timely information-sharing, both at national, regional and local level. By doing their preventive and repressive function, the police can often obtain certain intelligence in sense of vulnerability of certain persons, property or business. On the other hand, the private security sector when performing its regular activities related to security of critical infrastructure, public assemblies, public institutions, etc., can come across certain intelligence about their vulnerability.⁴ Apart from these preventive activities, cooperation is also realised in the repressive domain, in situations after certain crimes have been committed (capturing perpetrators, securing sites, offering relevant information to shed light on cases, testimony in court, etc.).

The model partnership, as a deeper form of cooperation between the two sectors, is trying to conciliate the antagonism that exists between them.⁵ This is why we say that the efficiency of both sectors in the performance of their functions in the future depends mostly on the establishment of partnership. Partnerships are established for a longer period of time and involve extreme closeness, equality and respect between the partners. The areas of cooperation and the intensity of cooperation is what makes partnership, as a model relationship, different from ordinary cooperation.

2 Radivojević, N., *Safety Culture in the Private Security Sector*; In: Twenty Years of Human Security : theoretical Foundations and Practical Applications/Editorial Ivica Đorđević, Marina Glamotchak, Svetlana Stanarević, Jasmina Gačić, Beograd, Faculty of Security Studies, April 2015, pp. 130.

3 Reisig, D. M.; Kane, J. R. *The Oxford Handbook of Police and Policing*, Oxford University Press, New York, 2014, p. 583.

4 See: Fischer, J. R., Halibozek, E., Green, G., *Introduction to Security*, Oxford: Elsevier Inc., 2008, p. 5-15.
5 *Ibid.*, pp. 60-61.

Partnership involves prior fulfilment of certain conditions, in order to fully use the advantages of both sectors. Therefore, the most important preconditions for the implementation of cooperation and partnership in practice are:

- The division of jobs within the responsibility of the public and private sectors through creation of a work model that would specify the limits of responsibility;
- The establishment of scope and type of work that could be transferred from one sector to another;
- Defining the place and role of the private security sector in preventing and fighting certain forms of crime;
- The necessity in both sectors for managers to formalise their commitment to developing the partnership;
- Specifying the areas in which there is a need for coordination of two sectors' operations;
- Specifying preconditions for improving cooperation in dealing with certain situations;
- The organisation of specialised trainings which will be attended by the representatives of both sectors and will be financed from the joint fund;
- The establishment of a Council, which would consist of the representatives of both sectors, whose task will be to monitor the implementation of the existing regulations and adopted agreements necessary for partnership development;
- Promoting the development of local partnerships;
- Adopting a legal framework that will regulate and facilitate the above mentioned.⁶

STATE OF COOPERATION BETWEEN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECURITY SECTORS IN SECURING PUBLIC GATHERINGS AND SPORTS EVENTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

The period after 2000 in the Republic of Serbia is characterised by the intensification of the privatisation process, which included the 'privatisation of security activities.' This is also the period when more foreign companies appeared on the market and have given an additional incentive to the development of the entire sector. During this period there has been an intensification of activities in terms of making an 'umbrella' law that would systematically organise the field of private security. The result of these activities became visible only in 2013, with the adoption of the Law on Private Security.

Legal regulation of private security should, among other things, allow the institutionalisation of cooperation with the police. The existing 'cooperation' is still at an extremely low level. The law did not create the assumptions that would enable the convergence of the two sectors, and thus their deeper cooperation. This is evident from the problems that have occurred or will occur through its application. When we talk about the relationship between the police and the private security sector, the main shortcomings of the Law on Private Security in this regard are the following:

- Regulatory, organisational and other assumptions have not been created for the application of the Law (non-compliance of the Law with the existing legal regulations, etc.);
- Organisational assumptions for establishing the cooperation between the two sectors have not been created;

⁶ See: Kesić, Z., *Privatni sektor u kontroli kriminaliteta*, Dosije studio, Beograd, 2009, p. 75 and Hess, M. K., *Introduction to Private Security*, Fifth Edition, Wadsworth, Cengage Learning, 2009, p. 86.

- The ways (mechanisms) for establishing cooperation, and communication are not regulated;
- Private security sector is still at a disadvantage with regards to the police;
- The legislator did not consider the necessity of having two (equal) components of internal security (public and private sectors) as it has been done in the National Security Strategy;
- The Ministry of Interior has been given excessive and we could say unfounded powers in some situations in respect of control of agencies;
- The issues that by their nature should be regulated by the Law, remain to be regulated by by-laws.⁷

Some indications of realising the need for cooperation can be found in the provisions of Article 75 of the Law on Private Security, which the Minister of Interior authorises, acting in accordance with regulations governing the public administration, to establish by decree a special working group - *Expert Council for the improvement of private security and public-private partnerships in the security sector*. The aim of this Council is to establish cooperation with associations of legal entities and entrepreneurs for activities of private security and security officers and to monitor the field of private security and the submission of initiatives to improve the performance of tasks in this field in accordance with the new standards. It is envisaged that registered associations of legal entities and entrepreneurs, and security officers submit a candidate from among their members to the Minister to be a member of the Expert Council. It remains unclear, however, why the legislator has not fully regulated this issue by Law, and has left it to the minister. It is unclear who else, besides the delegated representative of the professional association, enters into the Council configuration, what is their mandate, what are the responsibilities of the Council, what is the decision-making process, to whom the initiative for improvements in the field of private security is submitted, etc.⁸

On the other hand, the recently adopted legal framework related to the police work also does not enable the long-awaited closer cooperation with the private security sector. In fact, despite the paragraph adopted within the framework of the National Security Strategy of the Republic of Serbia⁹ stating that “entities in the field of private security, whose business covers the protection and security of individuals, objects and other material goods not covered by the protection of the competent state authorities, have an increasing responsibility in the implementation of internal security policy, in association with the State authorities and other bodies and institutions” in the recently adopted Law on police¹⁰, in the part related to the cooperation of the Ministry of Interior, the cooperation with the private sector is not mentioned in any of the paragraphs. Indirectly, this cooperation is indicated by the new concept of ‘community policing’, referred to in Article 27 which states that “the police develops cooperation and partnership with citizens and other community entities in order to carry out police work and address local security priorities and coordinate common interests and the need to create a favourable environmental security in the community, and the construction of a secure democratic society”.

⁷ See Radivojević, N., *Neki problemi u odnosima policije i sektora privatnog obezbeđenja*, 6. Naučno-stručni skup sa međunarodnim učešćem “Suprotstavljanje savremenim oblicima kriminaliteta - analiza stanja, evropski standardi i mere za unapređenje”, Tara: Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, 26-29 Maj, 2015, p. 209-219 and Stajić, Lj., Mandić, J. G., *Neke kontroverze Zakona o privatnom obezbeđenju*, Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta u Novom Sadu, no. 2/2014, p. 131-150.

⁸ N. Radivojević, *Neki problemi u odnosima policije i sektora privatnog obezbeđenja*, 1. Naučno-stručni skup sa međunarodnim učešćem “Suprotstavljanje savremenim oblicima kriminaliteta - analiza stanja, evropski standardi i mere za unapređenje”, Tara: Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, 26-29 Maj, 2015, p. 213.

⁹ *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 88/2009.

¹⁰ *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/2016, Articles 15-21.

COOPERATION IN SECURING PUBLIC GATHERINGS

The work of protecting persons and their property is one of the complementary activities of public and private security sectors. In this way, both sectors contribute to the achievement and maintenance of public order and peace.¹¹

As it was mentioned earlier, the freedom of gathering represents a constitutionally¹² guaranteed human right. On the basis of this constitutional provision, the Public Gathering Act¹³ has been adopted, and it regulates the forms of gathering, the space, gathering organiser, and it lays down the obligation of gathering registration, the content of the gathering application, *organiser responsibilities*, leaders of gathering, *involvement of watchmen and participants at the gathering*, *security measures*, prevention or interruption of gathering, measures in the event of termination of gathering, penal provisions and transitional and final provisions. A gathering, in terms of this Act, is a gathering of more than 20 people for the purpose of expression, realisation and promotion of civil, political, social and national beliefs and objectives, other freedoms and rights in a democratic society. An assembly also includes other forms of gathering aimed at expressing religious, cultural, and humanitarian, *sports*, entertainment and other interests.¹⁴

The most important provisions, in the context of this paper, are the ones relating to the activities of securing people and property during a gathering, as well as the responsibilities of the gathering organiser. Namely, the Ministry of Interior has the immediate responsibility for protecting the security of people and property, the security of the Republic of Serbia, the protection of public health, moral, the protection of the rights of others and other activities relating to the maintenance of gathering. The responsibility of the private security sector is indirect due to the fact that it is realised through the gathering organisers. The organiser is the one who is obliged to *hire a stewarding* and ensure the maintenance of a peaceful gathering in such a way as to prevent an outbreak of violence and indecent behaviour of the participants during the gathering as well as during the arrival and departure of the participants of the gathering, to guide and supervise the gathering and to *organise and direct the work of stewards and act upon the orders of the competent authority* (which is, in most cases, the police), to enable unhindered passage of ambulances, police, fire-fighting vehicles and public transport vehicles; act on the orders of the competent authority; stop the gathering if there is a direct threat to the safety of people and property and immediately notify the police.¹⁵ From the above mentioned we can see that it is the obligation of the organiser to hire the stewarding and organise and coordinate the work of stewards and act upon the orders of the police. This work requires relevant expertise, which gathering organisers often do not possess. Therefore, the gathering organiser should rely on the private security sector. Organisation and coordination, as managerial functions, include monitoring, evaluation and planning before. This is actually a job for the private security sector, and it is envisaged as such by the Law on Private Security.¹⁶

The content of the gathering notification submitted by the organiser contains, among other things, the information about the person responsible for the stewarding, the time and place of the public gathering, the route of movement, as well as the data of interest for a safe and

11 See: Law on Private Security, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.104/2013 and 42/2015, Law on Public Order and Peace, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/2016 and Law on the Police, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/2016.

12 The Constitutions of the Republic of Serbia, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 98/2006, Article 54.

13 *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/2016.

14 Public Gathering Act, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/2016, Article 2.

15 *Ibid*, Article 9-12.

16 Law on Private Security, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.104/2013 and 42/2015, Articles 6 and 9.

smooth organisation.¹⁷ This means that the organiser of the gathering is required to draw up a security assessment of the threat, based on which (but not exclusively) the police makes its security assessment. Accordingly, the police may issue a decision not to allow organisation of the gathering.¹⁸ This is a phase where it is possible to establish cooperation. Furthermore, while creating a gathering security plan, it would be advisable for the police to involve the person responsible for the stewards in its drafting. In this way the stewards will get familiar with all the aspects of securing the gathering, and it may enable better and more efficient execution of their tasks.

COOPERATION IN SECURING SPORTS EVENTS

Sports events, as a special form of public gathering, are subject to a special legal regime regulated by the Law on Sports and Law on the Prevention of Violence and Misbehaviour at Sports Events. The Law on the Prevention of Violence and Misbehaviour at Sports Events is *lex specialis* with regard to the Public Gathering Act. This law lays down the measures for the prevention of violence and misbehaviour at sports events and relating to sports events, as well as the responsibilities of organisers and the powers of competent authorities in implementing these measures.

As it was the case with public gatherings in general, the cooperation between public and private sectors in organising sports events is done through mediation of the organiser of a sports event. Namely, the organiser of a sports event is obliged, in cooperation with the ministry in charge for internal affairs (the police), to ensure security of a sports event and to take measures that prevent and disable occurrences of violence and misbehaviour of spectators. Here, the responsibility of the organiser is raised to a higher level, given the fact that he is obliged to control the implementation of the measures provided for in this Act. Apart from the preventive measures that are mostly focused on spectators and sports clubs, the adoption of internal acts, etc., the organiser is obliged to take measures during a sports event (regular state and state of increased risk).¹⁹

The basic measure that the organiser should take is to establish an *adequate* stewarding or to hire a *legal person or an entrepreneur to perform the activities of physical security or maintenance of order at a sports event*.²⁰ Article 8a lays down the responsibilities (powers) of the stewarding, and spectators, i.e. group of spectators is obliged to act according to orders of the stewarding when it performs its activities. The term 'adequate' is quite unspecific, which is unacceptable in regard to high pecuniary sanctions provided for the organiser who does not establish an 'adequate' stewarding.²¹ Additional confusion lies in the fact that the stewarding 'draws' its powers from the Law on Private Security, whose application has been postponed until 1 January 2017. The Law on Private Security lays down the powers of private security officers, which can be applied only after a person goes through an adequate training and passes the professional exam in the Ministry. Only then the person obtains the licence to perform the activities in maintaining order at public gatherings, sports events and other places where citizens assemble.

¹⁷ Public Gathering Act, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/2016, Article 14, paragraph 1.

¹⁸ *Ibid*, Articles 8 and 15.

¹⁹ Law on the Prevention of Violence and Misbehaviour at Sports Events, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 67/2003, 101/2005 – other law, 90/2007, 72/2009 - other law, 111/2009 and 104/2013 - other law, Articles 3, 7-17.

²⁰ *Ibid*, Article. 8.

²¹ See *Ibid*, Article 21.

In principle, the cooperation between the police and private security sector in securing a sports event can be seen through three phases, as follows: 1) the phase before the beginning of a sports event; 2) the phase during a sports event; and 3) the phase after the end of a sports event.²²

The phase before the beginning of a sports event includes the period from the notification about a sports event until its start. In this phase, the *security situation is being assessed*, this includes: the place of the event, the time of the event, the number of participants, the goal of the event, the importance of the event in the media, previous experiences with similar events, the security assessment in the country and beyond, the operative intelligence about mass gatherings, the assessment of the police units for security. Based on the security assessment, the police drafts a *security plan*, which comprises: the identification of the event organiser, time, beginning and estimated end of the event, the number of citizens expected at the sports event, the number of hired officers of private security/steward, their arrangement within the sports facility or grounds, units that are hired for security, role and basic approach of the hired units, the arrangement and location of units according to security phases, traffic security, criminal-operational security, information-analytic security, communication plan, fire prevention plan and security, units and authorities for logistics, management and commanding.²³ As we can see, the security assessment and security plan are based on the data which the organiser of an event must state in the notification according to the law.

The data that the organiser of an event (i.e., so called commissioners for security within certain sports federations) submits to the police is actually some form of a security assessment, which presents a base for hiring private security sector.²⁴ The police adopts the security plan based on this security assessment that has been forwarded to them, and based on their own direct intelligence and information. In order not to double the work, there is a possibility that a team, comprising the representatives of the police, the event organiser and private security, drafts a security plan.

The Ministry in this phase, and in the case of a sports event of increased risk at least 24 hours before the event, is empowered to perform a check of the sports facility where the event will take place and gain insight into organisation preparations. If the organiser of a sports event does not act according to the Ministry's orders, and the security of participants of the event can be jeopardised due to the observed deficiencies, the Ministry can cancel the sports event. This is also possible during the sports event.²⁵ These measures of organisation preparation include the clear division of activities and responsibilities between the organiser, stewarding and police, which are finalised at the meeting held immediately before the start of a sports event.

The phase during the sports event includes taking the measures at the very sports facility and its immediate surroundings. This phase is specific because the stewarding and the police are in charge of identification of persons who are forbidden to participate at a sports event, physical separation of fans of home and guest teams respectively, identification and separation of persons who are under the influence of alcohol, who are violent and thus violate or can violate public order and peace. Good communication between the stewarding and police is crucial in this phase. Being responsible for all activities, the police are in charge of coordination of all members of the physical security. The organiser of a sports event is obliged to appoint a responsible person who is in charge of the implementation of measures provided by

22 See, Otašević, B., *Nasilje na sportskim priredbama*, Službeni glasnik, Beograd, 2015, p. 337-345.

23 Compare: Lazović, M., Milošević, V., Milojević, S., *Sredstva i taktika policije*, Policijska akademija, Beograd, 2002, p. 123.

24 See: Rulebook on the Security and Conduct at Handball Competitions, available at: <http://rss.org.rs/>
25 Law on the Prevention of Violence and Misbehaviour at Sports Events, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 67/2003, 101/2005 – other law, 90/2007, 72/2009 - other law, 111/2009 and 104/2013 - other law, Article 17, paragraphs 2 and 3.

the law and who will cooperate with the police. Unfortunately, it is clear that this 'cooperation' actually comes down to the police assuming control and ordering the stewarding. This can also be seen from the provision of the Law on Private Security, where Article 42, paragraph 3 states that a "watchman acts on orders of an authorised police officer in accordance with the Security Plan". This article violates the unity, subordination and chain of command in securing a public gathering, because a steward should take orders relating to his/her work from a superior, i.e. from a person responsible for managing the stewarding, and not from an authorised police officer. It is clear that the legislator's intention was to stress the subordinate position of watchmen. The intention is a result of not understanding the basic fact that both the police and private security are performing the same work and are equal partners within their scope of work when securing a public gathering.²⁶

One of the powers of the police when securing a sports event is the possibility to record public places. Namely, when human life and health or property could be jeopardised during a public gathering, a police officer is empowered to record or photograph the public assembly.²⁷ It is well known that agencies for private security have a better 'offer' in terms of offering security service related to material-technical equipment. If the police use this equipment, this would lead to the rational use of resources, lower the costs, and therefore increase efficiency in joint efforts to secure public order and peace.

The phase after the end of a sports event comprises the period from the end of an event until all spectators leave the sports facility. Good coordination between the police and stewarding should enable the spectators to leave the facility in a fast and safe way. The special attention should be given to the extreme fans, who need to have a separate exit in order to prevent possible violence. After this, it would be desirable for the representatives of organisers, police and stewarding to analyse security of a sports event, in order to observe possible deviations from the established goals, activities and tasks. Basic goals of these analyses are to follow the established procedure in: 1) assessing the scope and quality of performance and achieved results; 2) assessing the contribution of all operators who participated in securing the event, in order to determine what was realised well and what was not, who did a good job and who did not; 3) taking or suggesting adequate corrective measures, depending on individual contributions to achieved results; and 4) recording the experiences, in order to use the positive ones in the future, and to eliminate the negative ones when securing the future sports events.²⁸

CONCLUSION

One of the basic principles in achieving security in the developed Western countries is the integration of public and private security sectors in the organisation and implementation of programmes and projects that prevent criminal activity. These projects include the prevention of violence at public gatherings, and especially at sports events. The Republic of Serbia has joined the general trend of developing the cooperation between the public and private sectors, to a greater or lesser extent. Namely, it has become clear, even in Serbia, that the police and state (public sector) should not be the only ones who are in charge of the general security.

Unfortunately, the existing regulations within the legal framework do not adequately enable realisation of this cooperation, and this is obvious when we look at security of public gatherings, i.e. sports events. One of the main problems is that the Law on Private Security is

26 Stajić, Lj., Mandić, J. G., *Neke kontroverze Zakona o privatnom obezbeđenju*, Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta, no. 2/2014, p. 147.

27 Law on Private Security, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.104/2013 i 42/2015, Article 52.

28 See: Stevanović, O., Stajić, Lj., *Bezbednosni menadžment*, Pravni fakultet u Novom Sadu, Novi Sad, 2015, p. 322.

still not being fully applied, therefore the private security sector is denied of powers necessary when performing security activities. This is also accompanied by the existing animosities between the members of the two sectors. This is why the work on the promotion of cooperation between the sectors is an ongoing process, where public gatherings and sports events are just one of the fields where this cooperation is possible.

The Law on Private Security has laid foundation for creating adequate conditions for professionalization of private security, more efficient performance of agencies for private security, as well as for reaching standards that will improve the quality of services. This is why it is necessary to accept criticism and proposals by the scientific and expert public, which amend the legal framework regulating the freedom of public gathering in order to create a healthy base for establishing effective cooperation with the police.

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MODEL OF COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MANAGERS WITHIN THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA BY USING MODERN TECHNICAL MEANS IN THE NON-VOICE MESSAGING SYSTEM¹

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Abstract: In order to enable more efficient communication between users, the Ministry of the Interior has taken the initiative to improve police communication subsystem and to modify the existing system for issuing orders, distributing notices and other official documents (usually commanding acts) relevant for police work. The aim of this initiative is to shorten the period necessary for distributing official documents (from the source to destination), maximally reduce the number of actors, and to improve measures for the protection of transmission (primarily safety and efficiency). In this regard, this paper describes and explains the model of communication between the managers of the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Serbia, including specific methods (initial points), procedures and devices for communication. To better understand and perceive the current situation, the Ministry of the Interior has carried out statistical analysis of the official documents distribution via the system for the transmission of non-voice messages for each stage of its development. The paper also discusses the possibilities to improve the existing communications system and develop the communication between managers through the process of implementing modern technical and technological achievements in the field of communications aiming to create optimal conditions for timely decision-making and their forwarding in order to raise the overall level of effectiveness and efficiency in executing tasks and duties. In order to analyze all the complex aspects of the subject matter, special emphasis of this paper is given to graphical models showing simplified images of communication between managers at the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia when using modern communication means (devices) in the systems for the transmission of non-voice messages. Bearing that in mind, this paper presents a distribution scheme of non-voice messages of the existing system between managers of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, as well as draft graphical models of the first, second and third phase of the newly proposed distribution of non-voice messages.

Keywords: model, communication, system for the transmission of non-voice messages, manager, user, Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Serbia.

INTRODUCTION

Communication is the basis of the police management system. But, as it is well known, such system based on communication is subjected to numerous problems, so problems arise

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ing in communication in the police management system can also be caused by several reasons which are given below:

1. time,
2. quality (of communications),
3. technical-technological conditions, and
4. subjective reasons.

However, this paper focuses on the problem of speed (time) and security of transferring information in the chain of command (between police managers) within the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Serbia. So, this paper deals with solving the problem of delays in transmission and protection of information in the system of communication within the Ministry.

Speed and protection (protection of confidentiality) of communication in the information and communication system are prerequisites for the usefulness of information transferred since possible delays and the vulnerability of information makes them worthless. So, this paper focuses on efficiency, and therefore the effectiveness of the system for the transmission of the official messages within the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Serbia. Hence, the improvement of communication between managers of the Ministry of Interior will split in two directions: (1) improvement of technical means (devices) contained in the systems for the transmission of non-voice messages follows the latest trends of their development, (2) the standardization of transmission will be established in the form of instructional acts. In addition, these means (devices) will support verbal, non-verbal and group communication among its actors which means that all elements of the basic model of communication will be included, as well as vertical and horizontal dimensions of the police organization.

DISTRIBUTION OF OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS FOR THE TRANSMISSION OF NON-VOICE MESSAGES WITHIN THE EXISTING SYSTEM

The system for the transmission of non-voice message which is currently in use within the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia is able to transfer (1) non-voice messages without designation of confidentiality; (2) non-voice messages having the designation of all degrees of confidentiality (from the lowest to the highest level of confidentiality “Top Secret”); (3) non-voice messages having the designation of urgency. Depending on the designation of confidentiality the system automatically selects the appropriate algorithm and keys, automatically encrypt or decrypt a document without the interaction with a user. Procedures for the distribution of messages having the designation of urgency are defined by appropriate instructions which also stipulate a deadline for the message delivery to the end user.

The system for the transmission of non-voice messages currently in use within the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Serbia is designed by the Ministry’s experts as replacement for the previous *PCTelex* system and the former organization as a base including crypto and expedition centers for non-voice messages as a point of non-voice messages transformation (from paper to electronic form and vice versa). The concept of the system is designed to ensure connections with the old system through the converters that the implementation could be done in stages, and in today’s conditions converters provide an alternative communication system in the event of the telephone system failure.³

³ Handbook- Communication systems of the MoI RS, the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, Belgrade, 2003.

Regardless the fact that the system does not provide customers any extra options, the system does justify its primary purpose, which is - distribution of text messages. Beside the limitations imposed by the application and its security mechanisms (for example, when receiving or sending messages, or when the system is on-line, all other activities including the work of users and encryption are blocked), employees of the Ministry of Interior made the system of protection all by themselves, at the operating system level, so that users are not able to access to any resource or application, unless the application for non-voice messages and resources controlled by the application.

The scheme of distribution of non-voice messages within the current system is shown in Figure 1.

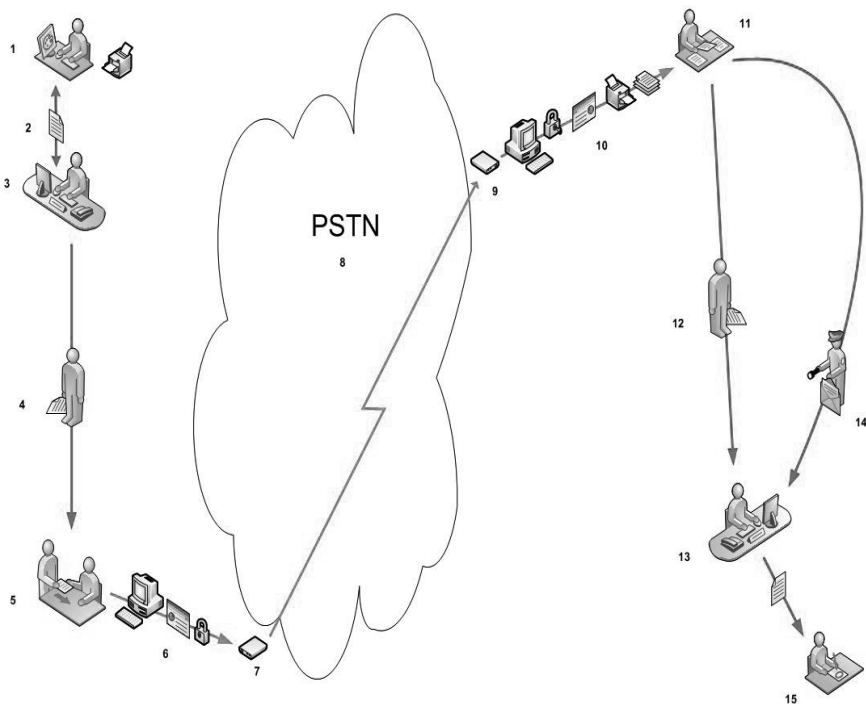


Figure 1: *The scheme of distribution of non-voice messages within the current system*

Benefits (for the users) - positive features of the current system for the transmission of non-voice messages are:

- The system is distributed to each PPU⁴, PS⁵ and PO⁶,
- on-duty 24/7,
- permanent system availability,
- automatic acknowledgment of a sent message,
- 24/7 fully operative dispatch delivery to the end user.
- verified crypto-protection system in use,

4 PPU – regional police directorate.

5 PS – police station.

6 PO – police department.

- less need for computer and telecommunication resources,
- a simple user interface

The main lacks of the current system for the transmission of non-voice messages:

- dispatches available for the end user in only paper form,
- more participants (actors) in the chain between the end user and dispatch delivery center,
- editors not adjusted for image and tables input,
- there is no possibility of sending multimedia content,
- the system is not mobile
- wasting time on retyping texts,
- keeping record manually,
- Insufficient distribution (availability) of the system (for example, in the border police stations).

The users' opinion on what needs to be done to improve the distribution of non-voice messages within the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia:

- enable sending scanned documents,
- introduce the possibility of downloading content from portable media (USB, CD, DVD, etc.),
- establish an automatic electronic records of the distribution of non-voice messages,
- implement automatic assignment of unique reference numbers,
- introduce electronic circulation of documents from the source title final destination,
- introduce SMS notifications of the arrival of urgent messages (for police heads),
- introduce the possibility of distribution of non-voice messages to mobile devices,
- turn off automatic printing of received messages,
- disable the possibility to preview the contents of the official act anyone who is not the first and last actor in
 - the dispatch distribution chain, regardless of the designation of confidentiality,
 - connect the system for transmission of non-voice messages with the certification body of the MoI,
 - introduce strict procedures for authentication of users and devices,
 - adopt guidelines for the work and determine precise and detailed procedures
 - conduct employee training
 - design a system for archiving non-voice messages with the ability to search by various criteria (date, reference number, sender, recipient, keyword).

Finally, the general conclusion is that the current system for distributing non-voice messages within the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia is functional, but needs to be further developed.

DISTRIBUTION OF OFFICIAL ACTS USING NON-VOICE MESSAGING SYSTEM AT THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR PER DEVELOPMENT STAGES

Phases of development of the system for the transmission of non-voice messages within the Ministry of the Interior can be conditionally divided into:

- Phase I -the use of a teleprinter in the system for the transmission of non-voice messages (up to 1993),
- Phase II -implementation of computers in the system for the transmission of non-voice messages, which have the function of teleprinter (1993-2003),
- Phase III -the establishment of a completely new computer system in the system for the transmission of non-voice messages (2003-2005),
- Phase IV- Implementation and introduction of modern technical and technological achievements, and information technologies in the system for the transmission of non-voice messages.

To properly realize all aspects, as well as the need to develop a system for the transmission of non-voice messages at the Ministry of the Interior through the process of modernization and implementation of technical and technological achievements and information technologies as well, it will be conducted analysis of official statistical data concerning the total annual distribution of dispatches (official acts) within the Ministry for the period 1990-2014.

Table1: Total annual distribution of dispatches via non-voice messaging system at the Ministry of Interior for the period 1990- 2014

YEAR	NUMBER	%
1990	441006	4.7
1991	439866	4.7
1992	437346	4.6
1993	435625	4.6
1994	434169	4.6
1995	432523	4.6
1996	429865	4.6
1997	429021	4.6
1998	426796	4.5
1999	425345	4.5
2000	423996	4.5
2001	423256	4.5
2002	422423	4.5
2003	388635	4.1
2004	377521	4.0
2005	375258	4.0
2006	367946	3.9
2007	351682	3.7
2008	345654	3.7
2009	325002	3.5
2010	312563	3.3

2011	309063	3.3
2012	263022	2.8
2013	203716	2.2
2014	193029	2.1
TOTAL	9414328	100.0

Source: Official statistics of the Directorate of Telecommunications and Encryption, SA-TIT, Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Serbia

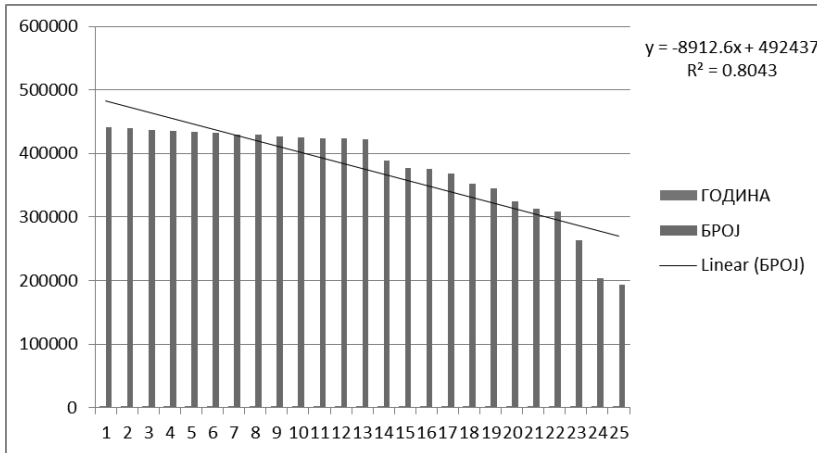


Chart 1: Trend of annual distribution of dispatches via non-voice messaging system at the Ministry of Interior for the period 1990-2014

Source: Official statistics of the Directorate of Telecommunications and Encryption, MoI RS

These charts shows notable negative trend in the number of dispatches (negative direction coefficient=-8912.6) in this period, with a high coefficient of determination ($R^2=0,8043$) and the correlation (the root of the coefficient of determination) which is equal to $r=0.897$.

The first and second development phase of the system for the transmission of non-voice messages at the Ministry of the Interior shows that the flow of both official documents and dispatches is mainly equalized and ranges from 440,000 to 390,000 distributed acts per year, which is not surprising considering that the radioteleprinter system of the MoI was used as the only form of transmission in this period.

There was no significant deviation from the usual number of dispatches not even in the second phase. In this period, in most communications centers teleprinters were replaced by computers which were practically used as teleprinters.

Only in the third phase (2003-2005) and later (in the fourth phase) after a completely new computer system in the system for the transmission of non-voice messages was established, there has been intense decrease in a flow of official documents and dispatches which culminated in their twice smaller number distributed in the last two years (2013/2014). This information should be clarified in order to avoid the wrong impression.

The fact showing that in recent years the number of distributed dispatches (via non-voice messaging system) has been reduced almost in half compared to the initial years that are here analyzed, does not imply that the security policy of the state and affairs which are the responsibility of the police have been significantly smaller comparing to previous period.

On the contrary, the implementation of modern technical and technological achievements and information technologies in information and communication system of the Ministry of Interior changed the ways and time for distribution of official acts. Therefore, the number of distributed dispatches via the non-voice messaging system recently reduced by half is not surprising, since new methods and technologies for the transmission of information (for instance TETRA system, Extranet, Intranet, etc.) were developed and implemented which contributed to increasing the efficiency of official communication.

This certainly indirectly affects the efficiency of managerial subsystems of the MoIRS and the Ministry as a whole, because in the chain of command, across all lines of work (public order and peace, preventing and combating crime, road safety, state border security, emergency, etc.), one of the crucial role is timely decision-making by managers and their timely transmitting to their subordinates. The manager, who acts as the leader of the group, makes decisions concerning:

- initiating and coordinating activities of all police members having the common goal, and
- connecting group (organization) with wider structures⁷

Analysis of statistics for the specified period concerning the total annual distribution of dispatches via non-voice messaging system at the Ministry of Interior shows that the improvement of communication between managers at the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia largely depends on the harmonization with international standards in the field of technical -technological achievements and their implementation in information -communication systems for the transmission of non-voice messages. Considering that following these trends needs to be harmonized with the resources, it is necessary to simultaneously use both old and new systems for the transmission of non-voice messages which would provide that the dynamic of modernization of technical means for transferring non-voice messages be implemented in phases. This process of modernization is determined by financial and organizational prerequisites, and staffing requirements as one of the most important condition (training a sufficient number of operators to communication systems).

PROPOSED MODIFICATIONS TO THE CURRENT SYSTEM FOR TRANSMISSION OF NON-VOICE MESSAGES

Taking into account the requirements for removing intermediaries in communication and simplifying the process for the end users, the rapid transition to a new mode of work would certainly lead to disturbances in the system of management within the RS Ministry of Interior, so it is necessary to approach to modifying the system progressively. These are reasons why the modification should be made in stages and carried out in a way that police units that have already changed the mode of operation are able to communicate with the units that still operate under the old system. A model of technical solution that could be implemented in phases is given below, with emphasis on the third phase as the most important.⁸

The aim of the first phase is to remove official acts in paper form as far as possible, as well as intermediaries in communication. Also to create a platform that will enable the introduction of new services out of which some are to be implemented in the first phase. All

⁷ Tomić, Z., *Komunikologija*, Čigoja, Belgrade, 2003, p. 71.

⁸ *Working Group report on reorganization of distribution of non-voice messaging system within the Ministry of the Interior*, Analytics, Telecommunications and Information Technologies Sector, MoIRS, No.01: 935/13-2 30December2013.

these activities should be carried out in a reasonably short period of time. The starting point for the improvement of the system would be the current application for the transfer of non-voice messages and current crypto-algorithm, given that the application is exclusively owned by and under the complete control of the RS Ministry of Interior, as well as the algorithm which has already passed the process of verification.

Proposed first phase of modification is shown in figure 2.

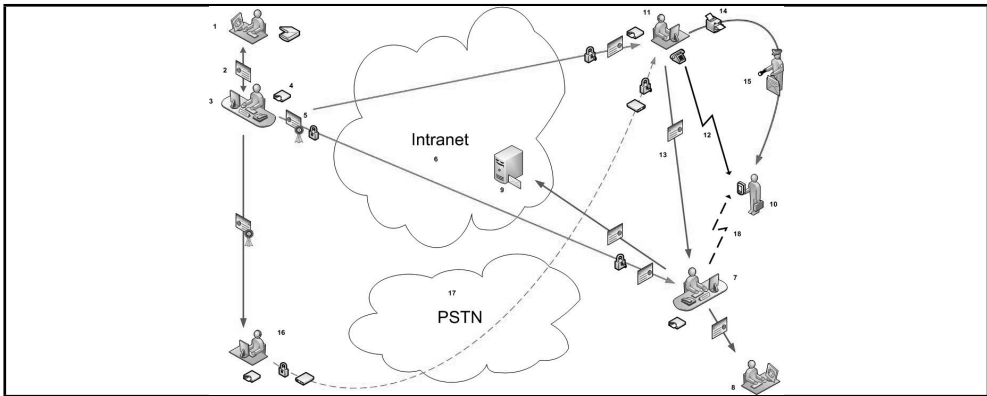


Figure 2: *The first phase of modification of non-voice messages distribution*

Legend:

- Red arrows in the figure indicate the distribution of official documents in printed/paper form.
- Green arrows in the figure indicate the distribution of official documents in electronic form with adequate cryptographic protection for documents designated as secret is provided
- Blue arrows indicate the distribution of official documents in electronic form where adequate cryptographic protection for documents designated as secret is not provided
- Black arrows indicate user's notification on the arrival of an official act.

Distribution of official documents during the first phase of modification of non-voice messaging system is carried out in the following manner: person in charge of a document (1) creates the version of the document in the application for non-voice messages which can be enclosed with other documents in various formats, including scanned pdf documents; then using local network (2), person in charge of a document sends the document to his/her manager (3) which has the authority to sign the act. In the event that the manager has objections to the content of the proposed act, he/she returns the document to the person in charge of to additionally process it. If the content of the act is satisfactory, using the official card, manager (4) digitally signs and encrypts the document (5), then sends it directly to the destination via the Intranet network (6). A manager of the organizational unit (7) receives a document in electronic form and forwards it via local area network to a person in charge of to take further steps (8). If there is a need or official act is not designated as secret, the manager may forward it as e-mail (9). In case the manager of the organizational unit is absent (10) and/or his/her application is not in active status, the document will be sent to the Center for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages (or on duty service) of the organizational unit (11) which will make a contact (12) with the manager and will send him the act via local network if there are such conditions (13), or will print the document (14) and send it by courier (15). If the intranet network is not available, the official document can be sent via the Center for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages (16) and the public switched telephone network (17).

If there is an objective need and the necessary material resources are provided, managers of police organizational units can be assigned the application (on receiving station) which automatically sends SMS notification on received messages designated as urgent, or if such message is not read/opened in a defined period of time (18).

Based on the first phase of proposed organization of distribution of non-voice messaging system can be determined tasks to be allocated to the Working Group engaged in the development of methodology and implementation of the system. It is necessary to install the application on the existing computers which are connected to the Intranet network or are already in the systemŠ-92, first at centers for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages, then at managers of organizational units and other police officers who are in charge of official acts. Given that the application will be used on computers that are also used by other applications where users have an unrestricted access to data stored on the hard disk and the computers are on the network, so it is necessary to apply additional measures of protection.

The current look of the application proved to be acceptable to users may be mostly kept after modification provided for the first phase. Officers in charge of such document should be allowed to communicate, via local network, to their managers only. A single form of an official act should also be prescribed by the instruction and installed along with the application. The application should support the attachment of other contents (.pdf, .doc, etc.) to the base document (made in editor application) and the processing of such a group as a whole.

A manager needs to have a key on the application to digitally sign documents whose activation automatically creates a seal with visual verification of the identity of the sender on such created document. Manager who wants to send a document(or several documents)should have the option to send such document simultaneously to multiple addresses and to be able to quickly determine whether a recipient's application is active or not. If a recipient's application is not active, the document will be diverted to duty service (i.e. the Centre for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages, in the case of the regional police directorate or MoI headquarters). There should also be an indicator of connection to the Internet network so that the manager can send an official act via the Center for encryption and expedition non-voice messages (16) and the public switched telephone network in case of unavailability of the network (17).

No matter if the transfer is done via an intranet or a public switched telephone network, a cryptographic algorithm from the current system for the transmission of non-voice messages is always applied. Receiving application should have visual signaling of incoming message.

When a manager starts opening a received message, the application should be able to carry out a complete process of decryption independently. In case that a received message is designated as urgent, where possible, it is necessary to provide the additional option of sending an SMS notification on received messages to the manager. This would be possible only with the installation of the suitable hardware. Once when a manager opens and reads the message on his/her computer, he should have the option to forward it with his comment to the employee of his organizational unit empowered for further processing, or to forward the act to a manager of the other organizational units. It is also necessary to install *Lotus Notes*-mail application on these computers and allow the files without secrecy designation to be sent this way.

If such solution is accepted, implementation of the first phase will not require extra expenditures for the purchase of hardware. Therefore, it is necessary to obtain the card reader and a modem or telephone with cards for connecting to the wireless network for sending SMS notification of received message. In case those funds for the purchase of hardware cannot be provided, it is possible to install the software versions of the system for digital signing of documents and, at this phase, to give up from notification on received messages designated as urgent, therefore the implementation costs will be reduced to zero. As soon as the imple-

mentation of the first phase is finished, the conditions for implementing the second phase of modifications will be fulfilled with prior preparation. Then can begin the implementation of the second phase.

Proposed second phase of modification is shown in figure 3.

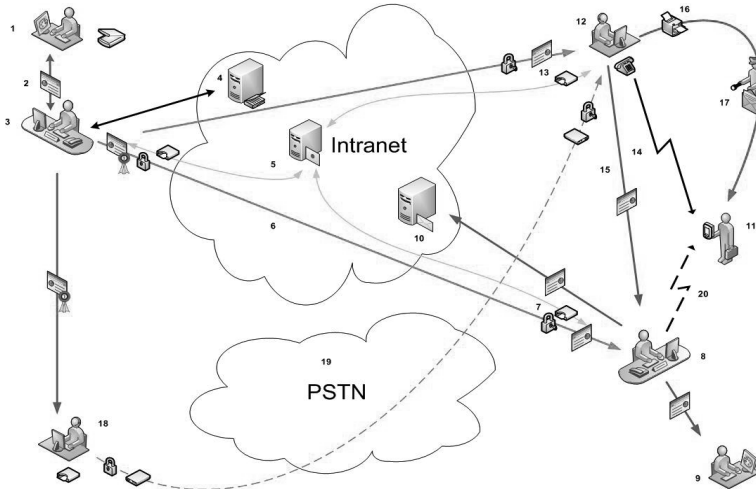


Figure 3: *Proposed second phase of modification of non-voice messaging system*

Legend:

- Red arrows in the figure indicate the distribution of official documents in printed/paper form.
- Green arrows in the figure indicate the distribution of official documents in electronic form where adequate cryptographic protection for documents designated as secret is provided.
- Blue arrows indicate the distribution of official documents in electronic form where adequate cryptographic protection for documents designated as secret is not provided.
- Yellow arrows indicate the user authentication.
- Black arrows indicate user's notification on the arrival of an official act and communication with an electronic registry application.

Distribution of official acts during the second phase of modification of non-voice messaging system is carried out in the following manner: person in charge of the official act/document (1) creates the version of a document in the application for non-voice messages along with attached documents in various formats, including scanned .pdf documents; then using local network (2), person in charge of a document sends the document to his/her manager (3) which has the authority to sign the act. In the event that the manager has objections to the content of the proposed act, he/she returns the document to the person in charge of to reprocess it. If the content of the act is satisfactory, the application for electronic registry will be called (4) and shared fields filled in. After that, the official act is signed by qualified signature and encrypted by using data contained in the official card and by checking with the certification body(5), then (6) the document will be directly sent to its destination via the Intranet network. At the destination, the act will be decrypted and electronic signature verified (7), then after reviewing it, the manager of the organizational unit (8) will forward the act, via local network, to the officer in charge of to take further steps. (9). If there is a need, the acts which are not designated as secret, the manager may forward as e-mail message (10).

In case the manager of the organizational units absent (11) and/ or his/her application is not in active status, the document will be sent to the Center for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages of the organizational unit (12), where the electronic signature(13) will also be checked. Center for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages will establish a contact(14) to the manager via the duty service and send him the document via the local network if the conditions are fulfilled (15), or will print the document(16) and send it by courier(17). In case that the Intranet network is not available, the official document can be sent via the Center for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages (18) and the public switched telephone network (19). If there is a need, managers of organizational units can also have the application for automatically sending of SMSs with notification on the arrival of messages designated as urgent, or if the message is not read/opened in a defined period of time(20). The third phase of modification of non-voice messaging system is presented in Figure4

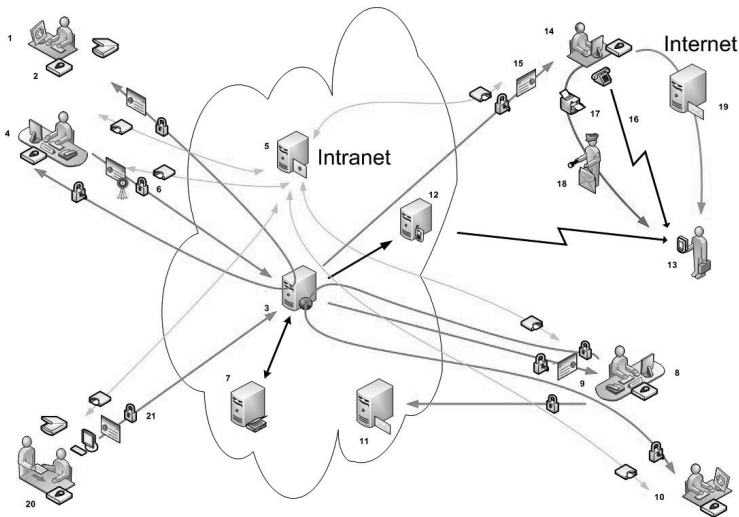


Figure 4: Proposed third phase of modification of non-voice messaging system

Legend:

- Red arrows in the figure indicate the distribution of official documents in printed/paper form.
- Green arrows in the figure indicate the distribution of official documents in electronic form provided with adequate cryptographic protection for documents designated as secret
- Blue arrows indicate the distribution of official documents in electronic form where adequate cryptographic protection for documents designated as secret is not provided
- Yellow arrows indicate the user authentication.
- Black arrows indicate user's notification on the arrival of an official act and communication with an Electronic Registry application

Distribution of official acts/documents during the third phase of the modification of non-voice messaging system is carried out in the following manner: person in charge of the official act (1) creates the version of the document in web application for non-voice messages enclosing it other documents (which can be in various formats, including those scanned in .pdf format), encrypts the document with the help of a special cryptographic modules (HSM2) and keeps it on the web server(3) so that a manager(4) who has the authority can sign the act. In the event that the manager has objections to the content of the act, he/she shall notify

the person in charge of to process the document additionally. If the content is satisfactory, using data contained in the official card but after checking with the certification body (5), the act will be digitally signed and encrypted (6), then forwarded to a web server. During this process, the connection with electronic records will be automatically started (7) and the necessary parameters such as reference number of the official act will be generated. Receiving party (8) will get the notification on the arrival of the act. After that the act can be decrypted, electronic signature verified and inspected (9). After reviewing the document, the manager of the organizational unit will forward it to a person in charge of for further processing (10). If there is a need, the document can also be forwarded by e-mail (11). In the event that the document is read within a specified period (which depends on the degree of urgency), the web server will automatically, via SMS server, (12) forward the SMS message on manager's cell phone (13) informing him this way on the arrival of an official act. If a notification of reviewing the act is not obtained, the web server will automatically send an act to the Centre for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages of the organizational unit (14). The check of an electronic signature will also be conducted (15). Center for encryption and expedition of non-voice messages will (via the duty service) contact (16) the manager who can access the Intranet network to read the act, or the document can be submitted in paper form (17) by courier (18) or, in case that the document has no label of secrecy, an e-mail message can be sent to manager via the Internet (19) which can be read on the mobile device. Official acts sent to the Records Management Office (20) by other public administration bodies or parties that do not belong to public authorities, employees of Records Management Office will transfer into electronic form, enter them in the electronic register application and send them to (21) the organizational unit. A paper form of such documents will be archived.

The third phase of modification of non-voice messaging system foresees radical changes in the system concept. Neither the application nor the document are no longer stored at the user's location, but everything is on the Intranet network, so users have only the right to call the application, use it in accordance with the authority and access only the documents intended for them. Each communication between users is cryptographically protected, and in accordance with the assigned label of secrecy.

CONCLUSION

Summarizing all the above, it can be concluded that the existing communication system for the distribution of non-voice messages within the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia is functional but there is a need to be improved. The basic directions of its development imply the removing of intermediaries in communication and bringing communication process closer to end users (improving safety and speeding up the process of communication). However, in terms of the lack of funds for immediate replacement of existing communication means with more sophisticated means that meet MoI's requirements, the modification should be implemented in phases. This paper presents a model of technical solution considered as the most appropriate and which should be implemented in three phases.

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CHALLENGES FOR INCLUSION OF WOMEN IN POLICE PROFESSION

Ivana Vasiljevic¹

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to show acceptance of women in police work environment, importance and implementation of equal opportunities policies, and whether contemporary trend of leaving traditional practices which favours males in police profession, cause primarily quantitative or qualitative change or both at the same time.

The aim is not only to present the current situation, but also to suggest possible solutions, which may help prevention of discrimination against women, improve their position and integrate the principle of gender equality in all segments of activity of the police system. Applying the principle of gender equality protects and strengthens a practice which contributes to better internal control and efficiency of law enforcement, reduces unnecessary stress that is caused by problems that are based on a gender basis, and mitigate conflicts within the work and organization of the police profession. This leads to the development of the police profession in general.

To explore these topics, several methods were combined. Literature that was used can be divided into two groups: literature, which essentially concerns with defining police and interpretations of inclusive policies, legal framework and principles of gender equality, but also literature which deals with analysis of certain characteristics of police profession, as well as the results of research.

Keywords: police profession, status of women, gender (in)equality, police culture.

INTRODUCTION

Police is essential part of the state administration and important social institution, whose efficiency and professionalism are of great importance for individuals, state and society in general. Police is important in achieving stability and security of society. That explains why strong police is permanent social necessity. Police profession needs to develop and adapt to current demands of society. Also, it has to be ready for requests from the environment which are changing over time. When it comes to human rights, the principle of gender equality is one of the fundamental principles and a prerequisite of modern democracy. Transition of state institutions on more democratic form is current a worldwide trend. This transition process from previous to new structure is not easy process and involves implementation of new structures. When it comes to equality, women have made a huge step in all spheres of society. But, this equality is proclaimed through principles more than in practice. Also, numerous studies have confirmed that gender equality is not everywhere equally reflected in practice. Mainly this is seen in traditionally “male” professions such as the police. Conflict between proclaimed principles in contemporary societies and real situation is something that occurs on a daily basis. In order to develop, police profession has to deal with challenges of modern requirements and must be ready to make changes of its organization, structure and professional culture.

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SOCIAL SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS AND TRANSFORMATION OF GENDER RELATIONS

Inferior status of women is deeply embedded in structure of all societies. “During history, different gender roles mean different rules of behaviour, different rights, duties and privileges in almost all human societies. This universal division has led to the conclusion that men and women have different abilities and personality traits which are such as we believe necessary for maintenance of certain social structures and social functions.”²

Even though many changes have been made to help women be released from traditional treatment, stereotypes obviously still persist in contemporary society. Inequality between women and men is deeply entrenched, systemic and widespread. Gender roles develop through internalization and identification during childhood. This internalization of gender norms can be seen through the example of which types of toys parents typically give to their children (“feminine” toys such as dolls often reinforce interaction, nurturing, and closeness, “masculine” toys such as cars or fake guns often reinforce independence, competitiveness, and aggression).³ Bek⁴ mentioned key changes that led to “liberation” of women:

1. lifetime extension or “demographic liberation of women” (life expectancy of women was enough to bring into the world and raise socially “desirable” number of children);
2. modernization process that restructured housework (women took a job outside the home and technical progress reduced women’s work in the family);
3. contraception and pregnancy planning, legal ability to terminate the pregnancy all contribute to liberation of women and give them right to choose (children and maternity are no longer “natural destiny”);
4. number of divorces have increased and indicates fragility of marital and family care (influx of women into the labour market, shows that women are “liberated” from a lifetime guarantee economic security provided by the men);
5. equalizing educational opportunities.

Principle of gender equality is one of the fundamental principles of human rights and a prerequisite of modern democracy. It is also the key principle underlying the protection of women’s rights. Current transition of state institutions to more democratic form is worldwide trend, not only in the post-socialist countries. This process of transition from previous to new structures is not easy process. Despite the fact that the principle of gender equality is generally accepted and legally regulated, numerous studies have confirmed that gender equality is not always adopted in practice like in theory. Women’s rights may differ across the world and in different states. For instance, the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia proclaimed the policy of equal opportunities in order to achieve deep and lasting transformation of gender relations in Serbia. This principle of gender equality is also included in draft version of the Law on the Prohibition of Discrimination and the Law on Gender Equality, as well as in some of the national strategies. The National Strategy of Serbia is also important for improving the position of women and promoting gender equality.⁵ Possibility of enrolling the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies provides women with all levels and forms of police training and education. But, as Tomić⁶ mentioned, women still face difficulties, which are mainly result of social organization.

² Kandido-Jakšić (2001). *Polnost i politika*. Beograd: Beogradski krug-biblioteka Krug.

³ Wood, J. (2005). *Gendered Lives*. 6th. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

⁴ Bek, U. (2001). *Rizično društvo*. Beograd: Filip Višnjić.

⁵ Sl. glasnik RS. (The Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia), num.15/2009.

⁶ Tomić, M. (2013). Istraživanja o položaju žena u policiji u kontekstu rodne ravnopravnosti. U: Đorđević, Đ. (ur.) *Položaj i uloga policije u demokratskoj državi*, Beograd: Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, p. 191.

WOMEN IN THE LABOR MARKET AND IN THE POLICE PROFESSION

Gender inequality is continuous even though equality is part of our legal system. Discrimination against women which is based on gender still exists in contemporary society. But, during time it changes its intensity and way of expressing. There will never be proper equality until both men and women receive equal chances and treatment. Findings suggest that the world has a long way to go to bring women to the forefront of economic, social, and political participation. Over the past 25 years, combination of economic development, rising education among women, and declining fertility enable conditions for female participation. Globally, economic development has been accompanied by growing economic opportunities for women (particularly in manufacturing and services). But, economic development, which resulted in changes in the structure of employment, is not enough to eliminate employment segregation by gender. Also, the impact of economic development and changes in education and family formation on female labour force participation varies across countries, and regions and ultimately depends on institutions, formal and informal, as well as on individual preferences. Despite significant progress in female labour force participation over the past 25 years, pervasive and persistent gender differences remain in productivity and earnings across different sectors and jobs. So, real situation is different from the proclaimed and we still cannot talk about equality between men and women. Indeed, many women around the world appear to be caught in a productivity trap – one that imposes significant costs on women's welfare and economic empowerment today and serious disincentives to invest in the women of tomorrow.

Discrimination against women in labour market “is seen as less economic activity, noticeable problem of finding job, especially between 25 and 40 years of age and a greater prevalence of dependency among women”⁷ This data is confirmed by the National Employment Service. When it comes to participation of women in labour market, women are predominantly engaged in traditionally less paid jobs, in textile and leather industry, health, pharmacy, social protection, education, culture, art and public information. Women still face a persistent earnings gap. And because of care and other responsibilities, women are more likely than men to choose occupations that offer more flexibility and that do not require large or continual investments in skills. Also, they have more difficulties to get job because employers often prefer male worker, usually because parental benefits and maternity leave. Despite legal rights, pregnancy and maternity leave is still a time when everything changes for many women at work. Most countries provide some sort of maternity leave, but benefits vary considerably in the number of days, the percentage of leave that is paid, and who pays for it. That is why work in the public sector is more compatible with women's reproductive role and offering shorter hours, more access to childcare, and greater tolerance for maternity leave. In the research of discrimination against women in the labour market in Serbia from 2012, the Victimology Society of Serbia⁸ confirms that 61% of women are discriminated in the labour market. In particular, 56% of women experienced discrimination during their search for employment, while 79% of women were discriminated in workplace. This is primarily in traditionally “male” professions, such as the army and police. As Butler notes: “It is important to recognize that in New Zealand, like most of the world, police work is still a male-dominated activity.”⁹ Due to this fact, “Under the employer liability provisions of anti-discrimination provisions in the

7 Šobot, A. (2010). Promene strukturnih karakteristika stanovništva Srbije: razlike između žena i muškaraca. *Sociološki pregled XLIV* (2), p. 278.

8 Nikolić-Ristanović V., Čopić S., Nikolić J., Šaćirija B. (2012). *Diskriminacija žena na tržištu rada u Srbiji*. Beograd: Viktimološko društvo Srbije i Prometej.

9 Butler, E.K., Winfree, T.L., JR., Newbold, G. (2003). Policing and Gender: Male and Female Perspectives among Members of the New Zealand Police. *Police Quarterly* 6 (3), p. 323.

relevant pieces of legislation, a preventative stance is required. Through a range of means, a climate at the work place needs to be generated whereby the likelihood of sexual/gender harassment is minimised.¹⁰ Social working conditions of women in police were formed in the 1970s, when mass employment of women was also recorded. Dealing with this issue is impossible if one ignores the effects that were caused by traditional division of labour. These effects are not only division between “male” and “female” jobs, they also include deep prejudices and stereotypes that have become an important part of socialization. According to this, Butler¹¹ mentioned personality traits that are stereotypically associated with women in our culture: “men are active, women passive, men are aggressive, women submissive, men are logical, women emotional”. Traditionally for the woman, it is understood that she is emotional and thus irrational, compassionate, cooperative, physically fragile, subjective, gentle, and morally superior. These stereotypes say that women do not possess the necessary masculine traits of rationality, aggressiveness, bravery, objectivity, suspicion, and brutality required to be a good police officer to fight crime and apprehend the enemy. In addition, other cultural definitions of femininity have also led to claims that women are inherently not competent to perform police duties. Furthermore, men better than women cope in emergency situations and they are able to execute more difficult and dangerous tasks, while women are primarily simple routine tasks. These prejudices are just some of many that have influence in almost every aspect of society, also in field of profession and in this case police profession. For a long time it was almost unthinkable to meet a woman in police uniform. Women have avoided police profession, because police work is difficult, demands much skill to accomplish and is insecure because of often exposure to hazards. Study of professions may significantly help in highlighting mechanisms which maintain gender dualism in context of a particular profession. Miller¹² also noticed that the male justice model is often seen as proportionate punishment, as a deterrent and retributive punishment, while the female justice model focuses on treatment, rehabilitation, reformation and reintegration. Both models are important to corrections and policing.

Women are vulnerable to discrimination based on sex. Women often suffer of multiple discriminations. They can be discriminated at the same time on the basis of gender, ethnic origin, social status, marital status, disability and other grounds. Social production of inequalities mostly indicates a lack of feedback and encouragement for women, a male dominated culture, competency models which can be manipulated to reinforce this, a perception of many instances of gender discrimination, and an organization unwilling to adapt to social change. We can distinguish organizations which really applied principle of equality in practice and those which only proclaimed it, but are not practicing it. When it comes to police profession, “Women officers perceived more shortcomings in recruitment practices than did the chiefs, though, and put much more emphasis on the male-dominated cultures of police academies and police organizations as obstacles to both recruitment and retention of women officers”.¹³ Further, as Lonsway¹⁴ mentioned, some elements of the police hiring process have disparate impact on women applicants, limiting the proportion of women who can successfully complete the process. The clearest example is physical fitness testing. So, deeper, more complex problem is the issue of the male dominated police academy and police culture. Also, the men received preference in hiring and were generally provided with career advancement opportunities that women were not offered. In regards to the position of women in police profession,

10 Hyman, P. (2000). Women in the CIB: Opportunities for and barriers to the recruitment, progress and retention of women in the Criminal Investigation Branch (CIB), Wellington: New Zealand Police, p. 144.

11 Butler, J. (1990). *Gender Trouble*, New York: Routledge, p. 5.

12 Miller, David (1999). *Principles of Social Justice*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

13 Cordner, G., Cordner, A.M. (2011). Stuck on a Plateau? Obstacles to Recruitment, Selection, and Retention of Women Police, *Police Quarterly* 14(3): 207.

14 Lonsway, K. A. (2003). Tearing down the wall: Problems with consistency, validity, and adverse impact of physical agility testing in police selection, *Police Quarterly*, 6, pp. 237–277.

glass ceiling was also mentioned as one of the problems. "Glass ceiling is inability of women to progress in police, i.e. they can get promotion, but only to the level after which their career cannot go more upward, but stagnates. Women think that stereotypes and prejudices about their role are main reasons for existence of a 'glass ceiling' in the police."¹⁵

POLICE CULTURE AND ITS IMPACT ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN POLICE

Culture of police profession has great influence on status and participation of women in this profession. Downes¹⁶ defines police culture as "operational and ethical behaviour of police officers, based on system of values, attitudes and beliefs which police adopt from their work, certain categories of citizens, courts, law and various social issues that affect their business". From its beginning, police powers include legitimized use of force. Physical force is traditionally part of police culture and a legitimate way of achieving efficiency in police work. However, when one considers traditional notions of "male" and "female", it is easy to understand why police is seen as mainly "male" profession. Reforms of modern police produce strategies and procedures, which also include interpersonal relationships and communication. Hence, modern police take care of its representation in public, and cooperate with media. Also, researchers¹⁷ pay attention to interpersonal relationships and communication among police officers. To better understand position of women in police profession, it is necessary to make a brief historical overview of the process hiring of women in the police. There is some disagreement about who was the first policewoman. By the late 19th century, numerous jurisdictions employed jail and prison matrons. Matrons were the forerunners of policewomen. But, as Horne¹⁸ mentioned, "Even though they did not have police powers of arrest, police matrons helped pave the way for female police officers". According to Brown¹⁹, "the first women in the police" were involved in 1845 in the United States to monitor the penitentiaries for women and minors. It was also noted that Mrs Marie Owens worked as a "patrolman" for 30 years until her retirement. She visited courts and assisted detectives in cases involving women and children. But that was common practice in police when most police departments offered neither pensions nor death benefits. Regardless of their specific titles, women appointed to such positions often acted as police matrons. So, the engagement of Mary Owens was limited mainly to social work with children and women. Lola Baldwin appears to be the first woman hired by a U.S. municipality to carry out regular law enforcement duties. She was the first woman who passed the police oath in Portland, in 1908. Also, Alice Stebbins Wells made important and original contributions to policing and helped show the way to the many women who followed her into policing. She was the first woman who received a police uniform, as real symbol of acceptance of women in the police profession. The name of the first policewoman in history is

15 Radovanović, G., Bjeloš, M., Stojanović-Gajić, S. (2012). Uvek žena nikad koleginica, Available at: http://www.bezbednost.org/upload/document/uvek_zena_nikad_koleginica.pdf.

16 Downes, M. (2004). *Reforma policije u Srbiji: ka stvaranju savremene i odgovorne policijske službe*. Beograd: OEBS, p. 26.

17 Tomić, M., Spasić, D. (2010). *Maskulinitet u profesijama*. Antropologija 10 (1), pp. 95–110.; Dick, P. and Jankowicz, D. (2001). A social constructionist account of police culture and its influence on the representation and progression of female officers: a repertory grid analysis in a UK police service. *Policing* 24 (2), pp. 181–99; Dowler, K. (2005). Job satisfaction, burnout, and perception of unfair treatment: the relationship between race and police work. *Police Quarterly* 8 (4), pp. 476–489.

18 Horne, P. (2006). Policewomen: Their First Century and the New Era. *The Police Chief* 73 (9), Available at: http://www.policechiefmagazine.org/magazine/index.cfm?article_id=1000&fuseaction=display

19 Brown, J. (2007). From cult of masculinity to smart macho: gender perspectives on police occupational culture. Police occupational culture, New debates and directions. *Sociology of crime, law and deviance* 8, pp. 205–226.

not important, because each of them have paved the way for new epoch in policing. When we talk about European countries, England was first that involved women in policing. Further, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Russia have practiced admission of women in police after the October Revolution. As more women enter the field, the police culture will undoubtedly continue to change, albeit slowly. Police administrators need to develop strategies designed to change the culture in their agencies or at least to minimize its impact on women officers and make the workplace accessible to both men and women.

BARRIERS, LIMITATIONS AND CHALLENGES OF POLICE JOB

Despite engagement of women in police profession “trend of expanding areas of work opportunities for women has not erased traditionally much greater number of men in police jobs that require great physical effort and greater presence of men in formation positions which involve direct exposure to enemy fire in combat operation. But, women present in police duties are not exclusive phenomenon that surprise and provoke derision anymore”²⁰. As Milić notes, “The number of *women* in policing remains stuck at *low* levels. Women in police still face problems such as: discrimination, unequal employment opportunities, lack of representation in senior positions and unequal conditions”²¹. Conflict between real situation and proclaimed principle of equality occurs every day. Some of key obstacles women still face in police workplace are as follows:

1. Groundless assumptions – prejudices, beliefs, stereotypes. They are passed from generation to generation. These stereotype beliefs can be obstacle for admission of women to the police and later may affect manner of treating women in police work environment.

2. Formal obstacles for admission of women in police – Milosavljević²² indicates that significant barriers for admission of women in police can be standards of selection – height, weight, expectations of physical condition, fitness rules, etc. Police jobs are dangerous, and they require specific training to succeed in the field. All these standards and facts may constantly remind women that policing is a male profession.

3. Police Culture – The fact that police is traditionally male profession has greatly influenced creation of its professional culture. Professional culture develops in accordance with requirements of society and profession. From its beginning, police culture traditionally favours men. Its purpose is to improve public security and to combat crime. So, police has the authority to use force and other preventive measures. That is why, as Milosavljević²³ said, police profession may look frightening to women as future police officers. So, professional culture has great influence on position of women in profession, their treatment and opportunities for advancement. These influences were studied by Dick and Janković²⁴. According to modern requirements of society and inclusive policies, working on strengthening and improvement of the position of women is very topical in labour market. Many weaknesses and problems appear on surface, when we consider deeper transformation of gender relations.

20 Šaranović, J. (2010). Doprinos Vojske Srbije afirmaciji rodne ravnopravnosti u sektoru bezbednosti. *Revija za bezbednost* 4 (4), 310.

21 Milić, D. (2010). Žene u policiji i rodna ravnopravnost. *Revija za bezbednost* 4 (4), p. 326.

22 Milosavljević, B. (1997). *Nauka o policiji*. Beograd: Policijska akademija.

23 *Ibid.*

24 Dick, P. and Jankowicz, D. (2001). A social constructionist account of police culture and its influence on the representation and progression of female officers: a repertory grid analysis in a UK police service. *Policing* 24 (2), pp. 181–99.

4. Professional exclusion on their workplace – exclusion from interaction is also one of the ways, as Spasić and Tomić²⁵ said, “to maintain the dominance of masculinity and exclusivity in the police profession”. Men and women achieve their gender identity in workplace through social interaction. Masculine dominant professions are making many difficulties for women. Also, they are challenging men to engage in masculine competitive behaviours that harm some men and many women. Women continue to believe that they have to be better than their male colleagues in order to be considered as competent worker, even though their colleagues dislike them for being assertive.

5. Stress – It is also one of the problems in workplace which can be caused by gender inequalities. Various studies²⁶ confirm that gender inequality is a significant source of stress in work environment. As Brown²⁷ noticed, in predominantly female profession men often feel uncomfortable and stress because they cannot use their “masculine” vocabulary and communicate freely and openly. Also, numerous studies²⁸ have confirmed that women are still not fully integrated into police profession. To achieve deep transformation of gender a lot of time and hard work is needed. In past 40 years there have been significant changes in police profession, its interpretation on labour market and involvement of women. Women and men are equally capable of police work, but as Hickman & Reaves²⁹ noticed, number of females is still less than 15%. So, females are still faced with many forms of discrimination and stress. To create a hospitable work environment for women, Strohine and Brandl³⁰ suggest that we first must understand their workplace experiences. Theoretically, Kanter’s³¹ tokenism theory provides a vehicle for doing so. She wrote about the experiences of women breaking into the male dominated field of sales, more than 30 years ago. In particular, the women Kanter studied felt added performance pressures, felt isolated from the dominant group, and believed they were forced into roles consistent with their identity as a minority.

RECOMMENDATION FOR TRANSFORMATION OF GENDER RELATIONS

Although initially allowing women entrance into the police organization, the police profession still has continued to keep policewomen in subordinate positions thus creating conflicts. Most women don’t think of policing as a viable career choice because there are still few female role models in their own communities that they can look up to. In addressing this issue, it must be borne in mind, however, that “woman very slowly and difficultly fit into the male-dominated professions, such as police profession”³². It is necessary to deal with this topic with more atten-

25 Tomić, M., Spasić, D. (2010). *Maskulinitet u profesijama*. Antropologija 10 (1), p. 107.

26 McCarty, W. P., “Solomon” Zhao J., Garland, B. E. (2007). Occupational stress and burnout between male and female police officers: Are there any gender differences? *Policing* 30 (4), pp. 672–691. Morash, M. Dae-Hoo K., Haar, R. (2006). Gender differences in the predictors of police stress. *Policing* 29 (3), pp. 541–563.

27 Brown, J., & Heidensohn, F. (2000). *Gender and policing: Comparative perspectives*. London: Macmillan, p. 218.

28 For more information see: Walker, S. (1993). *The Status of Women in Canadian Policing*. Ottawa: Office of the Solicitor General; Hickman, M., Piquero, A. and Greene, J. (2000). Discretion and gender: disproportionality in police disciplinary systems. *Policing* 23 (1), pp. 105–16.

29 Hickman, M., & Reaves, B. (2006). *Local police departments, 2003*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

30 Strohine M.S., Brandl, S.G. (2011). Race, Gender, and Tokenism in Policing: An Empirical Elaboration. *Police Quarterly* 14 (4), p. 345.

31 Kanter, R. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

32 Tomić, M. (2013). Istraživanja o položaju žena u policiji u kontekstu rodne ravnopravnosti. U: Đorđević, Đ. (ur.) *Položaj i uloga policije u demokratskoj državi*, Beograd: Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, p. 191.

tion. In light of these challenges, there is no easy solution. We also have to concern possible options to overcome or at least mitigate these problems. Recommendations are the following:

1. System requirements – Police should pay more attention to role of women in police system. Butler said “if policing agencies are serious about augmenting female roles, then they must be explored even more systematically”.³³ Requirements are minimum qualifications needed to apply (medical fitness, psychological test and appropriate security check) including police training. Trainees will develop skills in areas such as conflict resolution, police procedures, cultural diversity, ethics, and use of force. Recruitment of women in police service is unsystematic, and there is no strategic approach to hiring women (establishing quotas for hiring women, annual targets for recruitment of women and men, establish the deadline for achieving certain percentage of women in the police service, etc.).

2. Promoting anti-discriminatory policies³⁴ and legislation at all levels.

3. Gender-sensitivity training is one of the key methods against gender-based disparities in the belief systems of their employees. Women’s subordination comes from patriarchal form of society. Certain personal/biographical variables and views of policing may have gender-specific influences on the work-world perceptions of men and women. Gender neutrality is based on idea that government and society should not tolerate the existence of any differences that are based on gender. Public policy has the capacity to either perpetuate or eliminate discrimination and gender inequality. So public policies which were designed to eliminate gender distinctions may help. Also, proposed training on gender neutrality aims at mitigating the impact of traditional gender roles and stereotypes. Some authors showed in their researches³⁵ that recruitment of women in police profession is problematic, not only at national but also at international level.³⁶ Training may help avoiding discrimination and distinguishing roles according to people’s sex or gender and social roles based on it.

4. Psychometric testing and selective standards of candidates for admission to police profession should be gender neutral. Studies have shown that administrative requirements make it difficult for women’s advancement to higher positions and the hierarchy. This is understandable considering that the standards for the reception and further progress in the police traditionally formed in accordance with the development of the police as a male profession.

5. Establishment of strong and professional network of women, providing more efficient communication and solution to problems based on gender, providing technical assistance to police departments; conducting national workshops on recruiting and retaining women officers. Some of these associations³⁷ are International Association of Women Police, European Network of Policewomen and Nordic-Baltic Network of Policewomen. The International Association of Women Police, established in 1915 in United States, was the first international

33 Butler, E.K., Winfree, T.L., JR., Newbold, G. (2003). Policing and Gender: Male and Female Perspectives among Members of the New Zealand Police. *Police Quarterly* 6 (3), p. 323.

34 Hyman, P. (2000). *Women in the CIB: Opportunities for and barriers to the recruitment, progress and retention of women in the Criminal Investigation Branch (CIB)*. Wellington: New Zealand Police, pp. 131–149.

35 For more information see: Chan, J. (1997). *Changing police culture: Policing in a multicultural society*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; Butler, E.K., Winfree, T.L., JR., Newbold, G. (2003). Policing and Gender: Male and Female Perspectives among Members of the New Zealand Police. *Police Quarterly* 6 (3), p. 323.

36 Brown, J., & Heidensohn, F. (2000). *Gender and policing: Comparative perspectives*. London: Macmillan, p. 87; Holdaway, S., & Parker, S. (1998). Policing women police: Uniform patrol, promotion, and representation in the CID. *British Journal of Criminology* 38 (1): 40-60.; Hyman, P. (2000). *Women in the CIB: Opportunities for and barriers to the recruitment, progress and retention of women in the Criminal Investigation Branch (CIB)*. Wellington: New Zealand Police, pp. 103–104.; Jones, S. (1986). *Policewomen and equality: Formal policy v. informal practice?* London: MacMillan., pp. 109–113.

37 Available at: <http://www.npss.rs/kss/98-opte/541-istraivanjapoloaj-ena-policajaca-u-zemljama-jugoistone-evrope.html>.

association of women in police. The aim of this organization is to connect women in the police, to promote and strengthen their role in police profession. These organizations should encourage more employment opportunities for female officers and more actively involve them in programs and campaigns related to female position in work environment.

CONCLUSION

Gender inequality is deeply rooted in the society. Therefore, gender equality is a complex research challenge and an important social issue. Gender attributes are socially constructed. During life, women face contradictions between old and new role assignments. These contradictions exist at all levels of society. Women have faced gender barriers. Gender equality does not mean that men and women become the same, only that access to opportunities and life changes is neither dependent on, nor constrained by gender. It means equal opportunities. In order to discuss and to implement practical changes that undermine inequality, decision makers must “grasp the interplay of man and society, of biography and history, of self and world”.³⁸ As Burnstein³⁹ said, the way on which individuals and organizations interpret the causes of inequality influences the efforts they might support to alleviate such inequality.

Clearly, women in policing have made progress over the years. But, police is still dominant male profession, where males as dominant group and attempt to preserve their privileged positions in the status hierarchy by excluding subordinate group (women) from access to positions of power. Modern society puts women in dilemma - are they or no able to achieve real liberation. Police organizations have recently experienced a number of significant transformations, including changes to police officer demography, the adoption of community-oriented policing models and increased accountability requirements. But, still women face a glass ceiling in the course of their careers. Males are presumed to have access to high jobs positions and information through old boy networks, while women are often isolated from opportunities for employment and reaching high positions. So, women are more likely than men to experience work career instability. Nevertheless, women remain underrepresented in all ranks in policing and there are still serious obstacles to overcome. Also, policewomen should be able to move beyond their statistically marginal status. Recommendation to achieve deep and lasting transformation of gender relations in police profession: a) remove sources of direct and indirect discrimination⁴⁰ against women, b) create environment for equal opportunities and full enjoyment of human rights; c) enhance process of integration of a gender perspective into all areas, both professional and social life.

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3. Brown, J., & Heidensohn, F. (2000). *Gender and policing: Comparative perspectives*. London: Macmillan.

³⁸ Mills, C. W (1959). *The Sociological Imagination*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, p. 2.

³⁹ Burnstein, P. (1991). Policy Domains: Organization, Culture, and Policy Outcomes. *Annual Review of Sociology* 17, pp.327–350.

⁴⁰ Discrimination may take different forms. It is direct when norms or practices explicitly differentiate treatment on the basis of sex/gender; it is indirect when although norms or practices do not make explicit reference to sex/gender, they include requirements that advantage persons of one sex.

4. Butler, J. (1990). *Gender Trouble*, New York: Routledge.
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THE SYSTEM OF INNER CONTROL OF THE POLICE AS A SUPPORT TO THE RULE OF LAW

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Abstract: Acting within the legal framework is placed before the police as its crucial imperative. Respecting and implementing the principle of legality is a necessary assumption in respect to the role of the police in a democratic society and the rule of law. The lawfulness of the police work is the most important assumption in terms of respecting the guaranteed human rights and freedoms, and control is one of the modalities to increase the level of lawfulness when exercising police powers. The control of the police is one of the most important criteria for assessing to what extent a society is founded on the principles of the rule of law, because this control secures the respect of the principle of equality of all citizens before the law. The author sees the purpose of writing this paper in the need to assess the contribution that the internal control system of the Ministry of Interior offers in terms of support to the rule of law. Through a detailed analysis of the existing legislative mechanism of the internal control of the police in the Republic of Serbia, the author aspires to show its scope and capacities in the field of support to the rule of law. The first, which is institutionalised in the Internal Control Sector, and the second, which is implemented through the control of the police work by handling complaints. Furthermore, the author will strive to overview the above mentioned forms of control from a problem-oriented aspects, both from the position of the carrier of the control, and from a position of a citizen, in order to improve the efficiency of these control segments and give contribution to the improvement of the police work system based on the rule of law.

Keywords: police, internal control, rights and freedoms, lawfulness, rule of law.

INTRODUCTION

One of the fundamental principles on which the police establish their functions is the principle of legality in work.² This is explained in the Law on Police: "The Police shall perform police duties with the aim and in such a manner as to provide everyone with equal protection of security, rights and freedoms, by implementing the law and the constitutional principle of rule of law."³

One of the ways to achieve legality is implemented through the work of the police control mechanism.

The police function and their specific role in the society, which is seen in undertaking many types of work and application of various powers, make contracts between citizens and

1 E-mail: darko.bikarevic@yahoo.com.

2 Article 32 of the Law on Police: *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/16.

3 Article 31 of the Law on Police: *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 6/16.

police officers inevitable, on various grounds. In these situations the principle of legality can be violated, and this is sometimes manifested in the concrete crimes committed by police officers.⁴

Not even the societies at the highest level of democratic development are completely free from the illegal acts of police officers. Therefore, it is necessary that the police are controlled in respect of determining responsibility for possible illegality in their work.

Equality of all people before the law is one of key characteristics of the rule of law, therefore police officers cannot and must not be outside the reach of sanctions in the case of violation of legal norms.

However, the key issue for democratic states, as well as for those that are on the path towards democracy, is in which way to subordinate the work of the police to the control through rights, at the same time ensuring that the police are efficient in performing work and tasks that become increasingly complex.

The Code of Police Ethics states that the main goals of the police, i.e. police officers, are maintaining public order and law enforcement, protection of and respect for human rights, prevention of crime and crime-detection, as well as other forms of fight against crime, providing assistance and serving people in accordance with the Constitution and law.⁵ In order to achieve the above mentioned goals as much as possible, the mechanisms for the internal control of the police provide their contribution through their corrective measures, as well as by creating the atmosphere that 'everything is under control', and that illegal activities will not go unsanctioned.

The mechanisms of the control of the police⁶, whose primary task is to keep the police within the law, significantly contribute to the fact that the above mentioned is not only declarative in character, but is a base and imperative in acts of the police members.

Therefore, our Law on Police in its chapter on control, which is a novelty in our legal order, also provides for the multiple control. This is a normative assumption for more effective and efficient protection of human rights and offering support to the rule of law.⁷

Therefore, the control of the police work is placed on a legislative basis and is especially defined by the provisions of the *Law on Police*.⁸ In this respect, external and internal control of the police work is provided for, and it is executed through action of the Internal Control Sector and conduct of proceedings based on citizens' complaints. Furthermore, it should be mentioned that the *Law on State Administration*⁹ also foresees the possibility of filing com-

4 D. Bikarević: 'Specificities and Problems of Opposing the Internal Control Sector to Modern Forms of Crime in the Police', The Scientific and Professional Conference with International Participation, Combating Contemporary Form of Crime – Analysis of the Current Situation, European Standards and Measures for Improvement, Tara 2015, Volume 3, Belgrade, 2015, 411.

5 *Official Gazette of the RS*, no. 92/06.

6 Different classifications and systematisations of forms and mechanisms of the control of the police work can be seen in: Lj. Stajić: *Control of the Police in Service of Security*, Novi Sad, 2012, 67-68; L. Anderson: Internal Control – in: *Guidance on Police Integrity*, Geneva, 2012, 160; Born H. et. al.: External oversight and control – in: *Guidance on Police Integrity*, Geneva, 2012, 184.

7 S. Jugović: *Management function of the Police*, Beograd, 2013, 161-162.

8 See articles 219-243: *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 6/16; new Law on Police published in the Official Gazette on 28. January 2016, entered into force on 5 February 2016, during writing of this paper, but it does not introduce significant provisions in the area of the control of the police work that would affect the content of the paper.

9 Article 81 of this law states that the state administration bodies are obliged to enable appropriate manner for filing complaints against one's work and against irregular relationship among employees, that a state administration body is obliged to answer within 15 days since the receipt of the complaint, if the claimant demands the response, and that a state administration body is obliged to discuss issues covered by the complaints at least once in 30 days; *Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia*, no.: 79/05, 101/07, 95/10 and 99/14.

plaints against one's work and irregular relationship among employees, which is also binding with regard to the police, as part of the state administration body. In fact, the above mentioned provisions relate to the entire state administration and are not concretised with regard to making claims against the police work.

Since the Law on Police is *lex specialis*, with regard to other laws that are applied by the police officers, we will reflect on the internal control of the police work, although the control relates to all members of the Ministry of Interior (hereinafter referred to as: the MI), which is provided for in this law and points to its contribution that offers support to the rule of law.

The main goal of the internal control of the police is verification of lawfulness and regularity of actions of the police in cases that indicate malpractice and exceedance of power, i.e. violations of human rights.¹⁰ The text that follows shows to what extent the internal control of the police in the Republic of Serbia gave results in this field, in the period between 2012 and 2014.

NORMATIVE ASPECT OF THE INTERNAL CONTROL OF THE POLICE WORK

One of the basic benchmarks of a society's democracy and respect of the rule of law is whether this society has managed, and to what extent, to make the police work responsible and based on law.¹¹

The police work is subject to control by various subjects that have various powers in the process of control.¹²

In the Republic of Serbia, the responsibility of the police through mechanisms of control in legal form was achieved for the first time in 2005, by adopting the Law on Police¹³, when external and internal control of the police work was established. Furthermore, the new Law on Police favours democratic control that is implemented through the two above mentioned forms of control.

The primary goal of this law is the protection of human rights. According to this law, people are served, nor ruled over. The law enables that all people served by the police, as well as the police and all its officers that serve all people, achieve their interests – each their own – precisely laid down and separated.¹⁴

The starting point for these legal solutions was based on the fact that only the police that are exposed to a multiple control can earn their place in a democratic open society. This place includes their efficiency in the protection of human rights and in offering support to the rule of law.¹⁵

The control can be seen as one of the management tools, these systems help managers to monitor how their organisation functions, how projects and assigned activities progress, and determine what the weak spots are.¹⁶

10 S. Miletić: *The Law on Internal Affairs*, Belgrade, 2009, 313.

11 R. Zekavica: *Combating Discrimination in the Republic of Serbia: with Special Emphasis on the Role and Contribution of the MI of the Republic of Serbia*, Government of the Republic of Serbia, Office for Human and Minority Rights, Belgrade, 2014, 44.

12 D. Vasiljević: *Control of the Police in a Democratic Legal State*, Thematic Collection of Papers, Academy of Criminological and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2013, p. 21.

13 Adopted in November 2005, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 101/05.

14 Law on Police with the Code of Police Ethics: PE Official Gazette, Belgrade, 2010, 23.

15 Law on Police with the Code of Police Ethics: PE Official Gazette, Belgrade, 2010, 19.

16 P. Aepli, O. Ribaux, E. Summerfield: *Decision making in policing-operations and management*, Lausanne, 2011, 113.

However, the control as a function of the management process¹⁷ is not the subject of this paper. The exclusive subject of the paper is internal legislative control provided for in the above mentioned law.

The internal control of the police work is achieved through two separately regulated forms - institutional, carried out by the Internal Control Sector¹⁸, and though control which is established through handling complaints against the police work. However, it should be stressed that the control of the police work through handling complaints is not purely internal, due to the presence of public in the claim procedure.¹⁹

The mechanisms of the internal control ensure implementation of the official measures and laws in an efficient, professional and lawful manner.²⁰

The control of the police work is crucial in a democratic society and in the affirmation of the rule of law principles.²¹

The importance of controlling the police work stems from their very delicate role as a body in the system of state government, especially due to the possibility of legal application of coercion, as well as specific powers of intervention relating to the deprivation of liberty, search of persons and premises, confiscation of objects, wiretapping, etc. In everyday application of powers in practice, in certain circumstances, there are possibilities for exceedance or misuse of powers, violation of the equality of citizens before the law and other violations of civil liberties.²²

The subject of the internal control actions are examination and evaluation of lawfulness, as well as purpose (regularity) of the police work, primarily in the sense of respecting and protecting human rights and freedoms.

The area of the control of the police work through handling complaints is accompanied by adequate by-laws, while the control achieved through actions of the Internal Control Sector is, for now, without adequate by-law regulation.

In order for the control of the police to be in function of achieving the highest possible level of lawfulness in their work, it is necessary, inter alia, to further develop legislation, since a quality control can be implemented only if it is based on clear legal regulations.²³

17 See more in: O. Stevanović: *Management and Command*, Belgrade 1999, 129-135.

18 It existed earlier as a Service of the inspector general of the former Department of Public Security of the MI of the Republic of Serbia, established on 12 March 2001, but the process of the actual constitution of the Service initiated after the appointment of the first inspector general in July 2003, see: Lj. Stajić: *Control of the Police in Service of Security*, Novi Sad, 2012, 92.

19 One member of the Commission for acting according to complaints is a representative of the public (Article 237 of the Law on Police, *Official Gazette of RS*, no.: 6/16), and general public is included in sessions of the above mentioned Commission (Article 19 of the Rulebook on the Procedure of Handling Complaints, *Official Gazette of RS*, no.: 54/06).

20 H. Born, I. Leigh: *Making Intelligence Accountable-Legal Standards and Best Practices for Oversight of Intelligence Agencies*, University of Durham, Parliament of Norway, 2005, 24.

21 Ž. Nikač: 'Reform of the Police in the Republic of Serbia in Function of Protection against Misuse of Power', XIII International Thematic Scientific Conference Misuse of Power, Tara 2014, Belgrade, 2014, 391.

22 B. Simić, Ž. Nikač: *Control of the Police in the Republic of Serbia in Function of Protection of Human Rights*, *Kultura polisa*, Journal for nurturing the culture of democratic politics, Novi Sad, KPA, Belgrade, 2012, 310.

23 J. Dragomir: *Organisation and Powers of the Police*, Banja Luka, 2011, 301.

CONTROL OF THE POLICE WORK THROUGH ACTIONS OF THE INTERNAL CONTROL SECTOR

The matter of the police liability is crucial for the establishment and functioning of the rule of law. In order for the rule of law to exist and function, the state apparatus should be subject to and limited by the objective law. This requirement is especially relating to the state administration, due to the nature of its powers, and within it, to the police.²⁴

The control of the police, due to the nature of the police function in our society, is perhaps more important issue than the control of other parts of the state apparatus.²⁵

Submission to the law, i.e. general rule, prevents arbitrariness of the authorities and guarantees personal freedom, legal equality and legal security. The police and management must have legal basis for each decision or action.²⁶

However, despite being conditioned and determined by the law, it is certain that the police actions can step out of the prescribed framework. More precisely, in the police practice there are cases of exceedance, and even misuse of powers, which result in serious consequences at the social, and even individual levels. In order to sanction the above mention actions, or in better case prevent them, certain mechanisms of the control of the police and responsibility of their members are established. In fact, the purpose of establishing the control mechanisms, notwithstanding the type of control, is to provide responsible and professional monitoring over performance of the police work and tasks, as well as to take necessary measures against the individuals who violated positive regulations, i.e. violated fundamental freedoms and rights of citizens.²⁷

It can be said that the control of lawfulness has the goal to prevent or process any form of misuse of power when exercising police powers. This is the reason why the internal control of lawfulness of the police work in most police organisations is institutionalised by establishment of special organisational unit (control body) for this type of control.²⁸ This solution also exists in our system, and this role is given to the Internal Control Sector.

The Internal Control Sector controls lawfulness of the police officers' work, as well as work of other employees in the MI, especially with regard to respecting and protecting human and minority rights and freedoms when performing official tasks and exercising police powers, i.e. when performing work within their spheres.

Furthermore, it takes measures and actions in accordance with the law laying down the criminal procedure on detection of and combating against criminal offences of corruption and other forms of corrupt behaviour, as well as other criminal offences of the police officers and other employees in the Ministry, committed during work or relating to work.²⁹

The goal of the Internal Control Sector's work is to provide responsible and professional monitoring over performance of the police work and tasks, as well as to take necessary measures against the individuals who violated positive regulations, i.e. violated fundamental freedoms and rights of citizens.

24 D. Simović, R. Zekavica: *The Police and Human Rights*, Belgrade, 2012, 155.

25 D. Vasiljević: *Position and Role of the Police in a Democratic State*, Thematic Collection of Papers, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2013, p. 13.

26 M. Živković: *Control of the Police in a Legal State*, The Police in Function of Protection of Human Rights, Thematic Collection of Papers, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2011, p. 9.

27 D. Bikarević, Z. Kesić: Controlling the police through the form of complaints procedure to assert and protect the rights and freedoms of citizens-and Archibald Reiss Days, Volume 2, Belgrade, 2015, 379.

28 O. Stefanović: *Security Management*, Belgrade, 2012, 281.

29 Article 225 of the Law on Police: *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 6/16.

However, the activities of the members of the Internal Control Sector of the police (hereinafter referred to as: ICSP)³⁰ when performing the basic function, i.e. achieving lawfulness in the ranks of the MI were hindered by their engagement in other work and tasks that are not directly related to combating unlawful behaviour. This relates to the work in Commissions on citizens' complaints, as well as acting on assumptions and other acts that point to unprofessional behaviour of police officers, which should be transferred to the immediate supervisors to act upon. It remains to be seen to what extent police officers in the Internal Control Sector will be engaged on work that is not directly related to combating unlawful behaviour.

The police officers of the internal control have all the police powers when performing control and, in terms of their rights and duties, are equal to other police officers in the status of officials.

One of the key shortcomings of this form of control, so far, was the lack of by-law regulation on the form and manner of performing the internal control of the police work, as well as performing control over 'controllers', i.e. members of the ICSP. The current Law on Police gives a deadline for the obligation to adopt by-laws, which has not been the case so far, in order to avoid these situations. The obligation of the responsible bodies to implement this in the prescribed legal time frame remains.

The positive circumstance for the operational independence of the Internal Control Sector is that, in organisational sense, it is on the same level as the police which it controls, i.e. it is separated from the Police Directorate. Seen from the point of view of a member of the Police Directorate, the control performed by the Internal Control Sector can be seen as external, because they are controlled by an entity not belonging to them organisationally, someone from 'the outside'.

The control of work legality has the goal to prevent violation of legal norms or, in cases of their violation, to enable taking adequate measures on bringing these occurrences under norms of the criminal code, i.e. legal provisions. In relation to the above mentioned, the activities of the former ICSP for the period 2012-2014 will be presented.

In 2012, they submitted to the competent prosecution services 133 criminal charges and 5 amendments to criminal charges against 193 persons, 146 of which were police officers, which covered 186 criminal offences.³¹

During 2013, they submitted to the competent prosecution services 116 criminal charges and 12 amendments to criminal charges against 149 persons, 124 of which were police officers, for the reasonable suspicion that they committed 177 criminal offences.³²

In 2014, they submitted to the competent prosecution services 148 criminal charges and 8 amendments to criminal charges against 183 persons, 155 of which were police officers, which covered 187 criminal offences.³³

For the period 2012-2014, the police officers of the ICSP submitted to the competent prosecution services 397 criminal charges and 25 amendments to criminal charges against 525 persons, 425 of which were police officers, due to reasonable suspicion that they committed 550 criminal offences, which can be seen in the following table:

30 The term was used up to the entering into force of the new Law on Police in 2016, after which it was changed into the Internal Control Sector.

31 <http://prezentacije.mup.gov.rs/sukp/rezultati/2012.html> accessed on 28 March 2015.

32 <http://prezentacije.mup.gov.rs/sukp/rezultati/2013.html> accessed on 28 March 2015.

33 <http://prezentacije.mup.gov.rs/sukp/rezultati/2014.html> accessed on 24 July 2015.

Table no. 1: *Criminal chargers submitted by the ICSP for the period 2012-2014*

	Submitted		Against		Number of criminal offences
	Criminal charges	Amendments to criminal chargers	Citizens	Police officers	
2012	133	5	47	146	186
2013	116	12	25	124	177
2014	148	8	28	155	187
Σ	397	25	100	425	550

It should be stated that the structure of criminal offences mostly comprises criminal offences of abuse of office from the Article 359 of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia – 241, accepting bribe from the Article 367 of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia – 71, and forgery of documents from the Article 355 of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia³⁴ – 36. However, we do not know the outcomes of the above mentioned criminal charges, i.e. whether the sanctions have been imposed on the accused persons, i.e. whether the verdict rejected charges, convicted or acquitted the accused persons. Namely, it is not prescribed that the verified copy of a verdict is to be submitted to the person that submitted a criminal charge, i.e. the MI.³⁵ Furthermore, it is unknown in how many cases the public prosecutor rejected criminal charges³⁶, and especially important data that are not transparent, and it is disputed whether they are statistically processed at all, are how many times, if ever, prosecutions were deposited by a competent prosecutor³⁷ and whether there were agreements for confessing criminal charges between a public prosecutor and an accused person³⁸. Although these persons are not deemed offenders, it would be useful to unify these records of police officers, which would give its contribution in the proactive work of the Internal Control Sector.

CONTROL OF THE POLICE WORK BY HANDLING COMPLAINTS

By establishing a responsible and law-based police, a necessary condition is achieved for assimilating the police role into the principle of lawfulness as the elemental principle of the rule of law. The expected role of the police in a democratic state and the rule of law implies, as it was pointed out earlier, consistent respect of the law and its equal application to all members of the community, including the police themselves and other representatives of public authorities, as well as the fight against various forms of illegality in society, primarily crime prevention, respect for and protection of human rights, preservation of public peace and order, etc. Such role of the police would be completely nonsensical if legitimate police work is not ensured.³⁹

Timely and adequate police reaction in addressing and acting upon complaints is necessary, because it is not out of the ordinary for a single case of abuse of authority to be identified

³⁴ Official Gazette of the RS, no.: 85/05, 88/05, 107/05, 72/09, 111/09, 121/12, 104/13 and 108/14.

³⁵ Article 427, paragraph 5 of the Criminal Procedure Code, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 72/11, 101/11, 121/12, 32/13, 45/13 and 55/14.

³⁶ Article 284 of the Criminal Procedure Code, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 72/11, 101/11, 121/12, 32/13, 45/13 and 55/14.

³⁷ Article 283 of the Criminal Procedure Code, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 72/11, 101/11, 121/12, 32/13, 45/13 and 55/14.

³⁸ Articles 313-319 of the Criminal Procedure Code, *Official Gazette of the RS*, no.: 72/11, 101/11, 121/12, 32/13, 45/13 and 55/14.

³⁹ D. Simović, R. Zekavica: *The Police and Human Rights*, Belgrade, 2012, 155.

with the police as a whole, creating, one might say, a hostile attitude towards all members of the police.

With the entry into force of the Law on Police in 2005, the area of the control of police work by handling complaints became a legal category for the first time. Arbitrariness of both citizens and police officers related to this area are reduced as much as possible, and their performance is determined by the legal frameworks.

The period related to submission of petitions and complaints by citizens about the actions of the police and implementation of procedures for checking their allegations can be divided into two parts: the period up to 2005, when the procedure for checking allegations was conducted without legal aid, in accordance with the internal documents of the MI, and the period after 2005, when controlling the police work by handling complaints, and police work control in general, received a legislative basis.

Managed by the legislative authority, the minister responsible has enacted the complaints procedure by adopting the Rulebook on the handling complaints procedure, which entered into force on 1 September 2006.⁴⁰

The procedure promotes the influence and presence of the public in controlling legality and respecting human rights, which may contribute to the strengthening of trust in the police and to a better contact with citizens if this institute is fostered by developing functional legal protection.⁴¹

After identifying certain ambiguities and disparities in practice, and in order to overcome them and achieve some degree of uniformity of treatment in handling citizens' complaints by agents of the Office for complaints and petitions, the Police Directorate, Department of Internal Affairs, the Secretariat of the MI and the person authorised for monitoring Commissions' work, the Instruction on the application of complaints procedure was adopted on 17 August 2009.

However, the essential thing is that the citizens participate in the complaints procedure as 'volunteers', because their legitimate interests which initiated the complaints have not been met, during which they suffer the adverse impact of the economic aspect. Consequences that have affected the citizens were not eliminated; they still have certain adverse effects which must be removed in other court proceedings, which again require the active participation of citizens.

The following table will present what the extent of citizens' claims filed against the work of Serbian police is and what the outcomes of handling them are, noting that this is the data available in the MI records:⁴²

Table no. 2: *Filed complaints with validity assessment for the period 2012-2014*

	received complaints	decided on the merits	without legal grounds	based on legal grounds	% adequacy
2012	2276	1558	1402	156	10.01
2013	1948	1444	1316	128	8.86
2014	1904	1761	1561	200	11.36
Σ	6128	4763	4279	484	10.16

40 Except for the provisions of Article 18, which shall enter into force on the date of publication of this Rulebook in the 'Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia', OG of the Republic of Serbia, no.: 54/06 of 27 June 2006.

41 R. Sokolović: *Commentary on the Law on Police*, Belgrade, 2012, 150.

42 http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/ministarstvo.nsf/biro-za-prituzbe-i-predstavke.html accessed on 24 July 2015.

It should be added that out of the total 6,128 complaints received, 1365 (22.27%) procedures were concluded without discussing the merits, in accordance with Article 4 paragraph 3 (incomplete or incomprehensible complaint) and Article 7 paragraph 1 (prosecutor has given up on the complaint and has provided a written or oral statement on the record, the complaint has already been determined in the process of handling complaints; a final decision had been made before another authority, complaint has been filed too late; complaint has been filed by an unauthorised person) of the Rulebook on handling complaints.

The fact that a significant number of citizens' complaints is rejected, either because there are no legal grounds or because the allegations in the complaint are not supported by evidence, cannot be taken lightly.

However, in order to prevent speculation it is necessary to carry out extensive scientific research of internal appeal procedures, with the aim of determining the key reasons behind the number of submitted complaints with no legal ground. At the same time citizens should be encouraged to submit complaints, noting that they do it only when they undoubtedly deem that their rights and freedoms have been violated. Otherwise, it is not realistic to expect that their outreach will achieve a concrete result, at the individual level - for an incriminated police officer to be punished, but at the social level as well - to reduce irregularities and illegalities in police work, as well as to prevent future conflicts between police and citizens, and thereby improve their relationship.

On the other hand, the police authorities themselves have to invest huge efforts in reducing the number of valid complaints and even in creating such an atmosphere in police work, which will not give rise to complaints from citizens. At the same time, as part of this process, vigorous measures of repression should be taken against those police officers who use unlawful or improper actions to violate the rights and freedoms of citizens.

Finally we would like to point out that the current records of the MI on the submitted citizens' complaints and the implementation of verification procedures for checking their allegations are not at a high level. Specifically, the content of these records is not centralised and unified, and therefore does not provide the possibility of considering citizens' complaints and appellate procedures under very important variables such as: the reason for filing the complaint (illegality or irregularity in work), which application of police authority is linked to the alleged incident, etc.⁴³

In addition, necessary documents for the implementation of complaints procedure are not formalised, and differ according to organisational units, both in form and content, and by the name of the act.⁴⁴

CONCLUSION

The modern concept of developing democratic society, among other values, emphasises the universal principles of the rule of law, equality before the law, and others.⁴⁵

Respect for human rights and freedoms, as well as other universal values are now the standard in the democratic world. Hence, the rule of law means that state authorities, in particular the coercive apparatus - the police, are to perform tasks and duties lawfully and in the interest of citizens.

43 For more information see: D. Bikarević, Z. Kesić: Controlling the police through the form of complaints procedure to assert and protect the rights and freedoms of citizens-and Archibald Reiss Days, Volume 2, Belgrade, 2015, 384.

44 For necessary documents for the implementation of a complaint procedure, see: D. Bikarević: *Procedure of Handling Complaints in the MI*, Glasnik, 3/2015, 174-175.

45 Z. Keković: *Security Systems*, Beograd, 2011, 157-158.

In favour of the maxim that the police should be powerful and strong but not violent, and in order to eliminate illegality and arbitrariness of police officers, certain mechanisms of police work control are being established.

All democratic countries tend to adopt the values of the rule of law, to protect and preserve human rights and freedoms, and therefore seek to establish legal limits regarding the powers and competences of the police, but also their responsibility and control. In the Republic of Serbia, the control has been given a legislative basis in 2005 by adopting the Law on Police, which established internal and external control, and found its place in the Law on Police which was adopted in 2016.

Internal control is carried out through the operation of the Internal Control Sector and through handling citizens' complaints.

The work of the ICSP has been hindered by their engagement and preoccupation with tasks and duties which are not directly related to the monitoring and control of the lawfulness of work, as well as the absence of a by-law regulation of this area of control. However, it can be said that such a specialised organisational unit undoubtedly represents one of the most important means of legal responsibility of the police. In the case these aggravating circumstances are removed as soon as possible, this form of control would certainly get a more significant and prominent role in the field of preventing and combating unlawful activity performed by police officers.

Trying to perform a valorisation of complaints procedure would make a good reason for glorification, since the procedure would be based on legislative grounds i.e. the Law on Police, which is closer described by the Rulebook on the procedure for handling complaints and specified by the Instruction on the application of complaints procedure rules, which significantly facilitates the filing of discontent about the actions of police officers and provides a degree of certainty that there would be a consistent implementation of the verification procedure, and thus the entire affair would get public connotation.

However, despite the claim that the complaint is valid, the citizens did not achieve their legitimate interests and the consequences of illegal or improper activity performed by a police officer still exist and must be removed in other court proceedings, which again require the participation of citizens.

However, the economic aspect could and should be more favourable to citizens, in the event that the allegations of the complaint have legal ground. Therefore, we suggest that the expenses bared by citizens are reimbursed in possible disciplinary procedure which will be brought against a police officer.⁴⁶

It is necessary to unify documents necessary for the implementation of the complaints procedure, in order to standardise practices of persons who actively participate in the implementation (persons receiving a complaint, the heads of organisational units, members of the Commission, etc.).

A well-intentioned suggestion is reflected in the proposal that persons from the line of work referred by the complaint should be appointed Presidents of the Commissions. This creates the assumption that the complaints procedure would be reviewed better and a more objective decision would be made.

These mechanisms for the police control aim to achieve that the police apply their powers in a highly professional and impartial manner, equally to all citizens. Furthermore, it can be said that one of the objectives of the control mechanisms is the general prevention and the creation of an environment that deters police officers from breaking the law.

⁴⁶ More: D. Bikarević: *Utilitarianism of Citizens' Participation in a Complaint Procedure*, *Bezbednost*, 2/2015, 128-129.

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Topic III

CONTEMPORARY SECURITY STUDIES

GLOBAL WARMING – BETWEEN THE MYTH AND REALITY

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Abstract: A basic characteristic of climate is its permanent change/variability in space and time. Warm, cold, wet and dry are four main conditions among which all climate changes fluctuate.

In the 1980s the discussions on climate warming on a global scale started with the observed rise of temperature. The cause of it was allegedly found in the increased concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, caused by burning of fossil fuels as a result of human activities. Out of all gases, carbon dioxide was declared “the guiltiest”. Thus, due to human activities people were accused that the reckless use of fossil fuels contributed to unmanageable warming of the planet, that this warming was not in favour of humans, and that actual geostrategic relations in the world are disrupted and hence the global warming should be stopped and/or put under control.

This paper will present a short survey of natural climate variability. In too easily accepted conclusions that global warming occurs only as the consequence of human activities, some omissions will be indicated. It will be done through a critical review of the existing methodology of collecting and processing of climate data and the numerical climate simulation. Important scientific results that contradict the doctrine of global warming, as well as significant findings on the paleoclimate change, will be presented. As a special warning, potential detrimental implications of uncritical acceptance of the doctrine of global warming on the security of countries and people will also be discussed. Climate research should be taken back to a scientific framework to obtain proper competent conclusions about the climate change.

Keywords: atmosphere, climate, paleoclimate, global warming, glacial, interglacial, carbon dioxide.

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INTRODUCTION

On Climate Conference in Paris, France on 12 December 2015, an agreement was reached on the action against global warming with which the Conference, along with the excitement of many participants, “successfully” completed its work. In this way, new international legal framework was made: (a) that climate, as any other resource, should be subjected to further commercialization all along the rules of the contemporary liberal capitalism that perseveres in its greed for new resources, markets, capital and profit; and (b) that additional pressure should be made, by new mechanisms, on disobedient members of the international community, especially those that unexpectedly turned to their own ways of economic growth and to creating better living conditions for their citizens. A very important detail related to the Conference testifies to this. The participants had hardly finished their last round of applause for excitement about the alleged acceptance of the Conference Agreement, when the IMF (International Monetary Fund) presented its statement about this agreement. Its statement, as reported in Serbian media, was: “International community that accepted tonight a global agreement on climate should “put it into practice” and define the price for the emission of detrimental gases, stated Christine Lagarde, Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund (IMF).”² The key word here is “price” and it represents the principal proof that the goal was reached, that the climate becomes an ordinary commodity for commercial trade as per the rules of world monetary institutions like the IMF and others. To the informed and uncorrupted participants of the tale on “global warming” this would be enough to finish this text. Unfortunately, there are many more that are uninformed, so for this occasion, additional expert and historical explanations are in order.

CLIMATE

The Earth atmosphere is considered as one of the most complex inanimate physical systems in the space because it is the product of interaction of all the fundamental physical forces, living beings and man. Humans are most sensitive to the atmosphere as the gaseous part of our planet. For example, without food men can endure for a few dozen days at most, without water for ten days, but without the air only for a few minutes. That is why the atmosphere has always been given great attention by humans, consciously or unconsciously, through its two facets: weather and climate. The weather is the resulting interaction of all the circulations/processes in the atmosphere up to several days and climate is the mean weather in periods longer than several days.³ The studying of climate is divided into: (a) modern climate, which covers the instrumental period of observation from today up to about 150 years in the past; and (b) paleoclimate, which covers longer periods, from several hundred years to several millions and billions of years into the past. Today, climate in the future is often discussed in a way analogous to the weather forecast.

The basic characteristic of climate is its changeability/variability, both in the space: local, regional and global, and in time: as per seasons, years, hundreds, thousands and millions of years. This process of climate change is continuous and depends on two main groups of factors: cosmological^{4, 5} (events originating from the Sun and the space) and geological⁶ (distribution of the land and the sea, orography, plants, animals, and humans). On some occasions, humans are also seen as a special factor that influences the climate, from the very origin of the

2 Internet 1

3 Gavrilov et al., 2013

4 Milanković, 1941

5 Berger, 1978

6 Cronin M. T., 1999

mankind, or recently, for example, from the beginning of the industrial era.

Scientific research has shown that during the geological and historical past climate was in certain periods also considerably colder or considerably warmer than today. For example, in the approximately past one million years, several periods of glacials (cold phases) or Ice Ages were recorded, as well as interglacials (warm periods) that lasted for several tens of thousands of years.⁷ Again, within each of those periods, climate varied between more or less cold and warm extremes. We now live in the latest interglacial that is called Holocene and that has been going on for approximately the last 12,000 years.⁸ During the Holocene the humanity achieved key civilization developments: from the late Paleolithic (early Stone Age), through the Neolithic (late Stone Age), and then also the Copper Age, Bronze Age, and Iron Age, all the way to the Modern Age and informatics society. All important civilizations occurred in this youngest warm geological period and it can be said that warm climate was the basis for the development of contemporary human society with all its virtues and shortcomings, successes and failures. In the period of Ice Age, there were very few significant human technological and civilization achievements, primarily because of scarce natural resources determined by harsh climate conditions. The current warm climate is “modus vivendi” for human. On the other hand, nowadays we witness the efforts of people, instigated by the most influential states, that we should oppose warm climate and proclaim it a more detrimental, than a useful phenomenon, all because of the quest for profit and keeping of the current relations of geopolitical forces in the world intact.

FOR THE GLOBAL WARMING

“Attack” on warm climate started in the second half of the 1980s. It came after the great fear of alleged global cooling in the previous period of several decades expressed in the decreasing trend of the mean global temperature. After that, as soon as the global temperature started to rise, maybe as a consequence of the natural climate variability, a theory of unstoppable global warming of the planet appeared. Soon the culprits of global warming were found. These were the so-called greenhouse gases, out of which the most detrimental was carbon dioxide (CO₂) as a product of burning of fossil fuels because of human activities. Thus, people were accused of spending fossil fuels, primarily in the present time, contributing to the planet getting unstopably warm. Since this theory appeared in the states of the so-called Western civilizations, somehow simultaneously, the process was also started for the relocation of “dirty technologies”, which still could not be given up, to other states. At the same time, the consumption of considerable quantities of fossil fuels was kept in compliance with the activities of people, above all in the ground and air traffic, with their supposed improved combustion efficiency.

In order to gain credibility, many scientific-expert, organizational, and relentless advertising activities were undertaken. For this purpose we will view them through the following three major activities set into motion.

The first activity is related to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPPC), as the global body for scientific assessment in connection with climate changes. The IPPC was founded in 1988 by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the Program of United Nations for Environment (UNEP), approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations to provide the policy creators with regular scientifically-based assessments of climate changes, their influence, future risks and actions aimed at their adaptation and mitigation.⁹

7 Imbrie and Imbrie, 1979

8 Bond et al., 1997

9 e.g. IPCC, 2007

The IPCC presents its activities through periodic Assessment Reports (AR). There have been five ARs; the latest AR5 was released in four parts between September 2013 and November 2014. These reports are comprehensive documents containing an overwhelming amount of data. Their content could be best described by the saying: “You can’t see the forest for the trees.” The impression that one can get is that the documents are there to spread fear. The climate change is presented as a hostile phenomenon, and the climate condition without change is considered a friendly/positive phenomenon. Such view contradicts the dynamic nature of climate that has been undergoing constant changes during the geological past, during the present, and will continue to do so in the future. These changes are inherent to the nature and are hardly susceptible to human will, regardless of its power. Also, in the IPCC documents, global warming is attributed to dominant emission of carbon dioxide due to the use of fossil fuels. The absurdity of these documents is mainly reflected in their citations. These are the most cited references on climate in science, while not even having the status of scientific papers. Today, a scientific paper on this topic cannot be published without citing some of these documents. In a certain way, these documents acquired the characteristics of “holy books”.

The second activity is related to a series of climate conferences, like the recent one (2015) in Paris. When the public and government authorities are sufficiently persuaded about the danger of climate changes, and global warming above all, important international climate conferences are convened to adopt protection measures. The top state leaders participate in these conferences, providing legal validity to the adopted measures and a somewhat binding character of documents with international provenance. The first such conference was held in Kyoto, Japan in 1997. It is known by the fact that there, on 11 December 1997, the Kyoto Protocol was adopted a document where, for the first time, quotas were defined for the emissions of greenhouse gases as per states. The Protocol entered into force on 16 February 2005; the implementation rules for the Protocol were adopted in Marrakesh, Morocco in 2001. It is deemed that Kyoto Protocol was the turning point for the commercialization of climate. First, it was unambiguously accepted that the greenhouse gases were the reason for global warming. This statement became the generally accepted truth, not challenged and every opinion to the contrary is considered wrong. Second, by assigning quotas to the emissions of greenhouse gases, climate, as a natural resource, was placed into the arena of commercial trade. As already said, on the latest climate conference in Paris, the IMF sounded its voice, probably hoping to become one of the climate managers and which would, for that occasion, create different financial arrangements for all climate users. What will happen in that area is not clear even to the most discerning observers, but it is sure that the most benefits, as ever, will reap the most powerful, the richest, and the most obedient.

The third activity is related to the decision that the Nobel Peace Prize for 2007 be divided equally by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Changes (IPCC) and Albert Arnold (Al) Gore, the Vice-President of the USA, for their efforts to create and expand knowledge on men’s influence on climate changes, as well as to create the foundations for the measures needed to prevent such changes. In this way, the ideas of the IPCC on global warming achieved full media and scientific affirmation and a complete political and media protection.

The theory of global warming of the Earth is built on three kinds of arguments. These are: (1) by the analysis of surface air temperatures since the beginning of instrumental observation, (2) by measuring the quantity of carbon dioxide in the air, and (3) by performing numerical simulations.

(1) Global average (the land and the ocean) surface air temperature shows the increase of 0.85°C in the period from 1880 to 2012, while the same temperature increased 0.74 ± 0.18 °C in the period 1906 to 2005.¹⁰ Only such final results are served to the states through the

10 IPCC, 2013

IPPC periodic AR, while the original results on the basis of which the final results had been obtained were not available. If the original results were available, each state could check for itself the correctness of the final results and assign to them the statistical confidence level. Also, it is striking that the warming of the atmosphere of less than 1.0°C in the period of 133 years did not create a cataclysmic situation in the world, but contrary to that, the population of the planet increased approximately sevenfold (from around one to seven billion people). Therefore, it seems that we can conclude that global warming was more beneficial than detrimental.

(2) It is deemed that there is around 0.03% of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere. CO₂ was accused as the main cause of global warming when the measurements at Mauna Loa Observatory in Hawaii (USA) showed that the quantity of CO₂ in the atmosphere has increased by 25%. It means that now there should be around 0.0375% of CO₂ in the atmosphere. This increase in the total quantity is indeed small, but it does not mean that such small changes cannot cause great problems. Nonlinear interaction physics knows a great deal about that and that will not be disputed here. But, something else will be disputed here. First, Hawaii is not the most representative place to measure CO₂, because on this archipelago there is an intensive volcano activity and it is possible that various gases are additionally emitted from the Earth interior, along with carbon dioxide. With regard to that, the question is whether a proper correction to the measurements of CO₂ from the atmosphere was made and how it was made in relation to the sources from the volcano eruptions? Second, carbon dioxide is seldom measured for the purpose of monitoring the climate. For example, Serbia does not carry out such measurements in any form. Again, the question is how we, as a state, control the data served in this way? Third, the key argument in favour of presence of CO₂ is the fact that its increased quantity increases the growth of plants. Plants are regarded as great consumers of this gas, and great quantities of CO₂ are dissolved in water which has contributed so far that the quantity of CO₂ does not increase greatly. Finally, possibly the most important of all questions related to the role of CO₂ in warming the planet is a good knowledge of the mechanisms of the absorption of long-wave radiation of the Earth, which seems, according to the IPCC reports, to be completely solved, although it was one of the most complex and insufficiently studied problems of the physics of the atmosphere.

(3) Climate models and the so-called climate scenarios are used for numerical simulations where the quantities of the atmospheric CO₂ are defined on the basis of projected values of the consumption of fossil fuels in some future period. Then, integrations/simulations/forecasts of these models are run on computers and the results obtained are analysed. Sometimes extrapolations may go even several dozen years in the future and then the results obtained are deemed as some kind of objective assessment about future events, if such a scenario is realized. Such method can lead to literally any arbitrary conclusion. For example, some researchers, the members of the global warming lobby, by excessive exaggeration of the quantity of CO₂ obtained for our area the increase of temperatures of 3.6–5.0 °C and the deficit of precipitations.^{11, 12} It should be known that by using a similar model in a different scenario, a decrease in temperature could be obtained for the same 3.6–5.0 °C, with heavy precipitation, etc. All this is nothing strange, because the method of numerical simulation based on the climate scenario is analogous to making movies. The result of such extrapolation depends on the scenario that the researcher uses, like the movie story depends on the scenario according to which the film director makes the movie. In both cases imaginary worlds are presented, although very few identify the movie world with reality, while many regard simulated climate as reality.

¹¹ Kržić et al., 2012

¹² Mihailović et al., 2015

AGAINST THE GLOBAL WARMING

Some evidence that is not consistent with the doctrine of global warming will be presented here. For this purpose, the evidence from the research climate in Serbia will be presented as the first, followed by the two foreign studies, and shorter paleoclimate lesson will be given at the end.

Our case is related to the research of the climate of Vojvodina, a geomorphologically very homogeneous part of northern Serbia, consisting mostly of plains and insignificantly changed geographic characteristics after World War II. As such, Vojvodina can be regarded as ideal, almost laboratory space, for the observation of climate change in the period from World War II to the present. If there were any recent climate changes, the traces would have to be visible. In Vojvodina, aridity/fertility and surface air temperatures were researched by using all the observed raw data in the period from 1949 to 2006. Aridity is a complex climate parameter for whose calculation surface temperature and precipitation must be used, thus, it is all the more significant than other climate indices. Two classic aridity indices were calculated: De Marton and Pinna combined. In both cases, aridity values without trend were obtained.¹³ It means that climate changes were not recorded in the period from 1949 to 2006. In cases of surface medium, minimum, and maximum monthly air temperatures, the analyses were carried out for a year and four seasons (winter, spring, summer and autumn). Out of the total of 15 analysed time series, only 2 series had statistically significant positive trend (temperature increase), while others were without a trend (no temperature change).¹⁴ In other words, in Vojvodina, statistically significant increase of surface temperature was not recorded in the period from 1949 to 2006, as the IPCC suggested. It is interesting that this inertness of our space on global climate warming/change existed in the last five glacial/interglacial cycles.¹⁵

There are climate researchers in Serbia that obtained the results in accordance with the IPCC conclusions on global warming, but many of these cases can be suspicious. For example, a paper has appeared recently on the analyses of extreme surface air temperature and precipitation in Serbia. However, the data from only seven (7) meteorological stations have been analysed,¹⁶ whereas Serbia has around thirty stations of that level. Such results must always be scrutinized, because one can never tell whether the decrease of the number of stations is made with the aim of obtaining the expected result, or some other difficulties of our researchers are the reason, e.g. unavailability of data. The case of the recently published scientific work is very interesting. There is wrongly calculated increase of surface air temperature in Serbia. It has been pointed out to the mistake,¹⁷ but it has not been accepted. It did not only hurt the scientific truth, but both the scientific and human ethics was jeopardized, apparently just for the reason of not offending the idea of global warming.

In the first foreign case mentioned, contradicting the IPCC conclusions on global warming, the results of ice measuring on the Arctic obtained from the satellite CrioSat of the European Space Agency (ESA) will be indicated.¹⁸ Satellite measurements show that the volume of ice in the Arctic considerably increased in the autumn of 2013. The volume of ice was then about 50% higher compared to 2012. For example, in October 2013, CrioSat measured about 9,000 km³ of ice which is a significant increase in relation to the 6,000 km³ of ice in October 2012. Also, in 2013 the average thickness of ice was about 20% (about 30 cm) larger than in 2012.

¹³ Hrnjak et al., 2014

¹⁴ Gavrilov et al., 2015

¹⁵ Marković et. al., 2012

¹⁶ Mimić et al., 2015

¹⁷ Gavrilov and Marković, 2015

¹⁸ Radovanović, 2014

In the second case, recorded by the Ocean and Ice Services (OIS) of the Danish Meteorological Institute in 2015, Arctic broke all the records in the rise of the sea ice mass. During the second and third week of September half a million square kilometres of ice was formed, at the time when the surfaces under ice usually shrink.¹⁹

Let us recall that in each of the IPCC scenarios on global warming and the fatal influence of humans on the atmosphere, the disappearance of the Arctic ice and the rise of the sea level was presented as one of the most tragic consequences of the increase of global temperature, followed by the floods of the order of magnitude of Biblical floods. The above-mentioned Vice President of the USA, Gore, excelled in the propaganda of such apocalyptic stories. In his comments on the occasion of receiving the Nobel Prize for his campaign he said, to paraphrase: "The ice cap is falling off a cliff. It could be completely gone in summer in as little as 7 years from now."²⁰ Several years after his warning, as measured by CrioSat and presented by the OIS, the Arctic ice cap not only did not disappear, but keeps spreading for the third consecutive year.

Great leap in the concentration of greenhouse gases was recorded (in several different climate recordings) during the past approximately 200 years, which is a very short period in geological sense. The remaining reserve of fossil fuels does not render possibility for their exploitation longer than the next 100 years. According to that, contemporary civilization will be forced to soon find technological solutions independent from fossil fuels. Therefore, it can surely be expected that there will be a reduction of emissions of greenhouse gases and relatively fast "recovery" of the atmosphere.

It should be pointed out that the lessons from paleoclimate teach us that the scenario of the occurrence of Holocene superglacials (prolonged duration of contemporary interglacials and great rise of the temperature on the global level as the consequence of increased emission of gases that produce the effect of greenhouse) should be taken with reserve. We will list only some of the obvious facts that seriously challenge the paradigm of Holocene superglacials. After the rise in the concentration of the greenhouse gases approximately 410,000 years ago, later interglacial periods became warmer, but they were also shorter than the previous ones.²¹ During the previous interglacials, besides higher temperatures, the sea level was 6 to 9 m higher than today, but it nevertheless lasted 15,000 years²² which is only about 3,000 years greater than the duration of Holocene so far.²³ Besides that, the majority of leading authorities in the field of paleoclimatic research think that we are facing an extremely long interglacial that does not have an analogous interglacial during the last 800,000 years.^{24, 25} There are also opposite opinions of very respectable scientists that we are facing a new Ice Age.²⁶

There is one comment that could contribute to a better explanation of the success of the IPCC campaign that global warming is in progress, that it indicates a coming apocalypse for the humanity, and that IPCC has the solution how to prevent this danger from happening. Most people live pressed between personal inner difficulties and collective outer fears. In the latter, threats of natural hazards take a significant place, like floods, fires, earthquakes, long-lasting precipitation, storms, tropical cyclones, extreme colds, low temperatures, tsunamis, nuclear accidents, epidemics, and the like. The fear of the threat of natural hazards had great increasing trend from the beginning of the 20th century up to today for three main

19 Internet 2

20 Radovanović, 2014

21 Berger et al., published online

22 Dutton and Lambeck, 2012

23 Walker et al., 2009

24 Claussen et al., 2005

25 Berger et al., published online

26 Kukla and Gavin, 2002

reasons. First, in that period the number of inhabitants of the planet Earth increased more than seven times, and proportionally to that, the volume of the threat increased because a greater number of people were exposed to the threats. Second, information systems achieved a revolutionary progress so that, for example, the information speed increased so much that the information on important events almost momentarily spreads over the planet and becomes available to most people. In this way, people became not only indirect witnesses, but also became indirect participants to many natural disasters. In earlier ages, the majority of people seldom had the opportunity in their life to face natural disaster, while today a far greater number of people have more frequent contacts with disasters. It is true that most of these contacts are made indirectly, but that does not significantly decrease the shocking impression and increased fear that a disaster leaves on each normal person. Third, disasters are today recorded much better, so it seems to us that there are more of them than before. All of these three reasons (unrealistically) increase the illusion that life is now lived under greater risks of natural hazards than ever before. Since it is compatible with the IPCC statements, then automatically complete IPCC explanations are accepted, as well as the measures for what to do. It finally increases the trust in the IPCC doctrine and narrows the space for critique.

Finally, even if you accept the claim that global warming produces large natural disasters,²⁷ nevertheless the greatest geological natural hazard²⁸ for humankind comes from the Ice Age. Therefore, the strategic studies on the protection of the population from natural hazards²⁹, ³⁰ need to consider an Ice Age as the largest geological hazard.

CONCLUSION

The problem and main climate issues are not the space for placing doctrines and their protection by incompetent authorities. It is the space where only the science liberated of all the pressures should and can give its contemporary and final judgments.

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²⁷ e.g. Gavrilov et al., 2015

²⁸ Lukić et al., 2013

²⁹ e.g. Mladjan and Milojkovic, 2015

³⁰ e.g. Mladjan, 2015

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PUPIL SAFETY: SCIENTIFIC-METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK AND EXPERIENCES IMPLEMENTING THE PROJECT “LIKE FOR THE SAFETY OF THE PUPILS OF PIROT”

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Abstract: In 2015 regional “Television Pi Kanal” with its headquarters in Pirot began the implementation of the project “Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot”. The long term goal of this project is developing a safety culture as well as creating a safe environment for the children of the town of Pirot through understanding the dangers present in the streets and in all public places, at school, at home or in the virtual Internet world, and the proper behaviour in such threatening situations. These themes have been dealt with through numerous trainings, workshops, lectures, TV shows, plays and printed educational material. The project implementers are teachers of primary, secondary and higher education, prominent media professionals and experts from the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia. Furthermore, this paper presents an overview of planning and project implementation which can serve as an inspiration and guidance for the future similar projects of improving the safety of children in Serbia and other countries.

Key Words: security of pupils, security/safety culture, security education, Pirot, “Television Pi Kanal”, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, research methodology of security phenomena.

INTRODUCTION

Regional “Television Pi Kanal” with its headquarters in Pirot implemented the project “Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot” in 2015.

“Televizija Pi kanal” (“Pi Channel Television”) is a private, independent media company based in Pirot. It was founded in 1999 as a television of regional importance, whose majority owner was “Tigar” AD. The area of Pirot District is covered by the cable system operator SBB, radius vector and IP TV Telekom Serbia, and is broadcast via IPTV Telecom Serbia to entire Serbia by the new channel television network called “At a Glance”²

Pirot is a town and municipality located in south-eastern Serbia. The municipality covers area of 1.235 km² (476.84 sq mi). The total population of the town Pirot is 38.785. This in-

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This paper is the result of two scientific research projects: *Development of Institutional Capacities, Standards and Procedures for Fighting Organized Crime and Terrorism in Climate of International Integrations* (Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia, No 179045, 2010–2016; the leader of the Project is Full Professor Saša Mijalković, PhD) and *Management of police organization in preventing and mitigating threats to security in the Republic of Serbia* (Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, 2015–2019; the leader of the Project is Full Professor Dane Subošić, PhD).

² On the official website of “Television Pi Kanal” www.pikanal.rs, available on January the 5th, 2016

cludes 32.414 adult inhabitants, and the average age is 38.7 (38.1 for men and 39.2 for women). The settlement has 13.737 households; the average number of members per household is 2.96. The town is predominantly populated by Serbs (91.36%), followed by Roma people (4.84%), and other smaller ethnic groups, and an increase in the number of inhabitants was noticed in the last three censuses. Apart from the town of Pirot, the municipality has over 70 settlements. In 2011 the municipality has 57.911 inhabitants: 93.8% Serbs, Roma 3.0% and 0.8% Bulgarians.³

Pirot is the administrative center of the Pirot District which encompasses the municipalities of: Bela Palanka, Pirot, Babušnica and Dimitrovgrad. The District covers an area of 2.761 km² (1.066 sq mi) and has a population of 92.277 (Serbs = 83.67%; Bulgarians = 7.14%; Roma = 4.66% and others).⁴



Picture 1: *Pirot District*⁵

Although not being particularly large, Municipality of Pirot has a significant number of educational institutions: an institution of higher education - College of Professional Studies for Education of Teachers; five secondary schools: Grammar School "Gimnazija" Pirot, School of Economics Pirot, Technical School, Dairy Boarding School "Dr Obren Pejić" and Secondary Crafts School; four elementary schools: "Vuk Karadžić", "8. septembar", "Saint Sava" and "Dusan Radović"; a school for primary and secondary education Mladost Pirot (school for children with special needs) and one primary school for music education, "Dr Dragutin Gostuški".⁶

³"Pirot", <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pirot>, available on January the 5th, 2016

⁴"Pirot District", https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pirot_District, available on January the 5th, 2016

⁵Source: "Televizija Pi kanal".

⁶More on the official website of the Municipality of Pirot: "Educational institutions in Pirot", <http://www.pirot.rs/index.php/2014-07-10-11-36-22/obrazovanje>, available on January the 5th, 2016.

In 2015 primary school pupils were the target group of this educational program. In comparison to the other local communities in Serbia, the population is rather large – about 4000 students. Survey sample covered by this education was about 600 pupils.

Table 1: *Primary schools and number of pupils in Pirot*

No	Primary schools	Number of pupils
1.	“Sveti Sava”	52 classes with 850 pupils ¹
2.	“Vuk Karadžić”	63 classes with 1284 pupils ²
3.	“8. septembar”	56 classes with 1246 pupils ³
4.	“ Dušan Radović ”	41 classes with 658 pupils ⁴
Total	4 primary schools	212 classes with 4038 pupils

The long term goal of this project is to create a safe environment at home, at school, in public places and in the virtual world for all children of Pirot. Specifically, the goal of the project is to develop a safety culture among certain target groups. These are primarily students from Pirot elementary schools who have expressed a desire to be educated. Additionally, their parents, who voluntarily wanted to gain new knowledge about safety threats of modern society were also involved.

Moreover, teachers of all schools in Pirot were able to attend these trainings. In addition, all interested citizens were able to gain knowledge about solving modern safety problems. Finally, “Television Pi Kanal” filmed all public lectures and other educational activities which were broadcast on other regional television channels as well as via the satellite. Therefore, wide audience of interested public both in the country and abroad were able to be acquainted with the contents of the project and improve its safety culture.

Generally, safety culture is *behaviour that creates safety or contributes to safety, in other words, behaviour that neither threatens nor contributes to the safety*. To be more precise, safety culture is a set of adopted attitudes, knowledge, skills and rules from the field of safety, understood as a behaviour and a process, about the need and means of protection of personal, social, national, and international values from all sources, forms and carriers of threat, regardless of the place or time of their actualization.⁷ In the context of a state micro-territory, safety culture is simultaneously the most effective.⁸

Consequently, safety culture is a behaviour led by the awareness of the necessity for confronting the phenomena of threatening security by removing etiological factors; independent action against actors of security threats unless this threatens one’s own or other people’s security; alarming relevant entities of national safety systems on time; independent action or alarming security entities that will prevent harmful consequences, mitigate, remove or disable the development of emerging harmful consequences; and revitalizing the affected values in the most efficient manner.⁹

Safety culture of the young population is the knowledge of phenomenology and victimology aspects of numerous contemporary problems of the safety of young people (tolerance, gender equality, relation towards minority groups, conflicts, drug addiction and alcoholism,

⁷ Mijalkovic, S.: *National Security*, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2015, p. 238

⁸ Read – Mijalkovic, S.: On Correlation of Culture and National Safety, *Culture of policy – magazine for fostering democratic political culture*, no 11/12, Political Science Association of Serbia – Branch in Novi Sad and Grafomarketing, Novi Sad, 2009, pp. 601–617

⁹ More details in: Mijalković, S.; Otašević, B.: Work on Improving Safety Culture of the Citizens of the Republic of Serbia, *Bezpieczeństwo – Powinność czy Gwarancja?*, *Aspekty Prawne I Prawnoustrojowe*, Wyższa szkoła humanitas, Sosnowiec, 2014, pp. 117–130

gambling, forms of physical, sexual and verbal violence, domestic violence, bullying, civil unrest, violence at sports events, sexual exploitation of children, trafficking, terrorist threats and attacks, unauthorized use of firearms and explosives, destructive action of sects, cyber crime, natural disasters) with guidelines for acting and the protection of people and property in specific situations, guidelines for safe behaviour within certain spheres of life (traffic, health and ecological culture, safety at schools, safety at school excursions and school celebrations, safety in living quarters, means for personal protection and protection of objects) and arguments for improving citizens' cooperation with the police and other security agents.¹⁰

Executors of the project "Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot" are educational workers at Pirot elementary schools, professors at the College of Professional Studies in Education of Teachers in Pirot, experts at the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia and the Police Department in Pirot, journalists from Pirot and Belgrade, experts from the School Administration Nis and teachers, assistants and students of Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade.

The main sponsor of the project is "Tigar Tyres" company. This is an excellent example of the cooperation between the media and businesses that improve safety of young people and their safety culture. Not only have they recognized this as a current need, but also as an investment in the future of generations to come as well as the creation of a safer long-term life and economic environment.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE PROJECT "LIKE FOR THE SAFETY OF THE PUPILS OF PIROT"

The author of the project "Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot" is the management of "Television Pi Kanal", primarily its director, Mr Boban Mitic. Having released numerous media contents, especially the news, it was noticed that the safety of youth had become increasingly threatened both in public places, at school, and at home in the virtual environment. It was also noted that this danger spread in all the above mentioned spheres of life (e.g. conflicts arising among students on social-networks or the Internet end up in physical conflicts on the way home from school). Finally, it was realized that children are more computer literate from their parents who are unable to control their presence in "cyber space". Additionally, parents do not recognize forms of violence and other threatening phenomena that children are exposed to. In conclusion, the need for improving the safety of young people is obvious.¹¹

Furthermore, it is also understandable that the necessary knowledge of safety cannot be acquired at home or at school since parents and even teachers are not competent enough to solve all security problems that students are faced with.

In addition, it is obvious that the psychological and propaganda power of the media and the impact on the public opinion and mass culture is significant, both with adults and children. In this context, there is a possibility of putting the media in the service of safety culture of young people and adults. The role of the media is not understood solely in production and presentation of high-quality informational and educational programs, but also in providing the public lectures and workshops, which will be recorded and presented to the audience that had no opportunity to directly participate in them. The effect of the lectures, workshops and broadcasts will be greater provided the famous and reference specialists participate, and if the

¹⁰ Stajic, Lj., Mijalkovic, S., Stanarevic, S.: *Safety Culture of the Young – How to Live Safely*, Draganic, Belgrade, 2006

¹¹ Interpretation of the main parts of the project design is the following. Mitić, B.: „Lajkujemo bezbednost pirotskih učenika“, Televizija Pi kanal, Pirot, 2015

project is followed by the media in a positive manner. In addition, the effect will be greater if more subjects from governmental and non-governmental sectors decide to help the implementation of the project.

The project consists of a number of different activities with different methodological approaches in the implementation. The main activities are training in the following areas: safety of children in traffic, safety in the virtual world (the Internet), safe growing up (depression, drug abuse, delinquency, conflicts with parents and teachers), safety at school (bullying) and at home (fires, floods, installation, medicines, growing up, conflicts). In addition, it is planned to run workshops, production and presentation of television programs, printing of leaflets and bulletins and drama presentations.¹²

Finally, it is planned that the implementation of the project is to take into account all the principles of social morality, legal and subordinate legislation in the field of education, international and national standards of children rights, journalistic ethics and the ethics of the educators' professions.¹³

General and long-term goal of the project "Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot" is to create a safe environment for children on the Internet, in public places and at school. Specific objectives of the project are:

- Informing children of primary school age, their parents, teachers and citizens about the potential safety risks when using virtual technology, the basic causes of insecurity at school, in public places and safe growing up at home;
- Training of primary school children, their parents and teachers to learn to overcome the situations of risk and use virtual technology, to overcome the situations of peril at school, in public places and at home;
- Raising awareness of personal responsibility for one's own safety and that of others and
- Raising awareness of the importance of information and education on youth safety and security in the local community.

The target groups of the project: children of primary school age in Pirot (four age groups: the 1st and 2nd grade, the 3rd and 4th grade; the 5th and 6thI grade, and the 7th and 8th grade); parents of elementary school children in Pirot; teachers of elementary school children in Pirot and general public (interested citizens).

In this context, direct participants in the project are the students of all elementary schools in Pirot, the parents of elementary school students in Pirot and the teachers in primary schools in Pirot. Some indirect participants in the project are: the visitors of workshops and lectures, the viewers of television programs, the users of printed materials, the visitors of internet "TV Pi Kanal" site and the audience of drama productions. The participants were expected to contribute actively to the implementation of the project, by the so-called "personal educational products", such as exhibitions, plays, literary works, video clips, short films they have made using their mobile phones, and so on.

¹² On this occasion nothing will be said about how to design programs for education and training. For more details, in – Mijalković, S.: The design methodology of programs of vocational training of educators in the field of security, *Bezbednost – Policija – Građani*, Vol. 10, br. 1–2/2014, Ministry of Internal Affairs of Republika Srpska, Banja Luka, 2014, p. 47–61

¹³ National Plan of Action for Children of the Republic of Serbia http://www.ombudsman.pravadeteta.com/attachments/286_NACIONALNI%20PLAN%20AKCIJE%20ZA%20DECU.pdf, related to the Local Action Plan for Children Pirot, <http://www.lpa.piro.rs/>, The Law on Education System, Official Gazette RS, No. 72/2009, 52/2011, 55/2013, 35/2015 – authentic interpretation and 68/2015 and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Law on Ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child United Nations) Official Gazette of the SFRY - International Treaties, br. 15/1990 and Official Gazette SRY – International Agreements, no. 4/1996 and 2/1997; Code of Journalists of Serbia, <http://www.nuns.rs/codex/ethical-code.html>, available on January 11th, 2016

The executors of the project are: the teachers of primary schools in Pirot, the professors of the University College of Professional Studies in Education of Teachers in Pirot, the experts of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia and Pirot Police Department, prominent media workers from Pirot and Belgrade, experts from the School Administration Nis and teachers, associates and students of Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade.

The realization of the project was coordinated by the project team consisting of a representative of “Pi channels”, a representative of “Tigar Tyres”, a representative of the Police Administration in Pirot, representatives of all primary schools and one coordinator in all four elementary schools.

The realization of the project activities is shown in the matrix of activities. It is planned to be accomplished in the course of three months (IX, X and XI) in 2015, a total of 12 (3 x 4) weeks.

Activities		IX	IX	IX	IX	X	X	X	X	XI	XI	XI	XI
1.	Forming the project team	■											
2.	Defining and sorting project tasks	■											
3.	Introductory lectures for target age groups	■											
4.	Workshops for target age groups		■	■	■		■	■	■		■	■	■
5.	Presenting educational TV programs	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
6.	Printing educational material				■				■				■
7.	Presenting personal educational products of the participants				■				■				■
8.	Project Evaluation				■				■				■

Picture 2: Matrix of activities of the project implementation “Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot”

Using such differentiated educational activities, the expected effects of the project are to facilitate the acquisition of certain knowledge of modern safety perils faced by students from different age groups and based on this knowledge to allow students, their parents and teachers to promptly recognize the safety threats, and avoid and prevent their occurrence and their consequences, to protect themselves and others, to alert the appropriate state agency or a public institution, and participate in eliminating harmful consequences depending on their capabilities.

The desired outcome of the project is to introduce varied educational activities in order to provide a certain degree of knowledge acquisition regarding the contemporary security threats faced by students of particular age groups, and enable the students, their parents and teachers to promptly recognize the security threat, to avoid it, prevent its occurrence and the occurrence of adverse consequences, to protect themselves and others, to alert the appropriate state agency or a public institution, and depending on their capabilities participate in eliminating harmful consequences.

Furthermore, on the basis of the acquired knowledge and experience, through workshops (with presentations of practical applications of various techniques and resources) which would be administered by experts, the students should substantially understand the problems, and master the methods of solving them. The revision or the “refreshing” of the acquired knowledge would be supported through printed material and TV programs that will be filmed.

The final outcome of the project should be a safer environment for the children of Pirot, but also for their parents and the local community. Enhanced security culture will facilitate the identification and prevention of security problems, as well as the problem solution.

Finally, there is a plan for the evaluation of the project. The success of the project was planned to be continuously evaluated, primarily on the basis of student, parent, and teacher surveys, after the workshops and lectures. In addition, it is expected that the evaluation will be contributed to by assessment experts, support of the relevant institutions, media interest in the project, TV and radio interviews of the project team members, advertising videos, evaluation and analysis of completed project activities, comments and impressions of performers and listeners of educational content.

Certainly, the indicators of success of the project are also the number of students, parents, teachers and citizens who attend workshops, lectures and activities; the number of likes (visits) on the website; the number of active volunteers, the number of printed leaflets and newsletters; the number of radio and TV programs; the number of discussed and newly established topics; the number and quality of educational products such as workshops and others.

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROJECT “LIKE FOR THE SAFETY OF THE PUPILS OF PIROT”

The “Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot” was implemented through two phases. The first phase consisted of preparatory activities, and the second phase entailed the implementation of educational activities and project evaluation; the first phase being implemented from June to August, and the second from September to December 2015.

In the first phase of the plan several preparatory planning and organizational activities took place:

- Drafting of the project and submitting it to the decision maker (“Tigar Tyres” Ltd.) for the implementation of the project;
- The adoption of the final version of the project design and the approval of project implementation;
- Sending the invitation letters to the directors of all primary schools in Pirot in order to plan their participation in the implementation of the project;
- Meeting with school principals in order to acquaint them with the aim of the project, methods of work, the project implementers, the deadlines and terms, appointing project coordinators for each school, etc.;
- Submitting a project draft to all school principals;
- Planning the dynamics of the activities that will be implemented in the second phase of the plan;
- Meeting with the coordinators of primary schools to introduce them to the schedule of activities to be implemented in the second phase of carrying out the projects and in order to provide guidance on further commitments of schools and
- Contacting the implementers of the seminars and educational activities and agreeing the terms and conditions of engagement.

All activities under the first phase of the plan were conducted by the project team, i.e. the author of the project.

In the second phase of the plan numerous activities of an educational nature were undertaken. In principle, they can all be classified as:

- Public lectures for students, parents, teachers and citizens of Pirot. They cover current issues that are dealt with by eminent experts, including:

1. Professor Saša Mijalković, professor at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade, who gave a lecture on the topic: "Fan hooliganism and youth safety";¹⁴

2. Tenure professor Zvonimir Ivanović at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade, who gave a lecture on the topic: "Youth safety in a virtual environment";¹⁵

3. Vladimir Cvetković, MA, Assistant Professor at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade, who gave a lecture on the topic: "Safety of students in emergency situations";¹⁶

4. Mirko Alvirović and Mladen Alvirović, authors of the TV show "Sat" on the First Channel of Radio Television Serbia, who gave a lecture on the topic: "Safety of children in traffic";

- Public workshops for students, parents, teachers and citizens of Pirot, as follows:

1. Dalibor Živković, Head of Traffic-school center Pirot and officers of the Traffic Police Section in Pirot Police Department held a series of workshops on the topic: "Safety of children in traffic";

2. Police officers of the Police Department Pirot held a series of workshops on the topic: "Safe childhood development and security culture of young people";

3. Lola Stojanovic, student of undergraduate professional studies at the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies held 8 public workshops with students of higher grades of primary schools on the topic: "Preventing bullying and creative conflict resolution";

4. Dimitar Stavrov, a police officer from the Department of criminal police in anti-narcotics department held a series of workshops on the topic: "Prevention of Drug Addiction";

- Educational TV shows - all public lectures and public workshops were recorded and the video editing of this material resulted in four educational programs, which were re-run several times on "Pi Kanal" and other televisions, which will also be used for educational purposes in future;

- TV programs documenting the aforementioned public lectures and workshops, the quality of which was assessed through the survey for the students, parents, teachers and citizens who attended the lectures and workshops;

- Interviews given by the lecturers doing the public lectures and workshops in the show "Svet na dlanu", which broadcasts daily on "Pi Kanal". On these occasions they presented the topics that were discussed throughout the project, but also many current security developments in the country and abroad;

- Production and presentation of educational TV series "Pazilica" in four separate shows

14 See more – "Lajkujmo bezbednost pirotskih učenika", <http://www.pikanal.rs/2015/10/06/lajkujmo-bezbednost-pirotskih-ucenika/>; „Lajkujmo bezbednost pirotskih učenika“, <http://www.pikanal.rs/2015/10/09/lajkujmo-bezbednost-pirotskih-ucenika-projekat-tigar-tajersa-i-pi-kanala/>; "Lajkujmo bezbednost pirotskih učenika projekat Pi Kanala", <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Vl7ZOGO1884>; "Lajkujmo bezbednost pirotskih učenika, projekat Pi kanla", <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hoveMHQosFk>; "Predavanja o huliganima i bezbednosti mladih", <http://www.pirotskevesti.rs/gradska-hronika/predavanja-o-huliganima-i-bezbednosti-mladih/>.

15 „Profesori Akademije učestvovali u projektu unapređenja bezbednosti učenika“, <http://www.kpa.edu.rs/cms/akademija/vesti/1223-profesori-akademije-uestvovali-u-projektu-unapreenja-bezbednosti-uenika.html>, available on January 5th, 2016

16 "Bezbednost đaka prilikom zemljotresa i poplava", <http://www.plusonline.rs/bezbednost-daka-prilikom-zemljotresa-i-poplava-video/>, available on January 5th, 2016

through which students can become familiar with a set of safety threats and the ways of reacting in certain threatening situations.

During the implementation of the project its continuous evaluation was being carried out. The results were summarized upon the completion of the project.

The public lectures were attended by about 600 students from all elementary schools, 30 teachers and an equal number of parents, as well as a number of interested citizens. At the same time, participating in the implementation of workshops, 120 peer educators have been trained. They can transfer their knowledge and educate their peers in school assemblies or in everyday communication.

“Pi Kanal” has followed all the project activities through its news program. All the public lectures were broadcast, as well as four “Pazilica” shows. The evaluation results indicate that all the participants in the project recognized the importance of such projects, as well as the importance of education and prevention for the safety of young people, but also the importance of opportunities for a larger number of institutions to be involved. There has been a general consensus that such projects must be long-termed and continuous.

CONCLUSION

Lectures and workshops within the project “Like for the Safety of the Pupils of Pirot” were attended by about 600 students. Out of the population of 4038 students, this represents about 15% of the total number of students in Pirot. It is, of course, a representative portion of the total student population. If we take into account that they will transmit the acquired knowledge to their classmates, and that lectures and workshops will be broadcast as TV shows, a much larger number of students, as well as citizens will be acquainted with the educational content of the project.

Based on the surveys reporting the degree of satisfaction of the target group with the acquired knowledge through the project, it is clear that the audience has recognized the importance, expressed their interest and their satisfaction with the present activities. This can be interpreted in two ways: first, as a satisfaction of a part of the public need to become familiar with the way of solving security problems that the youngest are nowadays faced with more frequently (but also older groups), particularly since they did not have the chance to hear a “living word” (apart from the Internet and magazines); second, as an opportunity to gain some expertise that they do not have the opportunity to get familiar with in everyday life due to the fact that the media run programs primarily of informative and entertaining character. In both cases, the benefit of these public lectures and workshops for youth safety and for the safety of the local community is undeniable.

However, this “single dose of knowledge about security threats” is not sufficient for long-term youth safety and safety of the local community over a long period. This is indisputable, first due to the small size of the target group (the project is being implemented for the first time, the public is still not acquainted with the project, so the total number of immediate listeners of the given lectures was only about 700), but also due to the dynamics of the etiology and phenomenology of security threats, and thus the necessary response dynamics to the appearance of security compromising situations and events. This is also evident from the results of surveys that have been carried out over the audience.

The analysis of the educational effects of the project “Like the Security Pirot Students” would be far more serious if, as a part of the evaluation of the project, there were the implementation of the test-retest methods of respondents, i.e. the testing of the listeners of the project before,

during and after the project has been carried out. Thus, the scope and structure of the acquired knowledge would be reviewed, as well as the ability to actually apply that knowledge in specific problem situations. Furthermore, the results would be of remedial value, in the sense of pin-pointing the needs of improving the content and methodology of the seminars.

Additionally, the desired effects of this type of a project could be achieved only if the project becomes successful throughout the whole territory of the Republic of Serbia, with the active participation of multiple parties, both governmental and non-governmental sectors, as well as international participants. This should be followed by a more active engagement of the national public service broadcaster – Radio Television Serbia, which would not “dare to hesitate” to take advantage of the gained experience and which would rely on consultation with regional “Pi Television channel”.

Moreover, the efficiency of the project would undoubtedly be higher if the design, implementation and evaluation included the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, which is the only higher education institution in the Republic of Serbia accredited to perform higher education and scientific research in the field of criminal justice and the police and security sciences. This would include the hiring of additional teachers and associates who are recognized as the leading scientific authorities in particular areas of crime, police, and security and law sciences.

To summarize from the abovementioned, it is clear that the intended desire of authors of the project and implementers is not to insist on the exclusivity and monopoly in the field of education on the youth safety in Serbia. Their ideas are progressive, and intentions are honest and are not implemented for the purpose of obtaining material wealth. In this regard, the regional “Television Pi Channel” is ready to share experiences with other local, regional and national TV companies in the country and abroad and contribute to the safety of young people and to the overall local, national and international security.

Finally, the project should be “made public” in the sense of obtaining certain licenses to perform educational activities in terms of copyright protection. This would allow the certification of attendance of the seminars which entail the acquisition of certain knowledge and skills in the field of youth safety.

In the foreseeable future these certificates could testify to the professional development of teachers in primary and secondary education and become a means for obtaining the license of qualification for educating young people in the area of security. By analogy, this could be applied to other groups of public offices, companies and legal entities who work with the youth (social work centers, non-government organizations, sports clubs, etc.).

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(FOOTNOTES)

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SECURITY OF THE WORLD BETWEEN HOBBS AND KANT'S THEORETICAL POSTULATES

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Abstract: The paper considers different views on Hobbes' and Kant's social concepts, as well as their perception of international politics and international security. In addition, the views of the most important thinkers who formed their own theoretical positions on international relations and security based on Hobbes' and Kant's theoretical postulates are considered. Hobbes' anthropological pessimism is the cornerstone of his concept of the social contract establishing the realistic view on international relations. Firmly believing that the natural state of a war of all against all can be overcome by the aid of a powerful state, Hobbes strongly believed that anarchy could not be excluded from international politics, and therefore the hostilities between states could not be excluded, either. This attitude has served as a solid starting point in the security thinking and practice of modern states, without losing its topicality to this day. Such a concept leaves no room for common perception of the world security and does not encourage defining institutional arrangements that are supposed to take care of security efficiently. Unlike Hobbes, Kant, who did not believe in the absolute goodness of people, with his political teachings, opened spaces for significantly more optimistic concept of international relations, seeking to affirm the importance of cooperation among the people, as well as the importance of international rules, standards, arrangements and institutions for the preservation of international security. Such an approach is the basis of liberal theory of security, which received strong affirmation after the end of the Cold War, where the increase in the number of transnational security threats, as well as the increase in the number of human activities that seek international regulation, also opened opportunities for its more powerful influence.

Keywords: *human nature, realism, liberalism, security, international security*

INTRODUCTION

The history of modern political thought, including the theory of international relations, can be basically regarded as representation of irreconcilable competition between two schools of thought: liberalism and realism. The basis of the disagreement involves different understanding of human nature and its key determinants. According to the concept of liberalism, the man is good by nature, while the realists firmly believe that the man is bad. Since they have different views on humans, the two dominant schools of political thought advocate diametrically different views on society and politics.

Hobbes and Kant are thinkers who are considered founders of modern political thought. Both of them sought to create practical approach to the government and society, allowing the framework of peace and safe existence of people in political societies. Realizing human

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relations, which in its natural state can be converted into anarchy and violence, both thinkers believed that order and peace could be built and progress achieved. They differ in the ways of reaching those goals. For Hobbes, the order within the country is achieved with the help of the state power, while for Kant, those are the morals and laws. Certainly, this approach is not only a measure of order within the country but also in terms of international relations. Hence, Hobbes is classified as a conservative thinker, or a realist, while Kant is a liberal and an idealist.

The competition between these two theoretical discourses has been especially intensified after the end of the Cold War. Termination of the bloc division and transnational concept of global society have prompted the huge optimism in international politics and announced a strong momentum of liberal vision of the world peace. However, strong anti-social impacts of globalization of the contemporary world society soon encouraged the growth of global instability and insecurity, which has contributed to the revitalization of realistic political discourse in the interpretation of international relations. It is because of extremely controversial processes characterizing the development of the modern society that the world politics and security as its most sensitive aspect are nowadays largely confined to the interpretation of contemporary followers of Kant and Hobbes.

SECURITY - PRIMARY MOTIVE OF HOBBSES' SOCIAL CONTRACT THEORY

The issue of security is one of the dominant issues of the entire political philosophy of Thomas Hobbes. Starting from extremely pessimistic postulates about human nature and explicit violence and destruction that accompany human relationships, he creates the concept of the social contract that establishes the order based on the power of the state. Security is the basis of Hobbes' social contract, it opens a coherent perspective, by offering that the natural state of general hostilities and war is replaced by a civil status guaranteed by the power of the state. The original motivation of the contract is security, it is the motivation to legitimize a social contract of establishing a community.²

The idea of social contract emanates from the necessity of security and establishing mechanisms of state power that will guarantee all contracting parties reliable security. The nature of the contract, where the logical superiority cannot be denied in any way, provides a strong foundation of security as a motive for leaving the natural state. In other words, security as a motive is drawn from the contract³ and from the moment when it begins to be valid, security as an event of sociability becomes the primary interest of the state. The contractual obligation of the state is to provide reliable security situation in which each contractual party can feel the benefits of the meaningful renunciation of the independent use of force.

Certainly, the laws of nature, which, according to Hobbes offer conditions under which people can overcome the limitations of a naturalistically determined existence, have an important place in the contractual conceptualization of security and peace. They are there to promote the human tendency of rational self-preservation, which, according to Hobbes, are a precondition for getting out of the natural state. The laws of nature as such introduce into the contractual field the security issue under the guise of necessity. Hence, the first law of nature – striving for peace and peace maintenance – is a fundamental law of nature because “it can never happen that the war sustains life and that the peace destroys it”⁴. It strongly

2 B. Romčević, “Philosophy and the Issue of Security”, *Risk Power Protection*, Official Gazette, Faculty of Security, Belgrade, 2010. p. 36

3 B. Romčević, *ibid*, p. 38

4 T. Hobbes, *Leviathan*, Gradina, Niš, 1991. p. 168

emphasizes a universal value – connotation of peace and security as a prerequisite for political society. The second law of nature represents a quite clear roadmap for the implementation of the first law and includes the pacification of interpersonal relationships as a requirement of designed security. Hence, the interaction between the first and second law of nature creates a space for security⁵ as an event of sociability, which is basically the pacification of nature-based animosities among people in their natural state. A strong orientation towards peace creates the content of other laws of nature that should provide adjustment of the individual and the general as an essential prerequisite for security.

Hobbes constructs a contractual framework of the civil state as an expression of order and collective authority that allows the effective validity of the laws of nature in creating a reliable peace and security among the people on a permanent and irrevocable transfer of natural right to all and unlimited freedoms of action of individuals. In this way, a security motive of the social contract becomes a security interest of the state established by the contract, whereby, for Hobbes, power as the most constructive principle is in the basis of social security. He is emphatic that only the unlimited power of Leviathan may persuade asocial human nature to social order as a condition of peace and stability. Certainly, the notion of peace as the highest individual and social value is present in the whole Hobbes' political theory, which is why it is focused on peace as a precondition for the biological survival of the people.⁶

Hobbes completed his radically pessimistic view of the world with the attitudes about the impossibility of overcoming the natural state in the relations between countries. In fact, his concept of human nature and fundamental anthropological pessimism are the basis of his perception of relations between countries. This means, as properly noted by Kathy Long, that the observation of the anarchy of natural state and inherited relationships of competition and conflicts among individuals is the framework of relations between countries.⁷ Antagonisms natural among people are of equal intensity between different nations and political communities. In other words, Hobbes saw the imperfection of relations between countries in the imperfection of man and destructive forces inherent in human nature. He stresses that there is a fundamental difference between the policy within a state and in relations between states. Unlike conflicts within a political community that are solvable, problems of resolving conflicts between political communities remain open. Within a state, as an organized political unity, the natural state is overcome by concluding contracts that impose rules and norms of behavior of people in a community, which establishes a social order. However, for Hobbes, in international relations, the natural state, or state of natural freedom, is the only possible condition. Due to the inability to control and correct the behavior of states and impose the will of a supranational authority upon them, relations between countries are reduced to distrust, hatred, hostility and war. Therefore, concludes Hobbes, as states in their relationships are not subordinate to a single law and a single sovereign, they are destined to be adversaries. That is why, war is normal, expected behavior in their relations, and peace – a rare and exceptional situation. “But even if there had never been times in which some people were in a state of war against each other, yet at all times kings and other personalities, who have ultimate power, due to their independence, are in a constant envy and take a position of gladiators. They stand with guns ready to be used and a view pointing at each other, with forts, garrisons and guns on the borders of their countries, with continuous stalking, and this is war stance.”⁸

⁵ B. Romčević, *ibid*, p. 41

⁶ S. Stojanović, *Hobbes' Theory of Human Nature and Perspectives of Peace and Order*, VIZ, Belgrade, 2012, p. 91

⁷ K. Long, “The anti Hobbes? Montesquieu's Contribution to International Relations Theory”, *In-Spire Journal of Law, Politics and Societies*, Vol. 3. No. 2, 2008, p. 90

⁸ T. Hobbes, *Leviathan*, p. 138

For Hobbes, according to the essential features, the natural state among states is identical to the natural state in which people are when there is no authority of force and law. For him, the instinct of self-preservation is not only the essential determinant of human nature, but also the essence of the country. The state, as well as an artificially created man, seeks to ensure and affirm their self-preservation as the people guided by the laws of their nature strive. When it comes to self-preservation, then the state also has a right to everything, including the war. As the individual in the natural state had unlimited natural right and freedom to do everything, according to Hobbes, in order to sustain, the state has the right to use all means. However, unlike the natural rights of individuals Hobbes considers alienable, natural rights of the state, according to him, are not and cannot be alienable. Due to the inability to establish some supranational authority, the possibility of transferring the natural laws of the country is abolished. This attitude is essential in Hobbes' conclusion that a natural state of war between countries is impossible to overcome. In an environment of universal state of war and unlimited freedom of states in the use of "natural" right, social order in international relations cannot be established. Therefore, Hobbes challenges the idea of humankind as a universal community of states and peoples, claiming that anarchy as a state of absence of the highest authority of power in international politics makes the idea utopian.

Impossibility of establishing international government makes relations between countries anarchic, and in such a disordered condition, there is no security for any country. Specifically, starting from very important postulate for him that to overcome the natural human state, authority of power is necessary, he came to the conclusion that relations between countries, due to the impossibility of establishing some general power that could impose its will on all the states, are constantly in natural state. "What are countries if not armies armed against each other; their state, as not limited by any authority over all of them, resembles the uncertain peace, a brief truce, and should be considered a natural state – and that is, the state of war."⁹

The instinct of self-preservation and the right to all, like in individuals, is also most directly related to the power of states. Hence, in Hobbes, the will to power, which is characteristic of humans, is the characteristic of states, as well. In the environment of accentuated hostility and permanent war, affirmation and appreciation of the country come with its power. Therefore, the sovereign is constantly striving to increase and spread the power of the country, and the power can be increased and expanded only at the expense and detriment of others. "Therefore, kings, whose power is greatest, do everything to provide it by using the law, and towards the outer world, by wars. Moreover, when this is achieved, then a new desire comes. Some of them strive for new conquests".¹⁰ The universal struggle for power necessarily reduces the interstate relations to the *bellum omnium in omnes* and strengthening tendency towards dictatorship, as the primary feature of government policy towards other states. The precedence in terms of strength and power in relations between countries is evident, because here, according to Hobbes' opinion, the policy of the stronger is what rules. As for the states, to possess the power also means to have the right and freedom to all, and therefore, the precedence in power is the best war plan. These are the reasons that force states and their sovereigns to continually strengthen their armies as the most important exponents of their power and pursue a policy of hostility towards other countries.

Therefore, relations between countries, Hobbes concludes, do not know for the aspiration to peace. In fact, the natural state of relations between countries does not know for the operation of natural law which first commandment is the pursuit of peace. In international relations, there are no entities to implement the natural law, thus, it is impossible to achieve peace between countries, which is why they "live in a state of permanent war on the battlefield,

9 T. Hobbes, *Man and Citizen*, Hedone, Belgrade, 2006. p. 126

10 T. Hobbes, *Leviathan*, p. 111

armed at the borders, with guns directed at neighbors everywhere.”¹¹ Hobbes’ attitude that in foreign policy the sovereign has absolute freedom of action, including the right to war, and that the maximum should be drawn out of other states emphasizes aggressive foreign policy.

REALISTIC CONCEPT OF ANARCHY IN INTERNATIONAL POLITICS

Hobbes’ political theory has given strong impetus to the realistic concept of international relations and inspired a large number of thinkers. His views about the natural asocial givens of human nature, the natural state of anarchy, compelling rivalry and conflicts between individuals, as well as the view that the principals of the people’s behavior also reflect the behavior of states in their relation to each other, form the cornerstone of the realist theory of international relations. Relying on Hobbes’ pessimistic perceptions about human nature and the continuous and inevitable struggle for power among people, the views of the theoreticians of this school are based on his initial postulates about the inevitability of conflicts as a key feature of international relations.

Following Hobbes’ basic anthropological theoretical discourse, the supporters of realistic theoretical schools consider that the imperfection of the world is the result of the same type of human imperfection and destructive forces inherent in human nature. The starting point of the realistic concept of international relations is the limitations of human nature and the absence of international government. As human nature and man’s asocial individualism are dominant principle for them, the representatives of this theoretical group believe that survival is the most important driving force of the state, as survival is the most important motive for the individual. The absence of international government makes the international system anarchical. In such an undeveloped system, there is not a state sure that it will not be threatened by other countries. This context is crucial to the conclusion that states, as key actors in the world of international politics, are primarily motivated by their own national interests, whereby the interests are defined in terms of power. Power and irreparable conflict of states are fundamental characteristic of international relations.

Morgenthau, Schmitt, Blühdorn, Schwarzenbergen and many others are significant theoreticians whose theoretical discourses on international relations and the possibilities of peace in the world are based on Hobbes’ theory. Likewise, modern representatives of Hobbes’ school of thought follow pessimistic discourse and do not believe in the triumph of democracy nor that dictatorships and authoritarian governments are neutralized, or fanaticism of a number of religious and other movements in many regions of the world. In addition, they do not believe that traditional geopolitics disappears or that globalized world economy can create a context of peaceful integration. Similarly, most of them, like Waltz, Mirscheimer, Kaplan, Brzezinski and many others argue that order and stability require the presence of a strong reliable modern international Leviathan.¹²

The basis of modern theories is Hobbes’ views on the anarchy in the relations between states and permanent opposition of interests of actors on the international scene, and that the behavior of states is primarily determined by their striving to survive and that their position in international relations most directly depends on available power. The anarchy of the international system forces the states to seek safety, to compete with each other for power as the best precondition of survival. The necessary consequences of such tendencies are permanent

11 T. Hobbes, *Leviathan*, p. 217

12 H. Binnendijk, R. L. Kugler, *Seeing the Elephant*, NDU Press, Center for Technology and National Security Policy, Potomac Books, Inc. Washington, D.C., 2006, p. 10

mistrust and conflicts as the dominant forms of relations between countries, because the will to power and the will to suppress are interconnected. Modern successors of Hobbes' thoughts find the argument for their claims about the realistic nature of relations between countries in the continuity of behavior of states in international relations throughout human history. "The essence of international politics remains the same, the forms are restored, and the events repeat endlessly."¹³ Not denying changeability as an important feature of international politics, they emphasize that sustainability is probably the most impressive feature of the behavior of states in international relations. Modern realist political theoreticians find the causes of continuity of behavior of states in international politics and the astonishing identity of the forms of manifestation of international politics over millennia in the sustainability of its anarchic nature¹⁴, and anarchy is one of the key features and Hobbes' view on the relations between countries. Anarchic nature of international politics, according to them, will last as long as one of the countries does not succeed, due to its superiority based on the power, in turning the anarchic field of international politics into a hierarchically arranged one.

They do not share the optimism concerning the nature of relations between countries with the theoreticians of liberal orientation. They seriously criticize those who advocate neoliberal concepts considering that they are too optimistic and utopian, therefore the idea of the end of history and global perpetual peace is superficial and without real foundation.¹⁵ However, regardless of the fact that the modern world provides plenty of opportunities for cooperation, there is no room for optimism when it comes to the behavior of major powers as the key international policy makers. They take a categorical position that the power remains an essential argument in the international arena and the main criterion in the evaluation of hegemonic capacity of great powers, and calculation of power is at the center of realistic understanding of international politics of their leaders.¹⁶ Certainly, the great powers fall into rivalry not only because of their aggressor intentions but also because the nature of the international system creates such dynamics that they are necessarily imposed the rivalry. According to his initial postulate, relations between the great powers are inevitably conflicting, thus a new era of their conflicts is imminent. It is generally accepted that the international system is permanently anarchic because there is no world government that could establish and enforce laws and regulations. The result is the need for each country to protect its own security and interests with its own power. In this situation, the major powers are forced to boost their power, including investment in military forces and economic capabilities, and to compare it with the rival powers. All this leads to an effort to be more powerful than the rival and to dominate, as the ultimate policy objective of every major power, as one of them emphasizes, is to become a hegemon.¹⁷ The continuity of such patterns of behavior of great powers has never been interrupted, hence their competition for power is the most significant feature of international politics in the past, and it will be so in the future, as well. Therefore, the rivalry and hostility are constant in international relations and they, regardless of changes in the relations among the great powers, will never lose this characteristic.

They do not believe that democracy has triumphed, or that the globalized economy has brought the peaceful integration of the world, hence there is sharp criticism of the theory of democratic peace. Hence, for them, the end of the Cold War, instead of creating a global community causes an increase in anarchy and chaos much more, which is why the disorder is a lot more certain than the order in international relations.¹⁸ In the practice of contemporary inter-

13 K. Waltz, *Theory of International Politics*, CCVO, Belgrade, 2008, p. 7

14 *Ibid.*

15 J. Mearscheimer, *The Tragedy of Great Power Politics*, The Association for the Study USA, Belgrade, 2009, p. 24

16 *Ibid.*, p. 34

17 *Ibid.*, p. 47

18 H. Binnendijk, R. L. Kugler, *ibid.*, p. 60

national relations, traditional geopolitical patterns or realist political content are not suppressed. Countries, that sometimes can cooperate, in fact have conflicting interests, and calculation of power prevails in the state discourse, which is why they are constantly competing among themselves. Opposition of interests gives many reasons to conclude that the prospects for lasting peace are very controversial, and claims that the security competition and the war between the great powers are eliminated from international relations – are wrong. In fact, for them, there is much evidence that the prospects for lasting peace among the great powers are – futile.¹⁹

KANT AND THE IDEA OF PERPETUAL PEACE

Kant, unlike Hobbs, belongs to the group of optimistic thinkers. Certainly, he was also aware of human imperfection and the inclination of people towards conflicts and violence, but at the same time, he looked forward with optimism to the possibility that humanity comes to peaceful and humane relations with the aid of morality and common law.²⁰ Kant was not only ethicist, but he also considered the problem of good country as well as international relations, trying to offer solutions for dramatic relations among states in the 18th century, where his approach in the establishment of more reliable basis for sustainable world peace does not lose its topicality.

The link between security and ethics is one of the strongest in Kant's political philosophy. His concept of international security is an integral part of his understanding of international relations, and above all a well-known concept of perpetual peace.²¹ In his theory of perpetual peace as a condition for the ultimate social and moral progress of humankind and the accomplishment of civil society, Kant tried to universalize the content of his practical philosophy, or the categorical imperative.²² Stressing the need to act in accordance with the categorical imperative applies not only to individuals, but also to countries, Kant believed that the application of humanistic principles and moral management in relations among states, as well as the overall progress of civilization lay the foundations for increasing non-belligerence. For him, the civil society is the right place for freedom, peace and humanism, but not all this is so certain to make peace and freedom secure and permanent.

In his opinion, the problem of organization of perfect civil society depends on the external relations between countries. In this sense, the world civil order, as the most perfect form of human society can be achieved through relationships among countries where wars are excluded as modalities of argumentation.²³ Perpetual peace – the state where perfect security in international relations is achieved, something humanity should aspire to, and what is inevitable²⁴, would be based on the republican internal organization of countries, as an embodiment of the idea of freedom and equality, and federalism in international relations as guarantor of international stability and peace. Certainly, federalism would be based on a social contract, which should enable countries to be taken from the natural state in which, like humans, they are mutually threatened,²⁵ or a way to replace the natural state with a legal one. Although he was a skeptic when it comes to the sustainability of perpetual peace between countries, he believed that perpetual peace is possible only among the dead, while the living

19 J.Mirscheimer, *ibid*, p. 23

20 H. Binnendijk, R. L. Kugler, *ibid*, p. 8

21 V. Rakić, "Kant and Rolls: From Perpetual Peace to Status Quo in International Relations", *Risk Power Protection*, Official Gazette, Faculty of Security, Belgrade, 2010, p. 56

22 S. Stojanović, *Globalization and Security Perspectives of the World*, VIZ, Belgrade, p. 32

23 P. Bujanja, *Philosophy of Peace*, Kruševac, 1987, p. 201

24 V.Rakić, *ibid*, p. 57

25 *Ibid*, p. 58

must be satisfied with constant approaching it. He believed that an alliance of the countries over which there would be a super-state – the country of people, could be a worthy attempt at establishing lasting world peace.

Bearing in mind the flexibility of Kant's attitudes in terms of a model for the establishment of world peace, there is a dilemma which conceptual framework is of a higher priority and whether the League of Nations and the World Federation are opposed concepts, or what is his priority. It seems that his perception of overcoming conflicts in international relations was based on a voluntary league of nations, not the world state, which has the power of coercion. Certainly, there is no doubt that the demands of practical mind a priori indicated to one world republic; however, empirical givens imposed the idea of continuity from a voluntary league of nations to federation of states. Hence, it can be rightly claimed that they are not opposing concepts, but the League of Nations creates the initial stage in a continuous connection into a global federation. The ultimate goal of mind is a federal state, because it can with the help of laws and coercion, secure peace and transfer the international natural state into the world order. There is no doubt that Kant considered a federal state condition for achieving the world peace, but the League of Nations, as a starting phase in the establishment of the world peace, in any case, is more appropriate than the world state that would be established by means of violence.

It is obvious that Kant's idea of the world state as the world federation did not mean it to be an imposed solution. He advocated the establishment of a non-coercive league of states, because the state has the right not to be forced to establish unique political structure with binding universal laws²⁶. Kant emphasizes that although complete world legitimate power can be unattainable, it is still an ideal to which the humankind should aspire to and the creation of a federation of states constitutes the first step towards an increasingly transnational regulation of relations between countries, a process that should lead to the ideal of global federal state. Therefore, he insisted that states should take concrete steps to overcome war as a natural state of international relations and establish a state of peace, meaning they should reduce their standing armies, not trying to dominate one over the other, or interfering in each other's internal affairs and establish the international law to manage their mutual relations.²⁷

LIBERAL-DEMOCRATIC VISION OF WORLD PEACE

Supporters of Kant's concept, which is based on an optimistic view on human nature, strongly believe that rational and moral order, which would be based on universal moral principles, is possible. Since the basis of this concept is a presumption of good human nature, they find that the causes of anarchy in the international order are in the imperfection and obsolescence of the institutions and the lack of knowledge and understanding, and they think the solution is based on education and reform of social institutions. Modern followers of Kant's perception of international politics, especially those after the end of the Cold War, following optimistic anthropological discourse, persist in the view that democratization and economic progress will determine the future of the world. This is the reason for their steadfast optimism about the global peace and progress, while stressing the belief that democracy can effectively eliminate dictatorship, militarism and nationalism; cooperation in economy and free trade can promote global integration, and international law and multilateral institutions can spread zone of peace and prosperity.²⁸

²⁶ Babić J., Bojanić P., *Global Governance of the World*, Faculty of Law Belgrade University, 2012, p. 19

²⁷ M. Bajagić, *International Security*, KPA, Belgrade, 2012, p. 169

²⁸ H. Binnendijk, R. L. Kugler, *ibid*, p. 16

Democratic peace, an idea that directly leans on Kant's idea of perpetual peace, is an unavoidable theory and practice of international relations after the Cold War, which for more than two decades was one of the central topics in political science and international relations. Continuing the idea, which was present in Kant, democratic peace theoreticians argue that democratic societies abolish the possibility of mutual hostilities, since their political views are based on such value patterns that reject the war, so such value orientation implies the rejection of hostilities between democracies. Rejecting the possibility of hostilities between democracies is in the basis of democratic peace theory, claiming that liberal democratic states do not fight against each other.²⁹ Hence, the proponents of this theory claim that democracies were not engaged in wars against each other, pointing out that the cause of democratic peace are constitutional restrictions in democracy, as well as respect for moral autonomy of citizens, including freedom of speech, the right to vote, etc.³⁰

Among modern Kant's supporters, there are those who have seen the end of the Cold War as a triumph of democracy over tyranny. The central argument is that the end of the Cold War marked the end of the great ideological conflict between two modern forms of government – democracy and totalitarianism.³¹ Thereby, history ended, and in the political sphere, with liberal democracy, the last stage of Hegel's dialectical process – thesis, antithesis, synthesis has been reached.³² The end of ideological conflict and the triumph of liberalism over all other ideologies eliminate the possibility of conflict and war between democratically structured states, which is explained by the assertion that democratic countries are more stable internally and more dedicated to peace in international relations. Certainly, this does not exclude conflicts between democratic countries and undemocratic and totalitarian states. Thus, democratization becomes a leading ideological concept and a new framework for the establishment of lasting peace and harmonious world. The idea and strategy of export of liberalism to illiberal regions, as a chance of world alignment is related to this.

In neoliberal concept, peace is an important basis of progress and democratic development of the world, where democracy and the market are the basis of a peaceful world. Among neoliberal theoreticians, there is common belief that the increasing interdependence of modern societies and the functions of global economic forces lead to progress, expand prosperity, abolish borders and thus eliminate the causes of conflicts. Free movement of capital and elimination of trade barriers are considered the means to achieve these goals, which is best expressed by the slogan: "World peace through world trade". It is often considered that such tendencies arise from the laws of nature, which cannot be resisted. This is the reason for the view that the idea of liberal theory contains two assertions. "One is that democracies seek to carry out peaceful foreign policy and the other is that where the free market has been established, over time the process of work itself tends to promote democracy."³³ This interdependence of democracy and free trade, on one hand, and peace, on the other, is the essence of the liberal model of peace, or the openness of economy – high level of economic development – democracy – peace. Strong belief of neoliberal thought that free trade will make the world not only more prosperous but also more peaceful has not diminished the importance of the military force, but contributed to increasingly clear advantage of economic power. "Devaluation of war as a possibility of solving problems is a significant feature of the world in the twenty-first century, to the same extent as the rise of the market. These two qualities are, in fact, closely linked: when the main task of governments ceased to be the defense of sovereign

29 T. Dunne, "Liberalism", In: J. Baylis, S. Smith, *The Globalization of World Politics*, p. 171

30 H. Binnendijk, R. L. Kugler, *ibid*, p.

31 F. Fukuyama, *The End of History and the Last Man*, CID, Podgorica, 1999

32 H. Binnendijk, R. L. Kugler, *ibid*, p. 16

33 M. Mandelbaum, *The Ideas That Conquered the World*, Filip Višnjić, Belgrade, 2004, p. 18

borders, the space was opened for the promotion and preservation of the smooth functioning of free market, which has become their main concern.³⁴

The end of the Cold War and the victory of the liberal model, as well as the strengthening of global processes that have affirmed the optimistic concept of international politics created a specific social framework for the promotion of multilateralism in security. The model of security community as an important aspect of modern concept and practice of security, which is basically constructivist idea refers to the process of transformation from individual to collective security of states, where the closeness of values and interests are the starting point of multilateralism. One of the key premises of the security community is avoiding security dilemma and overcoming the traditional approach to security. According to the proponents of this security model, "the security community is a group of people who are integrated, whereby the concept of integration means a feeling of togetherness, closeness of values and institutions and practices strong and wide enough to provide dependable expectations of peaceful change among people."³⁵ Such changes include solving social problems through institutionalized procedures without the use of physical force, in other words, the concept of security community means regions or groups of people who have voluntarily renounced to solve common problems by force and who have achieved the significant level of integration.

CONCLUSION

Modern international politics, which is torn between the vision of a global society based on liberal fundamentals and growing practice of realistic content in the relations between countries, indicate that the postulates of Hobbes' and Kant's teachings continue to be main theoretical frameworks of interpretation of international relations and views on the prospects of security in the world. Both thinkers considered the exit from the natural state necessary, but in doing so they offer diametrically different approaches.

For Hobbes, the principle of power had the most important role in the dynamics of political life. It is a principle of control and guarantee of security as a framework of civilized life in the political community. However, Hobbes was not preoccupied with the tendency to internationalize peace, but it should rather be said that he openly advocated hostile relations between countries. Such an opinion was justified by the impossibility of establishing power that could subjugate all countries to one will. Modern followers of his teachings, who find the endorsement of their views in the growing realist political tendencies in international politics, seriously dispute the possibility of different consideration of international politics than the one set by Hobbes, seriously leading them to pessimism when it comes to the security of the world.

Moral development of the world for Kant is a key prerequisite for the establishment of world society. For him, ethics certainly has priority over politics. Kant, who did not believe in the absolute goodness of people, opened space for significantly more optimistic concept of international relations, seeking to affirm the importance of cooperation among people, as well as the importance of international rules, standards, arrangements and institutions for the preservation of international security. Such views are the foundation of interpretation of the representatives of contemporary liberal theory of security, where the ambitions of the concept of global society opened a huge space for the affirmation, with a strong intensification of anti-social aspects that accompany globalization that strongly disqualified their views.

³⁴ M. Mandelbaum, *ibid*, p. 16

³⁵ K.Deutsch, Political Community and the North Atlantic Area. *The European Union Readings on the Theory and Practice of European Integration*. Edited by: Nelson, B.,& Stubb, A. London, Lynner Riener Publisher, 2014, p.123-145

Although the weakening of the idea of global unity and the return of history in international politics largely creates space for stronger realist political perception of international security, inevitability of growing interdependence in the world, primarily an increase in the number of transnational issues, does not diminish the importance of a strong liberal approach to security, primarily involving multilateralism. Therefore, it can be concluded that both theories still have an undiminished importance for fully understanding the discourse of international politics and search for institutional and other solutions that would lead to peace that is more reliable. These approaches, which separately offer different interpretations of contemporary trends, certainly enable a better understanding of contemporary relations.

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THE BATTLE AGAINST ISLAMIC STATE – SOME OF THE POSSIBLE STRATEGIES

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Abstract: The region of Middle East has been for centuries the space of interweaving of interests of power holders, both within the countries of the region, as well as the interests of regional and major world powers. The favorable geographical position and significant reserves of natural resources, principally oil, make the Middle East, in terms of security, very sensitive. The clash of civilizations and religions in the region and the locations of the most important holy places for both Christianity and Islam, were historically a stumbling rock and a great obstacle to peace and prosperity.

After the process of changes of political regimes in the some countries of North Africa and settling down situation, the world faced with the escalation of the situation in the Middle East where we are witnessing one of the fiercest armed conflicts in recent history. One of the main actors of this complex conflict is the Islamic state, which in a relatively short time transformed from the terrorist group into a kind of quasi-state system.

The aim of this paper is to try to answer the quite problematic question: “What are the possible strategies to fight against the Islamic state?” The significance of the paper is that it reflects in the modest contribution in gaining knowledge about complicated security reality in the Middle East, from the perspective of possible strategy against the Islamic state.

Key words: security, the Islamic state, the Middle East, strategy

INTRODUCTION

The concept of the Islamic state has a double meaning. To make it absolutely clear which term refers to the subject and content of work, it must be precisely determined. The Islamic state is a term that is related to the form of government based on religious grounds and settings of Islam. The second meaning of the Islamic State refers to the terrorist organization which, in terms of themes, is covered in this work. These considerations are not unrelated. The determination of the Islamic state as a terrorist organization cannot be equated with anything that has to do with the official Islam.

The Islamic state is transnational, jihadist², terrorist organization of Sunni extremists emerged as a branch of Al Qaeda. It is also known under the names of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant³ (ISIL), the Islamic State of Iraq and Greater Syria (ISIS) and the Islamic State

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2 “Jihadism represent many forms of ideology which relies on a military interpretation of Kuran. Akaidism is example of jihadism which proclaims fight with all the measures till extermination of all the enemies of Islam”. Source: Д. Симеуновић, Тероризам, Београд, 2009.,pp 209.

3 Levant – means East or East countries. Levant is common name for the countries which are located on east coast of Mediterranean Sea - Greece, Turkey, Syria, Jordan, Liban, Israel, Egypt

of Iraq and Sham (Islamic State in Iraq and al-Sham). It acts on the territory of Iraq and Syria⁴, where they declared “caliphate”, but its objectives related to other areas in the world that are principally inhabited by the Muslim population⁵. In practice, this means that the projected territory of the Islamic state includes large parts of Europe, Asia and Africa.

THE CAUSES OF THE EMERGENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ISLAMIC STATE

In order to create a basis for discussion of possible strategies to combat Islamic state, it is necessary to point out some of the causes of its origin and development. The complexity in defining the causes and development of the Islamic state arises from the historical, religious, and cultural conditions for the development of the region of the Middle East and the interweaving of many different interests of the power holders, both at the local and the regional and global levels.

Middle East is an area that has historically been the target of numerous military campaigns in which different civilizations and religions met. The essence of these campaigns was the conquest of new territories by the European powers and the spread of Christianity in the East. These historical events have influenced on creating deep animosity between Christians and Muslims, who, to a lesser or greater extent is still present today. Rejection of the cultural characteristics and peculiarities of the local population, as well as efforts to establish a new pro-Western cultural model, affected negatively on the local population towards the colonial powers and the Christian world in general.

The conflicts in the region in recent history (the Arab-Israeli wars, the war between Iraq and Iran, the first and second Gulf War) made a significant impact on the cultural peculiarities and social development of the population, especially to younger generation, which created a prerequisite for the emergence of extremist movements. The division of Muslims to the Shiitee and Sunnis, as well as struggle for power in the Islamic world, are also some of the important causes of the Islamic state⁶.

Interests of regional powers in the Middle East, such are Saudi Arabia, Iran, Turkey and Israel, affected, directly or indirectly, to the emergence of the Islamic state. The nature of these interests is very complex. They are intertwined, substantially interdependent and very dynamic. Changes in interest, almost as a rule, affected the security situation in the region. The essence of mentioned countries lies in the effort to take the best possible geostrategic position, bearing in mind the great importance of the region. The Middle East is an important point on the geopolitical map of the world due to its geographical position and large reserves of fossil fuels, principally oil⁷. The Islamic state can be seen as a tool of regional forces for the design and realization of their interests in the Middle East.

When analyzing the causes of the Islamic state, it is necessary to take into account the interests of the big powers, principally the United States of America. After the 2003 invasion

4 “Islamic state today controls territory size of a Great Britain (...)”. Source: Независне новине, Сарајево, www.nezavisne.com, text: “Islamic state controls territory size of a Great Britain”, published 4.09.2014., last seen 1.12.2015. године.

5 Осман Софтић, MSc, text “Halifat – prank to the Islamic world”, balkans.aljazeera.net, last seen 26.10.2015.

6 Ајдин Перчо, text “Блиски Исток-неисламска економија Исламске државе”, www.novovrijeme.ba, last seen 9.09.2014. године.

7 Oil reserves in the countries of Middle East: Saudi Arabia 266.7, Iran 138.4, Iraq 115, Kuwayt 104, Emirates 97.8, Katar 15.2 (in billions of barrels). Source: www.energyobserver.org, last seen 05.12.2015. године.

in Iraq, this world power met with major problems in resolving the local crisis. The basis for these problems is the ineffectiveness of military force in an attempt to bring the security situation to the desired level. The political and military actions that have been taken by the United States caused a number of problems that have resulted primarily in creating deep hostilities between Shiites and Sunnis. The new Iraqi government of Prime Minister al-Maliki has taken a kind of political reprisals against the Sunni population⁸. This situation was suitable ground for Sunni Islamist organizations and the emergence of the Islamic state. How this is an important reason for the emergence of the Islamic State indicates that a significant portion of the Sunni population in Iraq welcomed the Islamic state as liberators, and hope for change.

In any case, the Islamic state has grown into a significant stakeholder in the conflicts in Syria and Iraq. In practice, this terrorist organization controls a considerable part of the territory where it has established its own system of government. It has a well-organized and armed forces that are applied asymmetric and nonlinear methods of operation. The flexibility of the organization and strict internal rules affects the exceptional toughness and resilience of the Islamic state. The terrorist attacks in Paris in November 2015, showed the world the seriousness and reality of action of the Islamic state outside of the Middle East. After these events it was clear that the Islamic state is able to carry out a terrorist attack anywhere and anytime. In addition, the terrorist attacks in Paris indicate the inefficiency and shortcomings of the current strategy against the Islamic state. These facts indicate the need for a comprehensive analysis of the application of previous strategy in the fight against Islamic states, principally in terms of problems in their application, as well as possible short-term and long-term consequences of their application unsuccessful. Based on this analysis, there is a need to define new and successful ways to combat this very powerful terrorist organization.

CONFRONTING THE ISLAMIC STATE

When considering possible strategies to combat Islamic state, it is necessary to start from the fact that it is a terrorist organization that, in addition to the area of the Middle East, projected their own goals and work on the territories of the countries in Europe, Asia and Africa. This fact raises the question of a global approach in solving the problem of the destruction of the Islamic state. This is supported by the fact that practically all countries of the world are endangered and threatened that next terrorist attack of the Islamic State can be carried out on their territory. Therefore, the combat against the Islamic state must be complex, comprehensive and involve destruction of the Islamic state both in the Middle East, and its cells around the world. In addition, an important aspect of the fight against the Islamic state must be measures and actions which may impede the operation of members of the Islamic state and carry out terrorist attacks, similar to those in France.

STRATEGIES OF UNARMED OPPOSITION TO THE ISLAMIC STATE

Considerations of possible strategies for the unarmed opposition to Islamic state must be on regional and global level. Development of the situation on the field leads to the assumption that Syria and Iraq, currently, are not capable to independently undertake some significant unarmed measures against the Islamic state. Unarmed strategy against Islamic state is possi-

⁸ Nouri al-Maliki, became Iraqi prime minister with the help of USA and support of Iran after American army withdraw from Iraq.

ble to define if we start from the causes that led to its creation. The assumption of success of the implementation of any strategy to combat the Islamic state will be achieved after universal approval of the international community for neutralizing and destroying it.

Analyzing the possible causes of the Islamic state, it can be said that there are several key pillars on which the organization was created and develops. These pillars are: the contradiction interest of regional and world powers, the animosity between Muslims and Christians, the conflict between Shiites and Sunnis, they base their ideology on the basis of official Islam, media propaganda directed to their followers and enemies and stable financing. Neutralizing or destroying any of these pillars will make organization weak, and simultaneous stroke and demolishing all pillars together will destroy Islamic state⁹.

If the international community really wants to permanently deal with the most serious threat to regional and global security, it is necessary to urgently redefine interests of the world and regional powers in the Middle East. A key role in this process certainly has the USA and EU on one side and Russia on the other. The moment when these forces coordinate their interests in this region for the destruction and disappearance of the Islamic state, it will be the actual beginning of its end. It is not expected that, in such developments, any of the regional powers could pose a stumbling block to the implementation of the **strategy of reconciliation of interests**. This strategy would of course be the result of intense political activity of the main actors of the international community.

The process of redefining national interests, in terms of achieving a lasting solution for the Middle East region, where is essential to destruct Islamic state, would have to have the support of the leading countries of the Islamic world. The essence of this possible strategy of unarmed opposition lies in choosing between the lesser of two evils. Redefinition of interest or sacrificing some of them should be less evil than that which are causes and may be provoke by Islamic state. The question is why, so far, have there been no political efforts that would result to this strategy? The answer is very clear. The political game is based on a continuous assessment of the situation and reviews of the procedures. When it comes to the Islamic state, there is a very interesting game on the scene. The Islamic state is directly or indirectly employed by the United States and the Russian Federation to damage the interests of rivals in the Middle East. So it will be until the functioning of the Islamic state brings political and material "profit". As soon as the Islamic State begins to produce "losses" for both sides, it is reasonable that the strategy of reconciliation of interests will see the light of the day. What can accelerate its activation could be the interests of the regional powers that have supported or interests of the United States or the Russian Federation. Both forces would probably have struggled to sacrifices their allies in the region only to the extent necessary for achieving their interests related to the destruction of the Islamic state.

The enmity between the Muslim and the Christian world, as well as the Muslim world and Judaism is certainly one of the pillars that support the Islamic state. This kind of animosity draws deep historical roots. What is important is that no official religion advocates hatred and hostility towards members of other faiths. On this fact it is necessary to base the **strategy of religious reconciliation**. The implementation of this strategy in the long term would have an impact on reducing the level of terrorist threat which in base has religious radicalism, and in the short term could have an impact on the reduction of the number of supporters of the Islamic state.

This possible strategy of the unarmed opposition to Islamic state implies a unique and incorporate performance of secular and religious authorities at the global level in its implementation. The point is to achieve an impact on the religious consciousness of the broad

⁹ The content presented in this paper are result of the personal opinion of the authors and their thinking about possible solution to fight Islamic state

masses and creating a hostile towards any form of violence, regardless of who carries it out. It is certain that religious beliefs are remarkable emotional and motivational drivers. The Islamic state is trying to make their ideology identified with the original teachings of Islam, but the international community must not fall on this provocation. Otherwise, the century-old gap that is created between the Islamic world and other religious communities will only become deepen and may take cataclysmic proportions. The international community has to be very careful since the leading creators of world politics comes from the Christian world. Islamic state is probably playing on this trying to convince the followers to blame infidels for all their troubles. Admit it or not, it certainly succeeds in that. If it were not so, they would not gather supporters from all over the world, regardless of personal material and the overall economic condition of the premises from which they come.

Considering the application of this strategy in the fight against the Islamic state, one question must be asked: "Are the Muslim religious leaders have become 'inert' when it comes to propagating the real value of their own native religion?"¹⁰. Another issue that is important to point out is: "Have religious leaders done everything in their power to make the conflicts that have inter-religious connotation to avoid, or inter-religious animosity to reduce to a minimum?" Strategy of religious reconciliation must be lead by religious leaders backed by the secular authorities through the realization of meetings, joint public appearances aimed to propagation of reconciliation, non-violence and respect for diversity. In addition, all religious leaders must take a clear and unequivocal negative attitude towards the Islamic state and the way it interprets faith. To this way of fighting terrorism and Islamic states to produce results it is essential that civilian authorities fully support the performances of religious leaders and, most importantly, in practice, not to do anything that might degrade the efforts towards reconciliation.

An important part of the implementation of strategy of religious reconciliation should go in the direction of taking active action by Islamic religious leaders for peace between Shi-ite and Sunni learning. This would create one of the preconditions for the establishment of lasting peace in the Middle East, and beyond. And here is an attempt to take action on the broad Muslim masses, and an attempt to remove the causes of hostility between the two major Islamic powers. If they are successful in this, one of the pillars of existence of the Islamic state would begin to collapse. Of course, the question is how much is in the interests of the great powers, forces in the Middle East, Christian and Jewish for Islam to unite.

Contemporary security threats, including terrorism, express actions in different way. The modern world relies on information and knowledge. The globalization has made the world a faster, more accessible and better known. The universal openness of the global information sphere offers great opportunities for terrorist organizations to operate. One of the main characteristics of terrorism is the communication, which means performing different impacts on the environment, principally on international public opinion¹¹.

The use of information technology and access to global to social networks and the Internet provides an opportunity for the Islamic state and the other terrorist organizations with exceptional performance in the field of psychological propaganda. Regardless of its current strength and support of like-minded, the Islamic state as well as any other terrorist organization, can hardly survive without communication, media and public attention. Based on it is necessary to design and implement a set of measures and activities aimed to *media isolation* of the Islamic state.

10 One of the identified terrorist in the attacks in Paris 13th November 2015 was Omar Ismail Mostefai, French citizen. He went orderly to Mosque. www.net.hr, текст "Напади у Паризу, идентификован први нападач, истрага се шири", published 15.11.2015., last visited 5.12.2015. године.

11 М. Талијан, Тероризам и антитерористичке снаге, Генералштаб Војске Србије и Црне Горе, Београд, 2004., page 34.

Strategy of media isolation is necessary to apply on the local, regional and global level, with various measures and activities. The goal of implementing this strategy of the unarmed opposition to Islamic state is to bring this organization into a complete information and media blackout. To do this it is necessary to create at all levels a normative legal framework, well-structure of power and resources that will carry the implementation of the strategy and precisely define the goals of action. In defining this strategy, it is necessary to take account of the systematic use of defined measures. Otherwise, the results will be absent, and the funds were spent in vain.

In order to achieve the desired results when it comes to the media isolation of the Islamic state it is necessary to use different forms of unarmed action. These forms may include: collecting intelligence information on how to access and media used by the Islamic state, hiring experts in the field of information technology¹² for the attacks and the overthrow of the Islamic state websites, the use of power electronic jamming and electronic attack, the involvement of experts in the fields of information and psychological operations to create media appearances and propaganda against the Islamic state and similar. Here it should be noted that the strategy of media isolation in addition to taking a different spectrum unarmed measures, involves taking measures of synchronized armed actions.

The aim of the measures of armed action in the implementation of this strategy is targeting and the destruction of facilities and installations that are used for the media purposes of the Islamic state in Syria and Iraq (command, antenna systems, antenna base, mobile telephony, etc.). It is important to emphasize that the use of armed measure should be used only in cases where the objectives cannot be achieved with using of unarmed forms of action. This could minimize the possible negative effects of the implementation strategy of media isolation of the Islamic state.

What are the problems in implementing the strategy of media isolation of Islamic state? First of all, it is a fact that the Islamic state does not act only in the Middle East, but have potential followers around the world who are able to carry out part of the tasks related to media propaganda. We should not forget that a significant part of the followers of the ideology of the Islamic state has no financial problems and have high level of education, including knowledge in the field of information technology. This knowledge can be applied to achieve the interests of the Islamic state from anywhere in the world. Then, there are the inevitable interests of individual actors which correspond to the existence and functioning of the Islamic state and who will employ their available capacity that will minimize measures of media isolation strategy.

Regardless of these problems, the strategy of media isolation must be an integral part of the general struggle against the Islamic state. Blockade of access to websites of the organization, the physical destruction of the media infrastructure and constant pressure of the competent authorities to all persons who are in any way connected with this organization must bring results. Islamic state “grows” from media popularity. It is becoming stronger with indoctrination followers thanks to which the media is kind of the transmission path. With media isolation will gradually erode one of the main pillars of its power, mass media popularity. At the same time, it will prevent in the long-term prevent action on psychological-propaganda plan. The strategy of media isolation must be an integral part of the overall effort to combat Islamic state.

¹² PR of hacker group Anonymus Alex Poucher claimed: “Our capability to crash Islamic state is the result of our hackers work, data mining experts and spies we have round the world. We have people very close to Islamic state”. www.slobodnaevropa.org, text „Анонимуси оборили 5.500 Твитер налога Исламске државе“, published on 17/11/2015, last accessed on 29/11/2015.

Many security theorists, who study the phenomenon of terrorism, agree in the view that one of the most important elements of the functioning is stable financing of terrorist organizations. The Islamic state, from the original terrorist group has grown into a specific type of quasi-state system on the territory it controls, with its own government and laws. Every terrorist organization in a specific territory, whether recognized or not, requires significant financial resources for their existence.

The Islamic state during its existence has developed numerous illegal financing systems from reselling the oil on the black market, extortion of abducted persons, imposed on various types of taxes in accordance with sharia law and similar. For now, the main sources of funding come from selling oil on the black market. The oil installations located in the territory under its control are employed daily, and the oil is transported through various channels beyond the borders of Syria and Iraq, principally through Kurdistan to Turkey¹³. It is clear that this job Islamic state cannot organize itself. It can have oil, but cannot produce buyers¹⁴. Here we should seek the ability to define one of the possible forms of unarmed action against the Islamic state, or the strategy of cutting funding of Islamic state.

The basic prerequisite for implementing the strategy of cutting financial flows directed towards the Islamic state is redefining the interests of the most important actors at the regional and global scene in the Middle East. We should bear in mind that the smuggling of oil by exploiting Islamic State is "developed" work which brings enormous sums of money. This is actually one of the main reasons why the Islamic state exists. Active intelligence and security capacity is necessary to obtain the data indicating the structures in Turkey and other countries involved in the illegal oil trade. Given the complexity of the whole system, it is not realistic to believe that this can be realized without the tacit consent of the state authorities of the country in which the oil illegally imported. By achievement of political and legal pressure on the entities involved in the illegal purchase of oil from the Islamic state, it is possible to reduce the number of potential buyers. In this way, the oil that has Islamic state becomes worthless commodity, and its cash registers will gradually be emptied¹⁵. In addition, some data suggest a reduction in the volume of oil production from the Islamic state due to damaged infrastructure capacities in air strikes as well as a lack of skilled staff.¹⁶

Another important aspect of implementation of the strategy of cutting funding of Islamic state by preventing illegal oil trade is the fact that this organization will be forced to intensify "financial attack" on the local population in terms of higher taxes and charges. This could have multiple negative impacts on the Islamic state. Firstly, most wealthy population has already left Syria and Iraq taking with them financially capital and material goods. The question is whether the rest of the population can withstand the increasing levies. Secondly, devastated economy in the territories of Syria and Iraq caused lack of investments and a very difficult economic situation. Practically, the Islamic state will, after interrupting the flow of funding from the sale of oil, begin to cut a branch on which sit. It is expected that the local population who remain on this territory will increase the level of dissatisfaction. The moment when dissatisfaction reaches critical mass, Islamic state may face a rebellion of the population that

13 Џон Киријаку, „Борци ИД изградили тајни нафтовод кроз Курдистан до Турске“, www.pravda.net, last accessed on 31/10/2015.

14 www.vestinet.rs, text „Муслиманска банда ИСИС у име Ислама дневно зарађује преко 3 милиона долара“, last accessed on 14/09/2014.

15 "In 8 months Islamic state sold on the black market Iraqi oil to Turkey total worth of 800 million dollars, which is two times below to world prices. That is the oxygen of Islamic state and if we cut it, it will be suffocate", said ex advisor for national security in Iraq Muvagak el Rubay. www.pravda.rs, текст "Исламска држава продала Турској нафту у вредности од 800 милиона долара", published 29.11.2015. last seen 02.12.2015.

16 Daily newspaper Blic, www.blic.rs, текст "Шта би било кад би Исламска држава била стварно држава", published 30.11.2015., last seen 02.12.2015. године.

supported its actions just a moment ago. Comprehensive implementation of the strategy of cutting funding Islamic State includes intensive political activity of the international community aimed at creating conditions which will avoid funding these organizations by wealthy individuals from the Middle East. Namely, if appropriate political agreements can be reached with the governments of the Middle East, it will be possible to affect the interests of wealthy individuals.

Money is sacrosanct need for every terrorist organization, regardless of its ideology, size and power. It has always been one of the main roads which should be taken when it comes to the destruction of terrorism. The strategy of cutting funding of Islamic state must be carried out synchronized with the rest of listed strategies, and if necessary it may include armed activity. Armed action should principally be aimed to the destruction of infrastructure capacity which is used for oil production. It should be applied only in cases where the objectives cannot be achieved with unarmed forms of action to mitigate the widespread destruction. After the destruction of the Islamic state, on the territory will remain the people who will need all potential capacity for rebuilding the economy including oil installations.

Unarmed action against any terrorist organizations, including Islamic states, involves a whole series of measures and procedures carried out by the competent national authorities in order to achieve preventive effects on the population and prevent possible terrorist attacks. Therefore, this strategy can be called the *strategy of preventive action*. Preventive activities conducted by public authorities and other entities are taken over a prolonged period, and must include all layers of society, organizations, collectives and the environment¹⁷.

Strategy of preventive action is necessary to affect the population's awareness of the need to condemn any form of violence and create an aversion to terrorism and activities of the Islamic state. In addition, a significant aspect of this strategy relates to the educational segment in which the implementation of the planned measures. These measures involve training for people and can be applied in their homes, in public places or at the workplace. In many cases, terrorist attacks can be thwarted thanks to proper reaction of the person. It is therefore necessary that the population know the methods of action of terrorists, to be aware and informed of all the details of derivative terrorist attacks in order to understand and properly react well. Understanding the importance of proper and on time response in case of any kind of threat, whether it is its own opposition to terrorists or to alarm the security services is crucial to countering attacks and mitigating the consequences of a terrorist attack.

The strategy of preventive action must include measures and procedures which are normatively and legally regulated issues of fighting terrorism. It should include physical security of key facilities and infrastructure of state institutions, control of passengers in public transport, customs regime, migration policy and similar. When defining measures of strategy of preventive action against the Islamic state, it is necessary to get out of "template" way of thinking. The bottom line is the constant analysis of previous terrorist attacks and thinking from the terrorist angle. Adopted conclusions of the possible scenarios could be helpful in defining the appropriate measures.

Members of Al-Qaeda in 2001 surprised the entire world with an extraordinary ability to bypass all security measures during the organization and execution of the attack by hijacked planes on the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. The attacks in which the terrorists were re-applying new methods of operation and the surprise factor keep repeating. The series of terrorist attacks during 2015 only confirms the necessity for the comprehensive preventive measures in the fight against the terrorists of the Islamic state, both nationally and internationally. Only the coordinated work of the competent services in combination with trained

17 M. Talijan, Terorizam i antiterorističke snage, Generalштаб Војске Србије и Црне Горе, Београд, 2004., page 35.

and skilled population can yield positive results in the fight against the Islamic state. If the problem is not tackled in this way, the world will in the future be faced with more different “surprises” that will organize by the members of the Islamic state.

The modern age has brought significant changes in the understanding of the factors influencing the preparation, planning and execution of any human activity. The age of technology and knowledge expel the information to the group of factors which is crucial for success of any operation¹⁸. One of the basic characteristics of terrorism is maximum secrecy¹⁹. That is why it is important to gathered intelligence on the terrorist organization on time. A key role in the implementation of measures and activities aimed at collecting and processing intelligence on terrorist organizations is the intelligence and security services. The results of their work on a daily basis are to complete the picture, revealing the necessary information that will be used in the fight against the terrorist organization. The importance of information naturally raises the need to define another possible strategy against the Islamic state, and this is the strategy of infiltration.

There are many methods of intelligence and security services, but the importance of “intelligence” and “security staff” who are directly inserted into the ranks of the Islamic State is priceless. Supporters from all over the world join on a daily base to Islamic state. This fact may be one of its greatest weaknesses, and successful way for the infiltration of a large number of intelligence and security services in its ranks²⁰. Another way of intelligence penetration into the ranks of the Islamic state must be the recruitment of its members to help ensure the required number of “associates” to gather the necessary intelligence information. The strategy of infiltration entails extremely complex preparations that need to be taken to pieces because each member of the service who might be discovered is a dead man. In preparation for the infiltration, it is necessary to choose the people with a Middle Eastern background who are fluent in Arabic and who possess knowledge in the intelligence and security terms. In this way, the possibility of the occurrence of any errors, omissions or unwanted actions that may lead to the disclosure of insiders is reducing.

The strategy of infiltration among members of Islamic state is to gain information about their plans and possible targets. It presents unarmed way of the fight against this terrorist organization.

CONCLUSION

The Islamic state is currently the biggest threat to global security. In a very short period of time it has grown into a powerful terrorist organization with certain elements that are reminiscent of some kind of state system in the progress. An ideology that is based on the teachings of Islam official attracts a large number of supporters worldwide. The essence of this ideology is the creation of a single state, the caliphate, established by the strict Sharia rules. Their goals are projected not only to the region of the Middle East but also in the territories inhabited predominantly with Muslim population in Europe, Asia and Africa. It contributed

18 Factor of operations are: goal, forces, space, time and information. Source: Doctrine of operations, Headquarters Serbian Army, 2012, page 43.

19 М. Мијалковски, Тероризам и противтерористичка борба, Генералштаб Војске Србије и Црне Горе, Београд, 2003., page 11.

20 The importance of infiltration of the intelligence and security services can be seen from following: “Security services of the states followed with confirmed fact that ‘man of the service’ in human collectivity (...) who secretly and insidiously threatens security of vital state values present the most efficient way to collect information”. Source: М. Мијалковски, Обавештајне и безбедносне службе, Службени гласник, Београд, 2009., page 162.

significantly to the initiation of the largest migrations of population in recent history. The series of terrorist attacks in France, Turkey, Tunisia and other countries in 2015, for which the Islamic State claimed responsibility, indicates its ability to act far beyond the borders of the Middle East region.

The current struggle against the Islamic state has yielded satisfactory results. A key reason for this situation is the political tactics of big and regional powers for fulfilling their own aims by utilization of the Islamic state and at the same time preventing the interests of the opposing party or parties. Key stakeholders whose interests must coincide when it comes to the destruction of the Islamic countries are the United States and the Russian Federation. The moment when these two forces estimate that the existence of the Islamic state seriously threaten the common interests in the Middle East, it will be the beginning of the end of this terrorist organization. In addition, it will create a base for successfully undertaking any strategy against the Islamic state regardless of whether the basis is unarmed or armed activity.

Successful confrontation to the Islamic state and its destruction is certainly possible. Given its power and the level of security threats, the fight against the Islamic state should be based on an international approach while fully respecting the interests of the Middle East region. The desired results can be issued only by the application of a unified strategy that will be the result of an optimal combination of some of the strategies outlined in this paper.

Each of the possible strategies to combat terrorism and Islamic state in general that is covered in this paper has its positive and negative sides. None of them can or must be observed unilaterally, isolated and superficial. The work practically, in a modest way, gives only indications of possible strategy against the Islamic state. Military action can bring down the terrorist infrastructure, inflict losses in manpower and technology, to liquidate the leaders, but the key question is what to do next and how to prevent the erection of new terrorists or terrorist groups.

Every terrorist organization is vulnerable regardless of its power and capabilities. None of them, not even the Islamic state, can oppose a comprehensive strategy led by world powers United States and the Russian Federation. By applying this approach, this organization will slowly but surely go to the dustbin of history. Otherwise, there is a possibility to continue its development, and a threat to global security increased to unprecedented proportions.

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THE EFFECT OF ULTRASOUND ON HUMANS

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Abstract: In the work is discussed the ultrasound that affects changes in the human body, such as nausea, vomiting, confusion and loss of coordination, with the aim of neutralizing the combatants as a conventional weapon. Depending on the intensity ultrasound can exert thermal, mechanical cavitation or adverse effects on the body. Calculation of attenuation of ultrasound in the interaction between the material and environment is given. Conclusions are drawn about the possible application of ultrasound as a non-lethal long-range weapon.

Keywords: ultrasound, thermal effects, cavitation effects, mechanical effects, interaction of ultrasound with the organs and tissues humans.

INTRODUCTION

Ultrasound is the sound with a frequency higher than 20,000 Hz, which human ear cannot hear. The sound is defined by frequency in the area from 20 Hz to 20 kHz, and at an intensity of 1 pW/m² to 10 W/m². The first application of ultrasound in medicine was recorded in 1937, but their true implementation started in 1945. The first applications of ultrasound are related to the so-called *A mod* within which the image reflected wave at the cathode oscilloscope in relation to the initial wave. The reflected wave is seen as peak on the screen. Distance peaks on the screen indicates a spatial shift of between the surfaces of the source and the object of whom is reflected ultrasonic wave. At the same time the amplitude of the reflected wave depends on the density differences through the environment that stretches ultrasound and the density of the object of whom is reflected. Considering that part of the ultrasound passes through the surface, you can see different objects on the screen in the way of radiation.

For the upper limit frequency of ultrasound in medicine values up to 1 GHz are considered, but in medicine ultrasound up to 18 MHz values is applied. The intensity of ultrasound in medicine is different depending on whether it is used as a diagnostic (10 to 40 W/m²) or as a therapeutic (higher than 1000 W/m²). The feature of ultrasound is that, on hitting the surface of the other characteristics of the refuse-reflecting, it is utilized for determining the distance of the new area of the environment (facility) and determining the shape and characteristics of the object on which the ultrasonic beam is directed. At a higher intensity of ultrasound, there are changes in the human body, which physically paralyze it, however, such an ultrasonic fact can be treated as non-lethal weapon. It is known that some maritime countries, with the effect of ultrasound neutralize attacks by Somali pirates. The rest of this work will show which intensity of ultrasound can be achieved if applicable for the police and army as well as non-lethal long-range weapon. It has already been noted that the sound which produced ultra sound weapon cannot be heard by ear, but at humans causes a major change such as nausea, vomiting, confusion and loss of coordination. For the purposes of police and military it can be used to protect important facilities or possibly for breaking demonstrations, deblocking objects, and the disarming terrorists and criminals.

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INTERACTION OF ULTRASOUND WITH MATERIAL ENVIRONMENT

On border areas of different homogeneous environments occurs reflection of one part of the signal, part of the signal passes (transmission). In the not homogenous environment scattering of energy is dominant.

The intensity of the wave while passing through a homogeneous environment weakens. The weakening of the substances is determined by the exponential law.

$$I_0 = \frac{1}{2} \rho v A^2 \omega^2, \quad I_d = I_0 \cdot e^{-2\alpha h} \quad (1)$$

Where: I_0 - is the intensity at the entrance of the substance,

I_d - Intensity of the substance within the depth h ,

ρ - specific material density in [kg/m³]

v - propagation speed in a given environment in [m/s]

A - the peak amplitude of the wave,

ω - circular frequency,

h - depth of penetration in [m], and

α - weakening in [dB/mm].

Weakening coefficient depends directly on the frequency and can be represented by the expression $\alpha = f^\beta$, and the β is a number higher than one which depends on the substance. The data taken over from „Fizika ljudskog organizma“², for the several characteristic substances of the human organism we will display in table 1.

Multiplication $\rho \cdot v$ is defined in the literature as an acoustic resistance, (characteristic acoustic impedance) and is marked as Z_c , and it depends

on ultrasonic velocity and density of the environment. Some of the energy that would be reflected, depends directly on the relationship impedance of the environments and is determined by the equation:

$$R[\%] = \left(\frac{z_2 - z_1}{z_2 + z_1} \right)^2 \cdot 100 \quad (2)$$

and the rest of the energy can be considered that is transmitted through the environments.

Table 1: *Characteristics of some substances*

Substance	ρ (kg/m ³)	v (m/s)	$\rho \cdot v$ (kg/m ² ·s)	α (dB/MHz·mm) za $f=1$ MHz
Air	1,29	331	4,30x10 ²	0,12
Water	1,00x10 ³	1480	1,48 x 10 ⁶	0,0002
Blood	1,02 x 10 ³	1560	1,60 x 10 ⁶	0,02
Urine	1,02 x 10 ³	1535	1,57 x 10 ⁶	0,00025
Fat tissue	0,92 x 10 ³	1450	1,33 x 10 ⁶	0,03

² Stanković, S. (2006): „Fizika ljudskog organizma“, Prirodno-matematički fakultet-Departman za fiziku, Novi Sad.

Muscle tissue	$1,04 \times 10^3$	1580	$1,64 \times 10^6$	0,07
Liver	$1,06 \times 10^3$	1560	$1,65 \times 10^6$	0,06
Kidneys	$1,04 \times 10^3$	1555	$1,61 \times 10^6$	0,05
Brain	$1,03 \times 10^3$	1520	$1,56 \times 10^6$	0,05
Bones	$1,77 \times 10^3$	3360	$6,00 \times 10^6$	30-100

In comparison, while crossing of the ultrasound from the air into the muscle, the amplitude and intensity of the reflected wave will be 99.9%, and just 0.1% of amplitude and intensity passes transmitted wave. When crossing from the water into the muscle the situation is quite different;³ the amplitude and intensity of the reflected wave is up to 5%, and the transmitted wave of about 95%.

An important feature in the application of ultrasound is a half wave layer, which is defined as the depth to which ultrasound passes, while at the same intensity falls to half the initial value.

Halfwave layer depends on frequency and tissue characteristics. In table 2, values of half-way layer are stated in various tissues of the human body.

Table 2: *Thickness of the half wave layer in different tissues*

Substance	f[MHz]	A half-wave layer [m]
Blood	1	0.35
Fat tissue	0.8	0.033
Muscle tissue	0.8	0.021
Bones	0.8	0.0023

Most used in medical diagnostics is reflection (echo) technique. Echo returns to the probe with delay which corresponds to the depth of reflective surfaces. Attenuation (weakening) of the beam in biological tissues depends on the frequency used. Proportionally higher frequency is used for the examination of small structures.

Organs and tissues that are closer to the surface of the body, (muscles, tendons, and breast) can be displayed using echo of ultrasound on frequencies from 7 to 18 MHz. Organs and tissues that are deeper in the body, are displayed using ultrasound at lower frequencies of 1 to 6 MHz. The fact that the passing depth decreases with increasing frequency, should be used in the application of ultrasound as a weapon. Using the lower frequencies to observe the area in the depths of the body, we consciously spoil the sharpness or image resolution. Resolution in the observation depends on the wavelength, whereby the smallest distance is comparable to a quarter of a wavelength. Ultrasound mostly used for therapy is the one at frequencies from 800 kHz to 3.5 MHz, with a power density of 0.2 to 3 W/cm², and the ultrasonic transducer has an active surface of S=5 cm².

³ Todorović, B.(2005): „Naučne osnove homeoterapije“ Prometej, Novi Sad.

HARMFUL INFLUENCE OF ULTRASOUND ON ORGANISM

If the intensity of ultrasound, meaning its strength, is high, it can have several harmful effects on the body:

- thermal effect,
- cavitation effect and
- mechanical action.

Since ultrasound in medicine is used mostly in low-power, it is considered that regulations doses do not cause tissue damage, i.e. adverse effects of ultrasound used in medicine has not been proven.

THERMAL EFFECT

This effect is especially pronounced in medicine for therapeutic applications. The therapeutic application of ultrasound heated or a mechanical acting on the tissue or other substances in the body. The human body consists of tissue and organs which are a combination of fluids, gases and solids. However, ultrasound energy that is given to the body in therapy is much higher compared to the power which is introduced into the body in diagnostic procedures. In therapeutic applications of ultrasound, as treatment of pain or muscle therapy, heat effect is essential. *Focused Ultrasound Surgery and High Focused Ultrasound Surgery* are used for the treatment of cysts and tumors. Frequency of sound in these applications is 250 kHz to 2 MHz, and the intensity of 10 W/cm² and more.

The effects of electromagnetic fields (EM) on the human body depend on their intensity and frequency. Due to perceiving the influence of frequency, the operation is considered by two frequency bands, namely:

- to 30 kHz, low frequency field,
- from 30kHz to 300 GHz high-frequency field.

Low frequency fields cause effects on the surface, such as irritation of the senses, lift of the hair on the head, disorder of the work of a pacemaker, hearing aid and other metal implants in the body, and the effect is proportional to the strength of the field. The weaker fields the human body can compensate but fields of higher intensity can lead to irreversible damage to health.

High frequency fields have especially harmful effects on the human body because this energy sprays, reflects or is **absorbed** by the body depending on the severity and frequency fields, of the dimensions the body, body position and electrical properties of the tissue. The most prominent effect of this field is **warming**, either locally or all over the body. In this frequency band is work of microwave ovens, some appliances in medicine for physical therapy etc.

Since heating is generated in the interior of the body, but feels through the skin, this heat is not observed or this observation comes too late. If the body is not able to release this heat, with the speed at which it is produced, body temperature will increase, which leads to tissue damage. If the increase in temperature is **large and long-lasting**, even death may occur. Considering that mainly over-temperature internal organs are released through the blood stream, most susceptible to thermal damage are eye lenses and sexual organs. The effect on the testes in men is particularly expressed. The operation is observed on the central nervous system in the shape of *nervousness, dizziness, blurred eye lens, increased fating, pains in the head, loss of concentration, insomnia, irritability* etc.

For workers occupationally exposed to the functioning of the electromagnetic field (EM) a limit of permitted radiation expressed through **SAR (Specific absorption rate)** is set.

The size expresses the power of radiation converted into heat in the function of body mass.

$$SAR = \frac{\sigma}{\rho} E^2 [W / kg] \quad (3)$$

where:

σ - presents conductivity of tissue exposed to radiation in the [S/m]

ρ - the specific mass of tissue in [kg/m³]

E - the electric field in [V/m]

Experimental studies have shown that in humans at rest, with radiation of about 30 minutes, if the value of SAR of whole body is from 1 to 4 W/kg, there is an increase tissue temperature which does not exceed 1°C. **Exposure to radiation greater than 4 W/kg can increase the tissue temperature that gives deleterious effects, because termoregulatory mechanisms cannot cope with the resulting thermal load [1].**

On the man who is 1.80 m high, with the average weight of 80 kg, and the reflective surface of about 0.2 m², the field strength greater than 0.15 W/cm² will cause an increase in temperature to harmful consequences.

In relation to the above value for limit for occupational exposure RF (Radio-frequency) radiation to the whole body is taken protection factor of 10, while for the general population is taken an additional protection factor of 5 with respect to occupational exposure, that amounts 0.08 W/kg⁵.

According to the US standard exposure to power density of 10 μ W/cm² (6.2 V/m) does not represent an additional heat load, and the organism in such conditions is capable, without any special effort, to maintain a thermal balance⁶. Due to better observation of these values we note that radiant intensity of celestial bodies (eg, the sun, stars) is 14 pW/cm², and of human body 0.5 μ W/cm².

Considering the fact that there are commercially instruments for measuring radiation power density in mW/cm² (Narda) as well as instruments to measure the electric field in V/m (Anritsu), that is for the conversion of one size to another using the expression:

$$P = \frac{E^2}{120 \cdot \pi} [W/m^2] ,$$

respectively

$$E = \sqrt{P \cdot 120\pi} [V/m]. \quad (4)$$

CAVITATION EFFECT

Cavitation effect is manifested through the formation of bubbles or vacuum in the liquid (blood) which is a vortex moving especially in existing cavities of human body- in the head, in the chest and abdominal cavity. In particular resonant frequency formed bubbles pop, which can lead to damage of living cells and its withering away.

4 Razingar, A.(1979): „Protivelektronska dejstva“, Vojnoizdavački zavod Beograd.

5 JUS N. NO.205.(1990): „Radio-frekvencijsko zračenje“ Radio-komunikacije, Maksimalni nivoi izlaganja koji se odnose na ljude, Beograd.

6 Rakar-Andrić, M.(1992): „Radio-talasno i mikrotalasno zračenje u radnoj Sredini i zaštita ljudstva“, Vojnotehnički institut, NTP br. 6/92, Beograd.

Electromagnetic wave of order kHz frequency, relatively well passes through the water, earth and other material structure, and can be suitable to for connection to underwater objects. Spreading of ultrasonic waves through some material at a depth h can be described by the relation [5]:

$$E(h) = E(0) \exp\left(-\frac{h}{\delta}\right), \quad (5)$$

where: - E is electromagnetic field strength at a depth h ,

$E(0)$ - field strength at the entrance to material, and

δ - weakening coefficient defined as:

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega\mu\sigma}} \quad (6)$$

where: ω - is the circular frequency in $[rad/Hz]$,

μ - permeability in $[H/m]$, and

σ - conductivity of material or substances

For illustration of conductivity of salt (sea) water is taken data $\sigma = 5 [S/m]$, while for the conductivity of distilled water is taken data of the $\sigma = 0.2 [mS/m]$. The magnetic permeability of substances is equal to the multiplication of relative magnetic permeability μ_r and the permeability of free space (vacuum) $\mu_0 = 4 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-7} = 1,257 \cdot 10^{-6} [H/m]$. Most often it is considered that the relative value of μ_r is approximately equal to the number of all materials, except ferromagnetic material. If we assume that most of the substances through which the ultrasonic wave spreads is **blood** and we take that its conductivity is at $f = 1$ MHz, $\sigma = 1.002 [S/m]$, we can graphically determine the half-wave layer for close frequency, as shown in Figure 1.

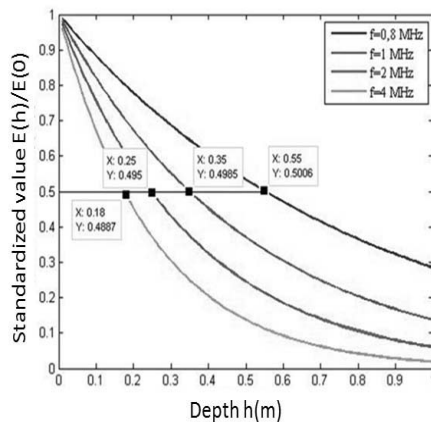


Figure 1: Standardized diagram of the field strength depending on the depth of passing an ultrasonic wave through the blood, at a certain frequency

From the equation above we can see that dissemination of electromagnetic energy depends on the frequency band, the characteristics of the radiation transmitting probe and the

environment through which it spreads. In moving through some environment wave is exposed to different effects but with ultrasound *absorption* and *reflection* certainly dominated. Absorption causes weakening of intensity of ultrasound because of the interactions between the electromagnetic field and material, whereby the electromagnetic energy is transformed into other forms of energy- usually heat (thermal energy). Reflection of the wave occurs on the border between the two portable environments with different electrodynamic properties.

Besides reflection inevitably comes the refraction of waves, but under certain conditions reflection prevails, which is certainly utilized in medicine. It should be noted that weakening increases significantly with increasing frequency.

MECHANICAL EFFECT

If the energy oscillations caused by ultrasound generates forces that are greater than the adhesive or cohesive forces, there will be a separation of the two substances or decomposition of one substance on the smaller elements. From these sentences we see that the size of effect directly depends on energy received by ultrasonic waves. Depending on the strength of radiation, medical devices which can cause different effects are made, of which the most important is breaking the stone created in one organ, the most common kidney. These devices generate ultrasound of high energy, which is focused on and directs an impulse to a place where there is a stone. Focus of the ultrasonic beam is required in the peripheral part stone that would not lead to an explosion of stone, but only his peripheral grinding. Most of energy works on stone, because of vibratory operation of crushing the stone it converts it into pieces, sand, which is eliminated with the urination. **Power density of ultrasonic waves is up to 50 W/cm².**

During the ultrasonic radiation sufficient power at resonant frequencies of the double helix of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) unravels and even tears - as it happens during strong heating these molecules. During such mechanical damages Electromagnetic waves are formed creating new resonant cavity able to destroy other DNA, similarly in fact as high temperature. For the formation of new resonant cavity the presence of water in which the DNA molecule swims is crucial. Under the influence of ultrasound generators groups of several molecules of water can be formed - they become small generators of acoustic vibrations that from all sides continuously tapp and damage DNA. Ultrasound causes not only mechanical damage, but also distortion of the structure of DNA. **It is known that certain animals use ultrasound as a weapon: dolphins with it jamming fish, whales stun squids etc.**

THE GENERAL CALCULATION FOR SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF ULTRASOUND AS ON-LETHAL WEAPON

Because of calculus we shall adopt some initial value, according to these data used in medicine. Let the frequency of the ultrasound be 1 MHz, with the radiation power density of 3 W/cm² which acts on the human body. If this data is included in the expression (2) we find that necessary electric field strength at the entrance into the human body is $E(0) = 3350$ V/m. It is evident that the density power of radiation predicted for the therapy of 0,2 W/cm², $E(0) = 868$ V/m, will begin to act on the human body at a distance which is about 4 times higher, from a distance for the highest therapy, of 3 W/cm². For the power density of radiation of 0,15 W/cm², $E(0) = 752$ V/m, operation of increasing temperature in a human body will

begin, which will be manifested to about 5 times greater distance, in relationship with the adopted maximum for the therapeutic value of the radiation power of 3 W/cm^2 .

In the upper part of the range in the range of low and medium frequency the following formula for the strength of the electric field is valid:

$$E = \frac{300\sqrt{G \cdot P}}{D} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha D}{\lambda}\right), \quad [mV/m], \quad (7)$$

Where: D – is distance in km,

G – winnings of radiating element,

P - radiation power in kW,

α - weakening coefficient, and

λ - wave length in km.

Second factor, $\exp\left(-\frac{\alpha D}{\lambda}\right)$ expresses the weakening incurred by an electromagnetic wave traveling along the surface of the earth. The value of this factor depends on the wavelength, and electrical characteristics of the soil, that can express the weakening coefficient α . If the radiating element is on the vehicle or on the boat, above the surface with high conductivity (Eg, sea water) this factor can be ignored. If we accept that the power of the transmitter is $P = 100 \text{ kW}$, and gain in the desired direction, $G = 40 \text{ dB}$, we can determine graphically the distance for the initial strength of the electric field at the entrance into the human body, as shown in Figure 2. The desired winnings according to [8] can achieve greater roundabout or line group radiating elements (probes). It is obvious that the system, because of the great power and radiating elements must be in the transport variants, i.e. mounted on a vehicle or boat.

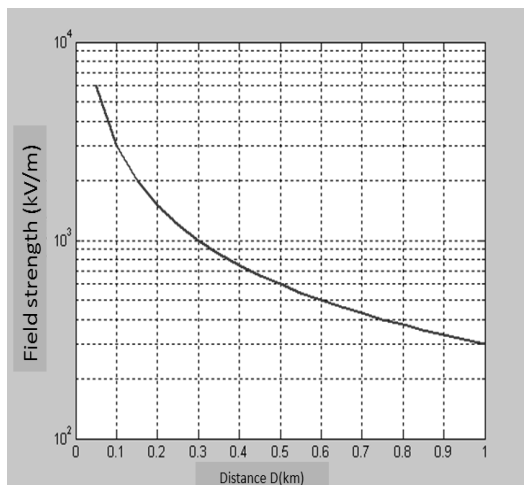


Figure 2: *Dependence of the electric field of distance from the source*

Due to the large weakening of ultrasound through the air, like a friendly power source, if the ultrasonic weapon is used in close combat, for example for police needs, source should operate at the lowest possible ultrasonic frequency. If you make calculus for the above mentioned purpose, and it is adopted that ultrasound of active surface of $S=5 \text{ cm}^2$ effects the man, and the lowest frequency of ultrasound is 20 kHz , with the power density of $0,15 \text{ W/cm}^2$, which will increase the body temperature, at a distance of 10 m , sought source of power is 188

W. As the power of source determines required battery capacity, therefore its dimensions and weight, this will be a limiting factor in the construction of the ultrasonic source in the form of a pistol. To calculate the power of 188 W, source voltage of 24 V should give a current of 7.8 A. If we accept that in the short time period it can empty with a fifth of its capacity, then it requires a battery of about 40 Ah.

At a distance of 2 m, sufficient to ward off the cold weapons, attacker, according to the above conditions, was affected by power density specified for maximum the power of radiation in the strongest therapy, which could cause loss of coordination and uncontrolled fall. Because of the possible abuse, ultrasonic gun is not commercially available, or was introduced as a tool for official use of the police and the military.

CONCLUSION

For a man affected by ultrasonic wave of sufficient intensity at a distance from radiation source, **termal effect** will initially be manifested. It is understood that on the desired distance there are natural and artificial obstacles, that would significantly reduce this fact. **Cavitation and mechanical effects** would be manifested on the man at shorter distances from the source. The power of the ultrasound source, as well as the orientation of the ultrasound beam, can be adjusted, if necessary, so that the bundle could affect an armed individual, or a group of terrorists, and protesters in urban places, squares or stadiums. With this work it is shown that the application of ultrasound, as a non-lethal weapon of long range is justified, because it can act on the body of man attacker, in a completely safe distance for the user of such weapons. The operation of ultrasound will certainly be manifested, if there are conditions for a person to be affected by an ultrasound wave of certain intensity. Due to the fact that the attenuation of ultrasound propagation through the air is huge, radiation sources of higher power must be used, which certainly affects their size and weight. It is preferred that, in addition to effects with ultrasound, attacker warns also with strong sound in audible area, as a deterrent from the desired intent.

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THE EUROPEAN UNION COUNTER-TERRORISM POLICY AFTER THE TERRORIST ATTACKS IN PARIS

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Abstract: The terrorist attacks in Paris on January 7 and November 13, 2015 triggered significant changes in EU counter-terrorism policy. They have become an impetus for rethinking EU's counter-terrorist activities. However, the initiatives to that regard can be questionable with regard to their lawfulness and legitimacy. They promote the use of large scale surveillance and monitoring of all travellers, regardless whether they are EU or non-EU citizens. This is in contravention of the Schengen, Union citizenship and the free movement of persons. Also, the urgency of adoption of such wide-scale measures without major scrutiny of the European Parliament and/or Court of Justice undermines the rule of law in the Union. Furthermore, the death of over 130 persons as a result of the terrorist attacks on November 13 even more Europeanized this policy and the EU war on terror, since for the first time mutual assistance clause of Art.42.7 of the Lisbon Treaty was invoked. Evidently, this opens the door for more flexible responses of EU Member States to terrorist threats both inside and outside of the EU as well as for invoking other clauses for taking longer-term actions, for instance against ISIS. Consequently, they are overcoming the obstacles for such cooperation posed by the requirement for unanimity in the framework of the Common Security and Defence Policy. This article will examine these new developments and assess their future implications.

Keywords: European Union, terrorism attacks, responses.

INTRODUCTION

The EU counter-terrorism policy evolved radically after the advent of the terrorist attacks on Washington and New York in 2001, and particularly after the terrorist attacks in Madrid (2004) and London (2005). These included legislative, institutional and operational measures. Still, the fierce terrorist attacks in Paris on January 7, 2015 and particularly that of November 13 showed that EU counter-terrorism policies fall behind those who counter and need to be streamlined. Namely, although EU counter-terrorism policies have developed rapidly since 2001, the attacks in Paris show that some loopholes like the illegal sales of firearms, information exchange and border controls remain yet to be addressed. These attacks triggered major institutional reaction in EU and vast array of adopted or to be adopted legislative and non-legislative measures. This paper will address these issues, aiming to give overview of the most recent developments and assessment whether the strengthened control and data collection can be done without significant impact on the rule of law and endangerment of the fundamental rights and freedoms of EU citizens.

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THE FOLLOW-UP OF THE TERRORIST ATTACKS IN PARIS

On January 7, 2015, when the ferocious terrorist attack was carried out in Paris, 12 persons were killed in the premises of the French newspaper Charlie Hebdo. This attack showed that it is very difficult to influence and track lone terrorist, particularly if they obtained training by some terrorist organization or a state sponsoring terrorism and they receive their orders by such entities or states (like from Yemen in this case).²

The EU Counter-Terrorism Coordinator on January 17, 2015 proposed immediate action in the following areas: 1. prevention of radicalization 2. border controls 3. information sharing 4. judicial response and 5. firearms.³

The EU Interior Ministers held a meeting on 29 January 2015 in Riga, where they reiterated *inter alia* that the “terrorism, radicalisation, recruitment and financing related to terrorism are main common threats to internal security of the EU”.⁴ That’s why, an “European agenda on Security is needed to address the threats to internal security of the EU for the next years”.⁵ The ministers concluded that it is of utmost importance to address the “underlying factors of radicalization”. It is important to promote a culture of inclusion and tolerance through education, social and regional policies. The process of adoption of the directive of EU PNR should be stepped up.

There is a need for “swift and enhanced exchange of information and best practices between Member States and all justice and home affairs agencies, in particular Europol and Eurojust”. Also, amendments to the Schengen Borders Code are needed in order to proceed with systematic checks on persons enjoying the right to free movement against the databases relevant to the fight against terrorism. Another point was the curbing the illegal trafficking of firearms. Steps should be taken to deactivate firearms, reinforce their traceability, information sharing and curbing firearms trafficking on the Internet. Cooperation on information-sharing on traceability of financial flows and the ability to freeze assets are crucial when combating terrorism should be improved and upgraded. Regarding the judicial aspects on the fight against terrorism, it is essential to harness the full potential of the existing instruments and to prevent and counter propaganda and radicalization in prisons.

In this line, the European Commission adopted measures in order to improve the functioning of the SIS II, so the system now will help the Member States to invalidate personal identification documents of persons who represent risk of joining foreign terrorist formations outside the European Union. These included the formulation of common risk indicators and criteria for such persons and adequate alerts that would be put in the Schengen Information System (SIS).⁶ The Commission is reviewing the application of the current legislation on the firearms and assessing the need for future legislative or non-legislative action. Also, greater exchange of information on firearms between Member States and with Europol, Eurojust and Interpol is needed.⁷ On the other hand, the Commissioner for Justice, Consumers and Gender Equality Věra Jourová stressed the need to accelerate the negotiation of the proposed

2 Chavleski, A., Markoski, A., “Developments in the counter-terrorism law of the European Union and of Republic of Macedonia”, Archibald Reiss Conference 2015, *Thematic Conference Proceedings of International Significance*, p.71.

3 Council of the European Union, General Secretariat, Brussels, EU CTC input for the preparation of the informal meeting of Justice and Home Affairs Ministers in Riga on 29 January 2015, 17 January 2015.

4 RIGA JOINT STATEMENT following the informal meeting of Justice and Home Affairs Ministers in Riga on 29 and 30 January, Retrieved from: [https:// eu2015.lv/images/Kalendars/IeM/2015_01_29_jointstatement_JHA.pdf](https://eu2015.lv/images/Kalendars/IeM/2015_01_29_jointstatement_JHA.pdf)https://eu2015.lv/images/Kalendars/IeM/2015_01_29_jointstatement_JHA.pdf.

5 *Ibid.*

6 http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_SPEECH-15-3900_en.htm (accessed 20 January 2016).

7 *Ibid.*

“data protection police” Directive (COM(2012)10).⁸ Other measures include: prevention and combat anti-Semitic hatred as well as anti-Muslim sentiments; effective use of EU level cooperation between all law-enforcement actors; prevention of radicalisation, especially the radicalisation in detention facilities and swift implementation of the Anti-Money Laundering Directive so the terrorist financing could be curbed more effectively.⁹ The abovementioned priorities were approved (with slight amendments), by the EU Heads of State or Government on February 12, 2015. The response of EU to the terrorist attacks lies on three pillars: 1. ensuring the security of citizens 2. preventing radicalization and safeguarding values, 3. cooperation with international partners.¹⁰

These goals were also confirmed by the European Agenda on Security for the period 2015–2020 to support Member States’ cooperation in tackling security threats and step up the common efforts in the fight against terrorism, organised crime and cybercrime, which was adopted in April 2015. Under the Agenda, *inter alia* the following key actions would be undertaken: 1. countering radicalisation, 2. updating the Framework Decision on Terrorism, 3. cutting the financing of criminals, 4. enhancing dialogues with the IT industry and 5. strengthening the legal framework on firearms.¹¹ Moreover, “Member States bear responsibility for the entire Union when they control their part of the external borders. This is why common risk indicators should support the work of national border authorities when conducting checks on persons.”¹²

This approach in prevention of radicalization via social networks is justified since Europol noted that:

Terrorist groups have continued to adapt their approaches to communication, exploiting new methods for interaction and networking on the Internet. Enhanced interconnectivity, in particular through the emergence and increased functionality of social media platforms, has offered new opportunities for terrorist groups to target specific audiences that are vulnerable to their messages, thereby facilitating recruitment and self-radicalisation. At the same time, terrorist groups have devised strategies to counter efforts to suspend their accounts or discredit their messages on social media platforms.¹³

However, these policy responses pose serious concerns at least on two points: 1. freedom of movement, Schengen and European citizenship, and 2. a challenge to the rule of law in EU.¹⁴

The weak and more or less chaotic response of EU to the influx of migrants in the second half of 2015 was already foreseen in April 2015, when a small group of officials and diplomats in Brussels simulated an influx of refugees and migrants to the EU through Turkey and the Balkans. This simulation showed that although the EU institutions possess a significant know-how useful in such an eventuality, together this did not amount to an early-warning system. An adequate system of early warning would require deeper coordination – EEAS

8 Speech of Commissioner Jourova: Informal JHA council in Riga, Riga, 30 January 2015 http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_SPEECH-15-3965_en.htm (accessed 20 January 2016).

9 *Ibid.*

10 Informal meeting of the Heads of State or Government Brussels, 12 February 2015 - Statement by the members of the European Council, retrieved from: <http://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/press/press-releases/2015/02/150212-european-council-statement-fight-against-terrorism/> (21/01/2016).

11 Commission takes steps to strengthen EU cooperation in the fight against terrorism, organised crime and cybercrime, Strasbourg, 28 April 2015, http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-15-4865_en.htm.

12 European Commission, Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, Strasbourg, 28.4.2015 COM(2015) 185 final http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/e-library/documents/basicdocuments/docs/eu_agenda_on_security_en.pdf (accessed 21/01/2016)

13 Europol, European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report (TE-SAT) 2015, p. 12.

14 Bigo, D. et al., “The EU Counter-Terrorism Policy Responses to the Attacks in Paris: Towards an EU Security and Liberty Agenda”, *CEPS Paper in Liberty and Security in Europe*, No.81, February 2015, p. 2.

and its missions from potential migrant states routinely to transfer information to Frontex about countries of origin; information to be provided by Frontex to INTCEN and to Europol about migrants' insights into smuggling networks; and for EASO officials to tally Frontex's data about how migrants are entering the EU against their own information on where asylum applications are being lodged.¹⁵

Another policy response to tackle migration flows and people smuggling via Mediterranean route (and possibly terrorists), was the launching of the Operation Sophia on 18 May 2015.¹⁶ The key objective of this Operation is to disrupt smuggling routes and capabilities and, hence, reduce the flows originating from Libya. Together with the Eastern route this route was most used by migrants coming to Europe.¹⁷

In this setting, new shocking attack was performed on Friday night, November 13, in Paris. It is believed that three coordinated teams of terrorists conducted the attacks on Stade de France, gun attack on a restaurant and a bar on Rue Alibert, Rue de Charonne, Boulevard Voltaire and the Bataclan Concert Hall. The attack resulted with 130 deaths, several hundred wounded people, of which more than 100 in critical condition. French President Francois Hollande declared that this was an "act of war" by the Islamic State.¹⁸ For the first time France invoked Art.42.7 of the Lisbon Treaty (President Hollande in his speech to the Congrès and after that Defence Minister Le Drian at the EU Defence Council). Invoking the defence clause conveys the idea that the terrorist attacks had not only targeted France but Europe as a whole. The solidarity clause (Article.222 TFEU) was not used instead for two main reasons: first, because the crisis did not overcome the response capabilities available to France; and, second the expected solidarity relates to explicitly external operations.¹⁹

Immediately after the terrorist attacks on November 13, the Council on Counter-terrorism held a meeting (including the Member States), where the following areas were identified as top-priority in order to tackle the terrorist menace: PNR, firearms, strengthening the controls on external borders, information sharing, financing of terrorism, criminal justice response to terrorism and violent extremism. Member States undertook an obligation *inter alia* to: upgrade the Schengen Member States' border control systems (electronic connection to the relevant Interpol databases at all external border crossing points, automatic screening of travel documents) by March 2016; carry out a systematic registration, including fingerprinting, of third country nationals illegally entering the Schengen area and perform systematic security checks by using relevant databases, with the support of Frontex and Europol, and ensure that hotspots are equipped with the relevant technology; strengthen the control at the external borders which are most exposed, in particular by deploying, when the situation requires so, rapid border intervention teams (RABITs) and police officers in order to ensure systematic screening and security checks.²⁰

Regarding the information sharing, the Council decided to step up the cooperation among law enforcement agencies, in particular to: systematically enter data on suspected foreign terrorist fighters into the SIS II, carry out awareness raising and training on the use of the SIS and define a common approach to the use of the SIS II data relating to foreign fighters, full imple-

15 Brady H. and Parkes, R. "EU Home Affairs Policy: why, what and where – and how," *Chaillot Paper No.135*, 2015, p. 57.

16 COUNCIL DECISION (CFSP) 2015/778 of 18 May 2015 on a European Union military operation in the Southern Central Mediterranean (EUNAVFOR MED), *Official Journal of the European Union*, L 122/31, 19/05/2015.

17 Tardy, T., "Operation Sophia: tackling the refugee crisis with military means", *Brief 30*, 2015, European Institute for Security Studies, Paris, pp. 1–2.

18 <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-34818994> (accessed 22/01/2016).

19 Tardy, T., "Mutual Defence- One Month On", *ISSUE Alert 55*, 2015, p. 1.

20 Council Conclusions, Brussels, 20 November 2015.

mentation and effective use of the Prüm acquis (interconnection and consultation of national databases on DNA, fingerprints and vehicle registration), and the European Counter Terrorist Centre (ECTC) will become active within Europol on 1 January 2016 as a platform by which Member States can increase information sharing and operational cooperation with regard to the monitoring and investigation of foreign terrorist fighters, the trafficking of illegal firearms and terrorist financing. Regarding financing of terrorism, the Council expressed its commitment to ensure a swift and effective freezing of terrorist assets throughout the Union, whether through autonomous EU decisions or in compliance with UN Security Council Resolutions. Also, it called the Commission to present proposals for improvement of the powers and cooperation between Financial Intelligence Units (FIUs), to strengthen controls of non-banking payment methods such as electronic/anonymous payments, money remittances, cash-carriers, virtual currencies, transfers of gold or precious metals and pre-paid cards in line with the risk they present and to curb more effectively the illicit trade in cultural goods.²¹

Regarding the criminal response to terrorism prevention, most notable steps were the accession of EU to the Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism and of its additional Protocol on Foreign Terrorist Fighters (Council of Europe). The ECRIS will be used to the full extent by the Member States and its scope will be broadened to cover third country nationals. On the issue of firearms, important steps were made with the implementing Regulation on common deactivation standards, the efforts to revise the current Directive on Firearms. Frontex and Europol were tasked to assist the Member States bordering the Western Balkans region in increasing controls of external borders to detect smuggling of firearms.

On December 3, 2015, the Council approved the compromise text agreed with the European Parliament on the proposal for a directive on the use of PNR data. Now the air carriers will be obliged to provide Member States' authorities with the PNR data for flights entering and departing from the EU. The new Directive will allow Member States to collect PNR data with regard to selected intra-EU flights. These data can be in storage for six months, after which they will be masked out and stored for a period of four and a half years.²² The already reached political agreement on the Directive on the use of passenger name record (PNR) should provide strong legal basis for pursuing the committers of terrorist offences.

The European Council in December stressed and called for immediate implementation of the measures in the Statement of the Heads of State or Government of 12 February 2015, including those operationalized by the Council conclusions of 20 November 2015. Some of these policies give a predominant preference to "more data", "intelligence" and surveillance of people's mobility as among the key ways to respond to and prevent events like those in Paris.²³ Enhanced information sharing is needed, in particular:

- a) ensuring the systematic entry of data on foreign terrorist fighters into the Schengen Information System II;
- b) ensuring the systematic sharing of criminal records data for people connected to terrorism (and serious and organised crime) and the extension of the European Criminal Records Information System (ECRIS) to third country nationals;
- c) ensuring the interoperability of the relevant databases with regard to security checks;
- d) improving information exchange between Member States' counter-terrorism authorities, supporting the work of the new Europol CT Centre, and

²¹ *Ibid.*

²² OUTCOME OF THE COUNCIL MEETING, Justice and Home Affairs, Brussels, 3 and 4 December 2015, 14937/15, PRESSE 76, p. 7.

²³ Bigo, Brouwer, Carrera, Guild, Guittet, Jeandesboz, Ragazzi and Scherrer (2015), "The EU Counter-Terrorism Policy Responses to the Attacks in Paris: Towards an EU Security and Liberty Agenda", *CEPS Papers in Liberty and Security in Europe*, No. 81, CEPS, Brussels, February, 2015.

e) increasing Member States' contributions to Europol databases, as well as providing for the access of Europol and Frontex to relevant databases.²⁴

The European Council strongly reaffirmed the commitment for deeper cooperation between security services of the Member States, further strengthening the information exchange so that interested Member States can engage in enhanced joint operational threat analysis. Also, the European Council stressed the importance of conducting systematic and coordinated checks at external borders both for EU and non-EU citizens. EC urged the Council to "rapidly examine the Commission proposals on combatting terrorism and on firearms, in particular on high-powered semi-automatic weapons". On the other hand, "Member States should fully implement the Regulation on explosives precursors".²⁵ Rapid action is needed against terrorist finance in all domains, in particular asset freeze and other restrictive measures, priority should be given to strengthening and, if need be, extending the existing measures to tackle ISIL/Daesh related activity throughout the EU.

In this spirit, the European Council called for further strengthening of the counter-terrorism engagement with partners in North Africa, the Middle East, Turkey and the Western Balkans. In order to expedite the criminal investigations conducted against persons involved in terrorism, the electronic evidence will be collected especially when located abroad. This will include further engagement with the Internet industry.

On December 15, 2015, the European Commission came up with a proposal of a Regulation to create a European Border and Coast Guard to ensure a strong and shared management of the external borders. The introduction of systematic checks against relevant databases for all people entering or exiting the Schengen area is pivotal. Also, the Commission issued a recommendation for a voluntary humanitarian admission scheme with Turkey in order to protect the displaced persons from Syria. The flexibility of the scheme should allow the sustainable reduction of numbers of persons irregularly crossing the border from Turkey into the European Union as a result of Turkey's actions.²⁶ These proposals are currently under consideration in the Council of Ministers. The proposed Regulation defines the aim of the European Board and Coast Guard as:

- ... to ensure a European integrated border management at the external borders with
- a view to managing migration effectively and ensuring a high level of internal security
- within the Union, while safeguarding the free movement of persons therein.²⁷

The European integrated border management will be a shared responsibility of the European Border and Coast Guard Agency and of the national authorities responsible for border management, including coast guards to the extent that they carry out border control tasks.²⁸ The European Border and Coast Guard Agency *inter alia* will have the following tasks: establish a monitoring and risk analysis centre; carry out a vulnerability assessment; assist Member States in circumstances requiring increased technical and operational assistance at the external borders; assist Member States in such circumstances; set up and deploy European Border and Coast Guard Teams; deploy the necessary equipment and staff for the rapid reserve pool; set up pools of forced return monitors, forced return escorts and return specialists; develop

²⁴ Conclusions of the European Council 17 and 18 December 2015, Brussels, 18 December 2015 EUCO 28/15, para. 5.

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ Commission proposals: Borders Package and Voluntary Humanitarian Admission Scheme with Turkey. Reports on Migration in Greece, Italy and the Western Balkans, 15/12/2015, http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/what-is-new/news/news/2015/20151215_1_en.htm.

²⁷ Proposal for a REGULATION OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL on the European Border and Coast Guard and repealing Regulation (EC) No 2007/2004, Regulation (EC) No 863/2007 and Council Decision 2005/267/EC, COM(2015) 671 final, Strasbourg, 15.12.2015.

²⁸ *Ibid.* Art. 5.

and operate systems that enable swift and reliable exchanges of information regarding emerging risks at the management of the external borders, etc.²⁹

At the informal meeting of the Justice and Home Affairs Ministers in Amsterdam on 25 and 26 January, one of the most important questions was how to improve the information exchange on foreign terrorist fighters between the competent authorities of the Member States. It is essential to provide quantity, but also quality of information, in order to identify new lines of investigation and to help prevent terrorist attacks and counteract related activities.³⁰ Also, since the latest terrorist attacks have shown that some of the terrorists were inhabitants of the cities that they have attacked, in future special focus will be put on local authorities, since they represent “the first line of defence in countering violent extremism”³¹ The JHA Ministers also discussed the European Commission’s proposal on European Border and Coast Guard (EBCG). EBCG will bring together the European Border and Coast Guard Agency and the competent authorities of the Member States dealing with border management. These authorities will be part of the EU Border and Coast Guard in so far as they perform maritime border surveillance. Both should ensure European Integrated Border Management. The European Border and Coast Guard Agency only in exceptional cases can act in order to protect the affected parts of the Common EU external border. In such circumstances, the Member States will have to make a certain percentage of their border guards on disposal by the Agency.³²

POTENTIAL IMPACT ON THE RULE OF LAW

Some of the proposed measures and some of the already adopted measures pose serious challenges to the rule of law and endanger the fundamental human rights and civil liberties both of EU and non-EU citizens.

Per se, the internal mobility controls preventing EU citizens from leaving EU territory can be at odds with Art. 5.1 of the European Convention of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and the legal standards developed by the Strasbourg Court when restrictions are applied by states to the individuals’ right of liberty.³³

Similarly, introducing more intensive checks on EU citizens when crossing common EU borders (against the existing databases) endangers the fundamental freedom to free movement and the privileges that EU citizens enjoy. The proposed amendments of the Framework Decision on Combating Terrorism raise similar concerns.

Also, the new legislation on PNR, which have been negotiated for several years, and recently a political agreement reached between the Council and the Parliament, could be at odds with the Schengen logics and negate the rights and freedoms of citizens and residents in the EU. The subject of the surveillance will be the movement of every citizen and resident in the EU both within EU and when leaving the common Schengen territory. There is absolutely no evidence proving the need for an EU PNR system, its value added and effectiveness.³⁴

²⁹ Art. 7.

³⁰ Informal Meeting of the Justice and Home Affairs Ministers, Amsterdam 25-26 January 2016, Discussion Paper on counterterrorism, p. 1.

³¹ *Ibid.* p. 2.

³² Informal Meeting of the Justice and Home Affairs Ministers, Amsterdam 25-26 January 2016, Discussion Paper European Border and Coast Guard, p. 2.

³³ See in particular: *Guzzardi v. Italy* (6 November 1980, Series A No. 39); *S.F. v. Switzerland* (no.16360/90); and *Nada v. Switzerland* (No. 10593/08).

³⁴ Bigo et al, “The EU and its Counter-Terrorism Policies after the Paris Attacks”, *CEPS Paper in Liberty and Security in Europe* No. 84 / November 2015, p. 8.

In this manner, the requested revision of the Schengen Borders Code in order to allow more systematic checks on EU citizens going abroad and when travelling within the EU by air and inside and outside the Schengen territory, poses fundamental challenges to the principle of free movement.³⁵

In perspective, the impediment of the free movement of persons which is inherent to the Internal Market and sanctioned by EU Law and the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, could become a subject to judicial review by the Court of Justice of EU.³⁶

Namely, the CJEU recently annulled the Data Retention Directive and the Safe Harbour Framework in two landmark judgments *Digital Rights Ireland* and *Schrems*. The first judgment is particularly important, since it assigns EU institutions with a new responsibility to protect human rights, establishes a new strict scrutiny test for EU legislation that interferes seriously with human rights and requires new rigorous proportionality test under the Charter of Fundamental Rights.³⁷ The Court made it clear that indiscriminate data retention is unacceptable, that the retained personal data must enjoy the highest level of protection and security (to be kept by an independent authority on the territory of EU) and the access to retained data should be limited only to what is strictly necessary, and requests for such data should be subject to a review by a judicial or independent administrative body.

Still, the Justice and Home Affairs Council on December 3, 2015, held that retaining bulk electronic communication data in a generalised manner was still allowed. Ministers considered that it is necessary to put an end to the fragmentation of the legal framework, so a new legislative proposal by the Commission is needed.³⁸

Having regard to the background of the terrorist that conducted the attacks in Paris, more information/data does not always guarantee the success in anticipating the attacks. Namely, some of the terrorists were already known to the French police but that did not prevent the attacks, some were even inhabitants of the cities they have attacked and the latest information show that even Belgian authorities three years before the attacks knew about the group and their plans to conduct attacks on cities in France.

CONCLUSION

EU counter-terrorism policies have rapidly developed in the last 15 years. They were continuously modernized in order to tackle the terrorist menace. The developments in the last year, after the terrorist attacks on January 7, and November 13, 2015 show that many of the recent EU measures are inspired by the flows of migrants and the imminent danger that some of the terrorist could come via these routes. This was even more in the focus after intelligence reports claimed that one of the attackers on November 13, 2015 in Paris came via the Balkan route. Evidently, such isolated individuals and groups cannot be for sure identified on border crossings with massive surveillance and data collection. This even more so, because many of the terrorists involved in the attacks were citizens and inhabitants of the towns where attacks were carried out. That is why such massive intelligence gathering surely can endanger

³⁵ *Ibid.*

³⁶ See in particular: Joined Cases C-402/05 P and C-415/05, *P. Kadi and Al Barakaat International Foundation v. Council and Commission* [2008] ECR I-6351 (Kadi I Judgment); see also Case T-306/01, *Yusuf and Al Barakaat Foundation v. Council* and Case T-315/01, *Kadi v. Council and Commission* of 21 September 2005, and also Case T-85/09, *Kadi v. European Commission*, 30 September 2010.

³⁷ Granger, M., Irion, K., "The Court of Justice and the Data Retention Directive in Digital Rights Ireland: Telling Off the EU Legislator and Teaching a Lesson in Privacy and Data Protection," (2014) 39 E.L.Rev. December, p. 844.

³⁸ OUTCOME OF THE COUNCIL MEETING, *op. cit. supra*, ... p. 6.

some of the constitutional principles of EU Law (free movement of persons and privacy), and the principle of proportionality as well. Re-establishing national border controls (even temporary), massive spying of citizens and non-selective gathering of intelligence are not in line with this principles. Now, the accent must be put on more intensive role by the local law enforcement authorities, curbing illegal arms trade (particularly on the Internet), stepping up information exchange on counterterrorism between the competent authorities and enhancing the ability for fast freezing of financial flows to terrorists.

Therefore, EU must stem the tide of terrorists and criminal networks via careful balancing between EU internal and external security policies. External action should be focused on the humanitarian crises in war-torn and refugee-hosting countries (e.g. Syria, Turkey) through humanitarian assistance, asylum policies and development cooperation.³⁹ Diplomatic action in such fragile territories would require a combination of robust diplomatic pressure, massive financial investment, and military support or deterrence.⁴⁰

Since there is an open possibility that some or all of the measures (such as the Directive on PNR) could be challenged by the concerned parties before the CJEU, evidently a more restrictive approach with regard to collection and use of personal data will be needed. Furthermore, developing a more accurate and effective use of data that meets the standards of evidence in criminal proceedings should be devised. According to the CJEU, data retention and use can be justified only in limited cases where serious threat to public security is imminent, and where gathering of such data is necessary for preventing, detecting and prosecuting serious criminal offences.

However, the heightened scrutiny by the CJEU over EU legislation could motivate institutions of EU and the Member States in the pursuing of terrorists to resort to *de facto* actions outside the law, which already happened in the United States from 2001 onwards.

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40 Parkes, R., "Migration and Terrorism: the new frontiers for European solidarity", *ISSUE Brief* 37, 2015, p. 2.

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THE TERM NATIONAL SECURITY IN SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE

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Abstract: National security includes political, economic, military, informative and environmental stability of a state, a condition in which there are no serious threats and dangers to a survival of a state, its independent, territorial integrity and constitutional-legal order and life, rights and freedoms of its citizens and healthy environment (condition of safety). Within the framework of the thesis, the author is determining the term national security scientifically and theoretically.

In modern conditions the question is being asked “Is it necessary or not to scientifically define the term national security and if it is necessary, how can it be done in a generally acceptable way, because there are serious disputes in the scientific circles about the content of the term definition of security given the wide range of the content, elements, events and relationships in the social, natural and the technical sphere, that this term is required to cover”? There will be given determinations from domestic and foreign authors, and determinations given in the National strategies for security of the Republic of Macedonia, Serbia, Croatia and Montenegro.

Keywords: security, national security, national strategy for security

INTRODUCTION

The literature presents a multitude of definitions of the term National Security so the way to establishing the essential elements is quite complicated often subjected to doubts.²

At the end of the 21st century, one of the youngest Serbian authors Sasa Mijalkovic,³ writes that in Serbia there is no single understanding of the concept of security, as origin and meaning of the term, or that in the theory of security and in the literature of related sciences, there is no single determination of safety.

Sasa Mijalkovic defines national security “as a condition of smooth performance, development, and optimum enjoyment of protected national and state values and interests that reach, maintain and improve the function of citizen security, the national security system and supranational security mechanisms, such absence (individual, group and collective) for fear of endangering them, and the collective sense of serenity, certainty and control over the development of future events and developments of relevance to life in society and the state”.⁴

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2 Stated by Ilic, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p. 123. Broaden see: Savic, A., National Security Criminalistic-police Academy, Belgrade, 2007, p. 40.

3 Ibid, p. 123. Broader see: Mijalkovic, S., National Security Criminalistic- police Academy, Belgrade, 2009, p. 44, 53.

4 Ibid, p. 132. Broaden see: Mijalkovic, S., National Security Criminalistic-police Academy, Belgrade, 2009, p. 181

Later the same author, outlines 20 different definitions of national security divided in three groups.⁵ By determining the notion of safety and national security, at the beginning of the last decade of the 20th century, specifically practiced English theorist Barry Buzan (Barry Buzan), in his book: *People, States, Fear* (1991). He states that the complexity of the notion of *security*, deters many researchers from full access to the emergence National Security, directing them to research some tangible dimensions of this phenomenon, such as the army, police and so on. According to him, there is no yet profound interpretation of the phenomenon of security and for several other reasons: 1. Because of unconstructive opposition between supporters of realist and the idealist school of power and peace concept development, 2. Due to the nature of strategic studies which narrows the object of study to military types of security, 3. Due to the impact of the international security environment of the *Cold War*, the concept that has reduced security to the concept of power, and 4. The term national security cannot be precisely determined due to the interests of political elites to shape strategy in the way to strengthen their own power in the state and society.⁶

Accepting the argument of *B. Base*, we believe that in attempting to define *national security* in our country, as well as in defining the term security, we must remove the terminological or semantic problems, which are particularly pronounced in the first element of the phrase "*national security*", the adjective '*national*'.

In Serbian (and former Yugoslav) political terminology, the adjective "*national*", exclusively bound and still binds the nation, as a specific socio-economic, political and cultural community, this great ethnical group is distinguished from other such groups by their numerous features (mainly in language, customs, folklore, psychological and spiritual characteristics, features, etc.). In line with such use of those words, the phrase "*national security*" should signify *security of particular nation*. Thus the term "*Serbian National Security*" should mean security of the Serbian nation, wherever its members are or live. Given that a small country such as Serbia is inhabited by no fewer than 26 different nations, talking about *national security* inevitably creates great confusion and problems in theoretical and other communications. Regarding this issue, such complicated situations exist in Russia, India and China, the countries where more than a hundred different nations live, or in so-called immigration countries such as the USA, Canada, Australia and others.⁷

In Western Europe and the West in general, the term '*nation*' essentially means the gathering of citizens from some countries whose nationals are equated with nationality. In keeping with this, in the science of international relations, from its very beginnings, the terms "*nation*" and "*nation*" are frequently used as synonyms for the terms "state" or "country", so the term "*national security*" it used as a synonym for the safety of a state.⁸

In the "*Dictionary of government and politics*" by Peter H. Colin (Peter H. Collin) the noun *Nation (Nation)*, translates as "country and people who live in it; nation, "and the adjective "*national*", (National) as "folk, national, state".⁹ This synonymy is controversial in homogeneous national states, because it overlaps nationality and citizenship entirely or almost entirely. For example, the term "*Japanese national security*" means both security of the Japanese state and safety of the Japanese nation. But since there are very few homogeneous nation states, the use of the phrase "*national security*" can cause some problems. However this term is used in

5 Mijalkovich, S., *National Security Criminal any police-academy*, Belgrade, 2009, p. 182-184.

6 Stated according to Ilic, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p. 125. Broaden see: Simić D., *Nauka o bezbednosti*, Official Gazette, FPN, Beograd, 2002, str. 131

7 Ibid, p. 128

8 Ibid, p. 128. Broaden see Dimitrijevic C.p. 19-20; Dimitrijevic V., R. Stojanovic (1996),p. 105-106, 259

9 "Dictionary of Government and Politics" Pieter H. Colina (PeterH. Collin), 2002, p.206

the science of international relations and security science, and in this paper is used as a label for the security of a particular country, not as a designation of nation.¹⁰

Numerous definitions of national security, which we will continue to discuss testify about the difficulties to identify the terms “*national security*” and “*security of a State*”. It is thought that the phrase “*national security*” was first used by the famous American journalist *Walter Lippmann (Walter Lippmann)*¹¹ in 1943 in his book *American foreign policy*,¹² and the phrase becomes a standard term for this concept of security after *World War II*. It should be noted that this term was used before the *Second World War in Europe*, particularly in France and the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. One of the directorates in the Ministry of Internal affairs of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia in 1940 had been named “*Directorate of national security*”, according to the name of the then Directorate in similar (and postwar) Ministry of Interior of France.¹³ Its use is not entirely correct, given that it marks the security of the state. Therefore the name *State Security*, which is less used, is actually correct because it marks the security of civil values and interests, primarily sovereignty, survival of the state and society, the constitutional system and the regime in power. This is from this part that the phenomenon *nation* is usually wider (geographic) scope of the state and the states and do not have to be national or territorial to match with the stretch of nations. Caring for the daily security of the people was put in the background, it has been neglected. The biggest threats and dangers to *national security*, armed attacks from outside and various forms of “subversion from within, aided from the outside” (and vice versa), and not economic, social, environmental, educational, health, nutritional, problems of physical security and other issues of people. In this sense, security is equated with so-called external security of the country and the citizens represent the instruments of operational security or defense of the country.¹⁴

The fact that the term state security is often used with the meaning security of a state and that these two terms are often confused is an added terminological problem in defining national security. This practice was particularly common during the *Cold War*, given that national security is primarily perceived as the security of the states relative to war and subversive endeavors, no matter where they come from. At that time, the security of a state basically presumes ensuring the sovereignty and territorial integrity on the one hand, and the security of the internal legal and political order on the other side. As the safety of the country often coincides with security of the regime in power, the use of the term national security as a synonym for national security, has proved problematic. Thus the use of the term state security results in a situation in which the interlocutors can never be sure which particular security is achieved - if you are thinking of security of the state as an institution in the narrow sense, the security of a particular nation or political community all nationals or citizens of a country, irrespective of their ethnic, religious, societal and ideological affiliation. This, synonymous use of these two expressions was easily affordable until recently, but now after all that has happened in the last three decades, such practice can no longer be construed or justified. Namely national security today is treated just like one of the constituent elements (or components) of national security as a complex notion in modern political and legal science.¹⁵

10 Stated by: Ilic, P. About definitions of National Security Law Faculty – International Universities in Novi Pazar magazine “Security,” p. 129th

11 Ibid, p. 129th. Превземено од В.: Masleša R. (2001) *Teorije i sistemi sigurnosti*, Magistrat, Sarajevo, str. 38.; Tatalović S., nav. d., str. 143; Стајић Љ., Гаџиновић П. (2007) *Увод у студије безбедности*, Драслар партнер, Београд,, стр. 41. Итд.

12 Stated by: Tatalović, S. : Isto, str. 143rd

13 Stated by: Ilic, P. About definitions of National Security Law Faculty - International Universities in Novi Pazar magazine “Security,” p. 129th

14 Mijalkovic Sasa., Keserovic Dragomir., Basic safety, Faculty of Security and Protection, Banja Luka, 2010, p. 83

15 Stated by: Ilic, P. About definitions of National Security Law Faculty – International Universities in Novi Pazar magazine “Security,” p. 129

As the notion of safety, national security concept can be defined in objective and subjective terms. In the objective sense, national security represents “the absence of threats to acquired values” of a country and in a subjective sense, it represents “the absence of fear that such values will be attacked”.¹⁶

According to some authors, national security can be defined in a narrow and broad sense. *National security* in the narrow sense means a state of being protected, of a free, stable and certain existence, operation and development of a state (country). If here we borrow from a negative definition, we can say that *national security* in the narrow sense means a condition in which there are no serious threats and dangers to the survival of a state, its independence, territorial integrity and constitutional legal order, and the lives, rights and freedoms of its citizens and a healthy environment (as safety). Given the unquestionable state of affairs that this extremely important and desirable condition is affected by a wide variety of factors and circumstances of objective and subjective nature, national security in the broadest sense can be defined as “the totality of objective and subjective factors and circumstances (factors or processes organizations, institutions and activities) that determine the survival, function, development and other important values of a state “(independence, territorial integrity, constitutional and legal order, life, rights and freedoms of its citizens and a healthy environment). Although many of these factors and circumstances can affect the national security in a positive and negative fashion, those who act positively, those that contribute to the achievement and preservation of security are primarily referred to here. Those factors and circumstances that lead to endangering the survival and functioning of states may be included in the definition of insecurity as opposed to security.¹⁷

According to *Predrag Ilic*,¹⁸ *national security* can be classified in the following ways: a) by considering whether national security is perceived in the objective or subjective sense ie. the objectivistic and subjectivist; b) in view of the time ie. at the old (traditional) and new (modern) times c) considering the origin of the authors, domestic and foreign, and d) it determines national security predominately - as a state, activity, ability, protected , etc.

As it defines security in the objective and subjective sense, the term *national security* can be defined in objective and subjective terms. According to *A. D. Wolfensohn*,¹⁹ an objective view of *national security* represents the absence of threats to acquired values of a country, and a subjective view the absence of fear that those values will be attacked. Unlike *D. Wolfensohn* that reasonably indicates the need for understanding and defining *national security* and in terms of objective and subjective point of view, *J. Garnett*. (*Garnett J.*) argues that “national security is not an objective circumstance, but a subjective feeling, a sense of reliability (feeling of confidence).²⁰ *M. Burkina* defines national security as “the absence of any fear of attack, threats or threats to the interests of another state or from other states”.²¹ Somewhat lengthy and reasoned definition of national security, but also subjective is provided by *Charles Kegley* (*Kegley, Charles W.*) and *Eugene Wittkopf* (*Wittkopf, Eugene R.*)²² According to them, national security is a psychological liberation of a country from the fear that the state will be unable to defend itself from threats related to its survival and national values, which come from abroad or from the country.“

16 Ibid, p. 129

17 Ibid, p.137

18 Ibid, p. 130

19 Stated by Ilich, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p. 129

20 Ibid, p.129. Broaden see Dimitrijević C., appearance security in international Relations, Union lawyers, Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1973, p. 33rd

21 Ibid, p. 129. Broaden see: Vukadinović R. International Politics relations, Politics Culture, Zagreb, 2004, str. 155th

22 Ibid, p. 130. Broaden see: Kegly Č. V., Vitkof JR, Svetska politika - trend I transformacija, Centar za studije jugoistočne Evrope, Fakultet političkih nauka, Diplomatska akademija MSP SCG, Beograd, 2006th

In Serbian literature there are the following definitions of national security: Although the small political encyclopedia offers no no definition of the term “*national security*”, it is included in the term “*security*” as follows:²³ 21 “Safety in extensive legal political sense encompasses measures and activities for the conservation and protection of threats to the independence and integrity of the country (country, nation) and the internal constitutional and legal order.” The same template can be found in political encyclopedia.²⁴ Military lexicon has no determinant “*national security*”, but here it is mentioned within the term “*security*”, “In terms of substance and real meaning security can be defined as a state, organization and function. Security as a protected state represents some good values of current society. In political and security terms, covers overall protected the country from all kinds of subversive activities of the external and internal enemy and other harmful activities and influences.”²⁵

The first theorist who dealt with the definition of national security in Serbia is *V. Dimitrijević*.²⁶ He finds that national security before all signifies “the external security of the state”. Elsewhere, he stresses that in trying to arrive at a generally accepted definition of *national security* “it must first of all be established that it has to have two elements. One is value, and the other is cognitive.

You need to know that values work and what is it that is endangering them. “Apart from these notes and detailed observations of these two elements mentioned, this author does not give its definition of national security. According to *Nenad Dzhordzhevich*,” *National Security* means protecting and ensuring the smooth functioning of the core values of a given society: existing productive forces and relations and adequate social upgrading; territorial integrity and sovereignty. National security has its international and internal appearance. Internal security means smooth functioning of the socio-economic and political system and preserving public order. International concept of security means protecting territorial integrity and sovereignty.²⁷

A decade after *Dzhordzhevich*, *Sreten Kovacevic* also offers a definition of *national security*, but under this term he means security of this nation as a social group, not a state. So he says that “national security is a condition in which there are threats to the core values which underpin survival, development and prosperity of a national community, and the rights of national minorities and ethnic minorities enjoy a State recognized by international criteria and norms.”²⁸

Slobodan Miletic, referring to the security of the state, says that “security is a state of legally regulated and provided social relations, established, maintained and improved situation in the State, which provides efficient protection of the state and the citizens who live in it all (external and internal) illegal actions which threaten the constitutional order, sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity of the state, the work of public authorities, the execution of economic and social activities and exercise of the freedoms, rights and duties of human and citizen.”²⁹

Further in the first textbook on national security published in Serbia, *Andreja Savic* says, “We believe that national security may be defined as internal and external security in terms of

23 Ibid, p. 130. Broaden see: Little political encyclopedia, 1966, p. 96th

24 Political Encyclopedia, 1975, p. 79th

25 Stated by Ilyich, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p. 130. Broaden see: Military lexical, 1981, p. 56th

26 Stated by Ilyich, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p. 130. Broaden see: Dimitrijević C., appearance security in international Relations, Union of Lawyers, Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1973, p. 19th

27 Ibid, p. 131. Broaden see: Dzhordzhevich, N., Security and Yugoslavia Jugoart, Zagreb, 1985, p. 29th

28 Ibid, p. 131. Broaden see: Kovacevic, S., Basic Security and Defense VSHUP, Zemun 1996th

29 Miletic, S., any police law, any police academy, Belgrade, 1997, p. 13.

security challenges, risks and threats on the one hand and activities of the specialized institutions and the system of national security in achieving national independence and protection of vital interests, respecting the rule of law, on the other side”³⁰

Ljubomir Stajic and Radoslav Gachinovic consider that “*national security* can mean the ability of the state to independently or in cooperation with other states or organizations protect vital interests and values of the society from external and internal forms of threats, and thus to provide general conditions for unfettered political, economic, social and cultural development of society and the welfare of its citizens”³¹

Svetlana Stanarevic defines national security as “the ability of the state (nation) to survive, so as to protect the territorial integrity and sovereignty, it will have political autonomy and with the help of state attributes, will protect its internal values from all types of threats regardless of whether they come from the outside or are located inside the country. “ In the sequel, she says: “*National security* is associated or identified with state security ... It also used to mark the efforts of a nation to achieve an organized and protect vital national interests.”³²

Writing about the term state security, *Ivan Dimitrijevic* claims that it “implies the protection of the state institutions and the holders of power,” and that is often confused with the notion of national security. He continues: “However, *national security* includes issues and the survival of the state, territorial integrity, political independence, quality of life and more. According to individuals, the interpretation of national security is the internal security of the state and state security is external security of the state”³³

NATIONAL SECURITY POLICY OF INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES NATIONAL SECURITY POLICY OF THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

National Security Policy of the Republic of Macedonia is a complex and interdependent set of measures, activities, plans and programs undertaken by the Republic of Macedonia in order to protect, maintain and enhance the security of the Republic of Macedonia and its citizens, in accordance with the available resources and active cooperation with the international community. In itself, systems include political, economic, defense, internal security, social, environmental and other fields. It further stipulates that the views of the national security policy are grouped in the following areas: foreign, economic, defense, internal security policy and the policy of environmental protection. In order to exercise this policy, the state applied instruments are defined as all normative-legal, organizational, procedural, human and other resources, as well as other features and capabilities that are available to holders and participants in achieving security policy, and relationships, communication and cooperation with all governmental and non-governmental, national and international organizations, bodies, associations and other forms of assistance and cooperation.

30 Stated by Ilyich, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p.131. Broaden see: Savic, A., National Security Criminalistic-police Academy, Belgrade, 2004.

31 Ibid, p.131. Broaden see: Stajic, Lj., Gachinovic, R., Introduction in the studio security, Beograd, 2007, p. 44th

32 Ibid, p.131,132

33 Ibid, p.132

NATIONAL SECURITY POLICY OF REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Republic Serbia with its own policy of national security, is a significant factor of regional security cooperation and reliable partner in international relations. This policy is determined as part of the overall state policy and is implemented through a concerted program of measures and activities that the state is taking in order to realize the policy objectives of national security. With its realization is exercised and assumptions about political, economic, social, cultural and overall social development of the Republic Serbia.³⁴

Furthermore, the following items are defined as objectives of national security policy: improving the safety of citizens, society and the state, strengthening the institutions for national security, taking preventive actions through the implementation of effective measures and activities and adequate addressing the risks and threats in order to protect national interests. The development of political and economic stability and prosperity of society, participation in building a favorable security environment, involvement in European integration and other regional and international structures, as well as cooperation with other democratic societies contribute to achieving the stated policy objectives of national security. The realization of those goals ensures the implementation of national security policy in the area of foreign policy, economic policy, a policy of defense, internal security policy, social policy and policy in other areas of social life. Establishment and implementation of national security policy are based on respect of the following basic principles:³⁵

- *Prevention* (accomplished through the application of appropriate measures to strengthen national security, through timely identification, gathering information and taking action to prevention and eradicate the causes of risks and threats to security);

- *right of defense* - based on fundamental rights and the sovereignty of the state in accordance with the Charter of the OH, and including the discretion of the form and method of achieving national security, as well as participation in regional and international security organizations, respecting the interests of the Republic Serbia;

- *Compatible* - implies harmonization of parts of the system on national security and acceptance and implementation of international standards in safety;

- *Indivisibility of security* - is realized through active contribution to general security, as well as through partnerships with entities of international relations;

Responsibility - is realized through obligations, politics of national security to be realized in accordance with the Constitution, the law and undertaken international obligations. As elements of the national security policy of the Republic Serbia are determined: foreign policy, economic policy, defense policy, internal security policy, the policy of protection of human and minority rights, social policy and policies in other areas of social life.³⁶

NATIONAL SECURITY POLICY OF MONTENEGRO

With the policy of national security political, economic, military, informational and ecological stability of the state, respect for political existence and territorial integrity of the state

³⁴ Strategy on national security of the Republic of Serbia, Belgrade, April 2009 (the official site of the Government of Republic of Serbia, www.srbija.gov.rs), Chapter IV.

³⁵ Ibid, Chapter IV, p.3.

³⁶ Ibid, Chapter IV, p.4.

are determined in Montenegro. Strategic goal of the state is building a stable, functional and efficient security system that provides prevention, management and peaceful resolution of all possible crises, regardless of their level and character, and in accordance with international democratic standards and rules. The realization of this objective creates a positive environment for efficient protection and defense of the vital state and social values, and interests of the state as defined by the Constitution of the Republic of Montenegro. With national security policy governing national interests; security objectives security risks and threats possible response to the state of Montenegro to these risks and threats; and structure system for national security. The policy of national security is an expression of the determination of Montenegro to be part of regional and global security system, and it determines the capabilities of Montenegro as a state, as well as its constant efforts to adapt to global changes and to contribute to security and stability in Southeast Europe. Strategic goal of Montenegro is to as quickly as possible, a full member of NATO and the EU, Montenegro wants to join the NATO program - "Partnership for Peace". security policy on Montenegro is aimed at preserving its national interests and the full realization of security objectives based on principles of a developed democracy, the rule of law and its orientation towards Euro-Atlantic integration through respect for international law and internationally accepted principles of peaceful resolution of misunderstandings and the right to a healthy environment.³⁷

NATIONAL SECURITY POLICY OF THE REPUBLIC OF CROATIA

With national security policy, Croatia seeks to build the conditions of protection of the fundamental values of society and the institutions they founded or state of national security which will ensure its freedom, sovereignty and territorial integrity within the internationally accepted arrangements, human rights and freedoms of its citizens, political and social stability of society, stable economic development in conditions of freedom of the market and entrepreneurship, the functioning of the rule of law, internal order special security of citizens, as well as healthy and stable environmental conditions.³⁸

Concept for achieving national security is marked by two thorough orientations - complexity in terms of volume and content areas and activities such cooperation, collaboration and partnership relations with the international environment include.

The European strategy of security from 2003 establishes new expanded concept of security, and strategy for internal security of the European Union,³⁹ the concept of internal security is understood as a broad and comprehensive approach that incorporates many sectors to address the threats that have a direct impact on the lives, safety and security of the state and welfare of citizens. With the strategy it is determined that there is no absolute protection, and that security is a key factor for protection of the quality life of European citizens, of the critical infrastructure and prevention of threats.

Today, national security means ensuring and supporting peace and stability, protection of national interests and values, support the economy, as well as management and control of the process to guarantee a high level of national security. Also national security can be determined as an internal and external security of states, or security of the state in terms of inter-

37 Strategy for national security on Montenegro – to adopt of government the Republic of Montenegro – June 2006, p. 2.

38 Strategy for national certainty (certitude) on the Republic of Croatia – 2002.

39 *Draft Internal Security Strategy for the European Union: "Towards a European Security Model"* Bruxelles: Council of European Union, 8.3.2010.

nal and external types of threats, security that provides survival of the state and its normal functioning. National security should ensure the protection of national values from external and internal forms of threats, and thus to provide general conditions for unfettered political, economic, social and cultural development of the country and welfare of its citizens.

Finally we can conclude that national security includes political, economic, military, informational and ecological stability of a country, a state in which there are no serious threats and dangers to the survival of a country, for its independence, territorial integrity and constitutional and legal order, as and the lives, rights and freedoms of its citizens and a healthy environment (state of endangerment or safety). National values are achieved through the protection and realization of national interests. National interests cover all areas of social life and are an expression of the vital values and needs of citizens, people and states. National values: independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity of the state; freedom, equality, construction and maintenance of peace; rule of law; democracy; social justice; human rights and freedoms; protection of life and property of citizens; respect for national, cultural and historical identity; national, racial equality and gender equality; inviolability of property; inviolability of private and other forms of property; healthy environment, economic development and prosperity; development of political and economic stability and prosperous society; energy stability; etc.

The modern concept of national security contributes to the construction and improvement of national, regional and global security, development of democracy and the rule of law, respect for sovereignty and territorial integrity of states, respect for human rights and freedoms, the promotion of European foreign policy, and promoting cooperation with the most influential subjects of international communities and countries in the region.

CONCLUSION

“All of the above definitions, with some of them individually, contain all elements useful for formulating a relatively acceptable or workable definition of national security. In all, reference object of security and values to protect are more or less determined, but there are attempts to determine the reference entities and the security as well as the factors and subjects of threats. However, all the following definitions have defects, which is necessary to indicate. For example, all encyclopedias and lexicons do not mention the term “*national security*”. The definition of *N. Dzhordzhevich* is too wide. Also, it interferes the terms *society* and *state*, as reference objects of security. *A.Savic’s* definition is circular and insufficiently clear, because national security is given a sufficiently clear definition (internal and external security), which returns the definition of home. On the other hand, by this definition, the reference object of national security is not seen clearly, and whether it realizes such condition, ability or activity is not clear. The definition of *Slobodan Miletic’s*, although very good, overemphasizes the legal aspects of national security. Accordingly *Stajic’s and Gachinovic’s*, reference object of the national security is the state and the citizens, according to *S. Stanarevic*, it is state and nation. The most complete and most ambitious definition is given by *Sasha Mijalkovic*, but it is wider than necessary. It also contains elements of unnecessary compromise between national and state values and interests.”⁴⁰

Advanced analysis of the many definitions of national security which are given by foreign authors indicate that they differ in almost all of the above listed criteria (objectivistic and subjective, traditional and modern, narrow and wide), but as a separate criterion of differentiation we may take how the national security is primarily defined as the ability of states, or the

40 Stated by Ilyich, P. About definitions of National Security, Labor published in Magazine SAFETY UDC: 351 862 / .863; 355.02, p. 132

activity of a state in which the state as physical survival of the state or as something different from all this.

Walter Lippmann for example, defines national security as follows: "A nation is safe until you have to sacrifice core values if it wants to avoid war, and if attacked it is able to defend the victory in such a conflict".⁴¹ *M. Berkowitz* (*Berkowitz M.*) and *D. Beck* (*Beck G.*) give a shorter but very similar definition of national security, in the traditional spirit they state that the determiner of national security is "the ability of the state (nation) to protect its internal values from external dangers" and *Giacomo Luciani* (*Luciani, Giacomo*) "National security is the ability of the state to protect against external aggression".⁴² *Penelope Harcland-Tunberg* (*Hartzland-Thunberg, Penelope*) defines national security as "The ability of a nation to successfully pursue its national interests .. anywhere in the world",⁴³ and according to *Charles Maier* (*Mai-er, Charles*), national security is "the ability to control those domestic and foreign conditions that according to the public opinion in a given community are believed to be necessary for the enjoyment of its own self-determination or independence, prosperity and welfare".⁴⁴

After the Cold War, with the changing nature of international relations with the adoption of the European Security Strategy, the term "comprehensive security" appears and it refers to an expanded concept of national security in the traditional sense, by means of self-defense but also includes aspects of insurance of resources that directly affect the survival and development.

In the scientific literature of the Republic of Macedonia, the term national security encompasses measures and activities, undertaken to protect the fundamental constitutional values (independence of the state, territorial integrity and sovereignty, constitutional order, human rights and freedoms) from all internal and external threats, and survival and development of society and the state, while the system of national security includes operational and organizational structure within the state aimed at protecting the fundamental constitutional values (independence of the state, territorial integrity and sovereignty, constitutional order, human rights and freedoms) from all internal and external threats, as well as joint and coordinated action with other social systems because of the development of society and the state. The term "policy of national security" is defined as a complex and interdependent set of measures, activities, plans and programs undertaken by the Republic of Macedonia to protect, maintain and enhance the security of the Republic of Macedonia and its citizens, in accordance with the available resources and active cooperation with the international community. In itself it systematically includes political, economic, defense, internal security, social, environmental and other fields. The main long-term goal of national security policy is to protect, maintain and enhance the security situation in the country, creating an environment for the realization of national interests of the country.

Modern nation-states are committed to developing and promoting all aspects of security, especially human, social, energy, economic, environmental and others. Particular importance is paid to creating conditions for the promotion of human security, which emphasizes the protection of economic, environmental, health, political and all other kinds of security of individuals and communities. Rule of law, transparency and accountability are important tools for improving the safety of man and an internal and external security of state.

41 Ibid, p.132,133. Broaden see: Simić D., Science of Security, Official Gazette , FPN, Beograd, 2002, str. 30th

42 Ibid, p.133. Broaden see: Dimitrijević C., appearance security in international Relations, Union lawyers, Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1973, p. 20th

43 Ibid, p.133. Broaden see: M. Bajagić (2007): basic safety, CPA, Belgrade, p. 29th

44 Ibid, p. 133. Broaden see: C. Prabhakaran Paleri (2008), National Security: Imperative and Challenges, That McGraw - Hill Publishing Company Limited, New Delhi, str. 46th

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DYNAMICS OF THE RELATION BETWEEN THE EDUCATION FOR SECURITY AND THE NEEDS OF SOCIETY

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Abstract: In the present paper, the authors review conditionality between the education for security and the society where such education is being provided. Ranging from conditioning to autonomy, education and society establish dialog and interactions at multiple planes and relations. The dynamics of their relations causes changes that occur both at society and at education side. The constituents acting from the society towards the education in general and education for security are considered dominant. Strategies from the highest level of society are being analyzed, as they gain different degrees of relevance for education in the field of security, depending on security conceptualization approach. On the other hand, contribution of educational institutions, constituting institutional framework of education, is being considered towards meeting the expressed needs of society in the field of security. Structures and functions of these institutions, although having their internal organizational logic, influence persistence, maintenance or change of a given security concept by the means of their value system, objectives, contents and studying methods, with the potential of long-term shaping of the nature of society as a whole.

Keywords: Security, Education, Public Goods, Educational Needs

INTRODUCTION

In democratic societies, both education and security are closely related to common interest and fundamental needs of society and individual. Basic, common norms necessary to build democratic states are available in rhetoric, normative acts, strategic documents, and defined goals, purposes and trends of development for their educational and security policies. In that manner, the fundamental values of democracy – inviolability of individual, supremacy of human rights, equality before law, social mobility based on merit, to name but a few, do not permit individuals, organizations or holders of public authority to respect or ignore them at their own discretion. States make the wise decision to preserve certain segments of social life, especially education, health and social policy, to some extent from the “invisible hand” of the market, which is, however, easier to recognize in the proclaimed intentions, than in real life situations.

In modern conditions the understanding of security ranges from the traditional concept, which is central to security paradigm of states and the international system, towards a more complex discourse, which, in addition to the above, includes the community and individuals,

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as well as the environment, thus formulating human and societal security (Buzan et al., 1998), and environmental security. Difficulties in defining the very notion of security arise, among others, from different understandings of the fundamental values that we are trying to protect, that is the answer to the question of *who* or *what the subject is security*, that is, *whose need for security* we try to meet, whose security we consider important and whose not. From there, it continues to develop answers to other key security questions, such as: what can be considered as an issue of security or in what ways can security be achieved (Williams, 2012: 44).

If security cannot be precisely defined, a legitimate question to rise is: what is the use of this term in the education for security study? It is beneficial to understand it, at least to some extent, and to use it as a signifier of the direction that needs to be taken for analysis of an activity, relevant documents, regulations, curriculum or program of individual courses. This does not necessarily have to reach the level of definition, however it reflects the perspective from which we look at the subject of study, which in the context of a paradigm may lead to a kind of conclusion, while in the context of another it may significantly differ. From the standpoint of education for security, which, as well as the concept of security, it is not politically neutral, the decisive question is not only what security is, but also what security could be. One of the tasks of the entire education is to keep the pace with the changes, preparing those who are educated not only for the present but also the possible future roles, thus enabling such potential roles. In essentially disputed field of security, education, by its nature, should move *ahead of necessity* imposed by the current situation, which gives a distinct advantage to traditional content security, and expands areas of *freedom* (Cvetkovic, 2010), even if seems idealistic under the current circumstances.

The notion of security has no fixed meaning throughout history, and the exceptional dynamism of this field makes it vulnerable to changes within one and the same time and space. The dynamics of these changes depends on the unequal effects of forces acting within the broader political, economic and cultural context. Inter-influence of many social factors, primarily the functioning of the political stakeholders, leads the formulation of various development strategies in trying to manage the changes. As a result, as well as a critical counterweight and autonomous actor, a certain form of education for security develops in a given society. It is often a natural product of a particular community, so the community can be judged by analyzing the chosen form of education. Moving away from the obvious facts, but striving to comprehend the essence, we have tried to analyze the relevant development documents in the field of security and the domain of education, their rhetorical and substantive mutual congruence and the actual potential of meeting the security and educational needs of the population.

FROM THEORY TO STRATEGY

One of the key issues in contemporary politics is the production and management of social changes. Today's way of existence is part of a trend which, in most secular states, we do not consider God's will, or a natural force, but the consequence of previous acts /or omissions/ and the cause of any future changes. Awareness of the fact that there is no final state is a part of a philosophical position according to which the man is "a being that not only is, but also knows that it is. He independently explores the nature of his world and changes it as planned" (Jaspers, 1998: 7). In other words, history is to be understood as a "lesson about responsibility" (Stojanovic, 2015) the leading political actors, as well as the other social actors, civil sector and individuals. Their will, ability and objective opportunities to articulate and act to implement long-term and short-term strategy impose the achievement of selected development options.

Assuming that there is an a priori plan, rather than drifting from one short-term option to the other on the “political winds of change”, the relevant social strategies can be expected to draw attention to the ways to bring the previously selected concepts into life. Each strategy is indicated by its predecessor, the theory. Regardless of the paradigm of security within whose framework we are moving, providing the security should not underestimate the role of the state; with the traditional concept indicating it as paramount, and the newer, multi-dimensional approach noting that it largely influences ensuring the capacity to ensure safety. Clear strategies of democratic development, their compliance and internal coherence can be considered the first necessary step under the planning implementation of conceptual ideas. If countries are organized in a way that provides the greatest benefit to the greatest number of citizens, the interests of all should also be equally represented in strategic documents. View of the society, however, usually is the “view from above”, from the perspective of the elite. Some social scientists even claim that the ultimate “trick” of the elite is in fact apparent neutrality in the interpretation of society, which still provides for the reproduction of power. In the area of security, growing inequality between countries as well as within most of the countries focuses on the question of unequal distribution of power, which also leads to exacerbating one of the most important issues of conceptualization of security - “security for whom.” Mere asking those questions becomes a profound shift with a dual meaning – guided by the values, without accepting anything beforehand. An exhaustive examination asking questions to analyze the concept of security (Lipovac, 2014: 63-67) refers to several authors², not always in the same manner, on key security issues. From these, we can decide on precedence of value orientation or choice of the reference object of security. If the order of presentation is a priority, it seems to be careless assigning priority to the security object, as if its choice does not depend on the value orientation.

Concepts are changing as circumstances, the society and the people who formulate them change. The delicate “balance of fear” in the Cold War period, perhaps made, say, nuclear warfare unthinkable, but security could not be the topic in the climate of fear. As the “gambling stakes” grew higher with the increased awareness of the deficiencies and weaknesses of the traditional concepts in answering the growing number of new security questions. The answers to security questions are increasingly sought for beyond traditional security corps, in the civilian sector and particularly in the academic world. Although, as expected, the area of security is inextricably burdened by ideology, “the entry of civilians” in this sector reinforces the professionalization of security affairs because it strengthens the theoretical foundation of the security experts’ education, their autonomy in their work, and favors the emergence of new, more equitable, more complete concepts, new paradigms and even greater compliance of state policy with the needs of all categories of the population (Katic, 2015). New answers are offered with each new, more comprehensive elaboration and conceptualization variant. Some of them, in some areas, may also be recognized among the strategic documents.

Insufficient development of the theoretical concept of security is also reflected in the understanding of the relevance of certain aspects of social development to strengthen security. In strategic document which defines the ways and paths of implementing the concept of security, security strategy should equally operationalize and incorporate the basic postulates of other social strategies. The general issue of /non/compliance among the equal ranking strategies is one of the reasons for their relative success to respond to the real needs of society. The *National Security Strategy of the Republic of Serbia* (hereinafter: the NSSRS) provides more than confirmation of the multidimensional understanding of security; it also provides a rare

2 Authors presented: Baldwin, D. A., Teriff, T. (et al.), Møller, B., Hyde-Price, A., Williams, P. D., Powell, R. L., Dragišić, Z., Buzan, B. & Hansen, L. and Lipovac, M.

example in the former Yugoslavia³, which explicitly stipulates its human dimension. In all former Yugoslav countries, the different characters of security had been recognized, such as economic, health, demographic, environmental, social, and other aspects associated with enhanced security agenda. Safety systems which are further operationalized, institutions and personnel are, however, adjusted to the traditional challenges and threats, offering concrete answers to address them.

The absence of detailed elaboration on solving human security problems indicates that the shift away from state-centric security is still insufficient. For this security dimension to be equally represented, the NSSRS would need to increasingly rely on other national strategies. Some of these are, for example, the *Strategy for Information Society Development*, the *National Youth Strategy*, the *Strategy of Prevention and Protection against Discrimination*, the *National Strategy for Gender Equality*, the *Strategy of Health and Safety at Work*, as well as various strategies on development of energy sector, agriculture, etc. Wide range of safeguarded values would, at least conditionally, expand the staff base that might be considered security personnel and would include new state and non-state actors. In that sense, the actors who can contribute the implementation of measures and activities of importance for the safety were identified, including independent state bodies such as the Ombudsman, the Commissioner for Information of Public Importance and Personal Data Protection and the Commissioner for Equality. In addition to traditional subjects of security, being military and police, and civil security experts, increasingly similar roles are to be accepted by the members of civil society organizations, trade unions, professional associations, and even international organizations. The contribution of these actors to protect the rights of individuals in relation to public administration authorities, promoting and preserving the health of the productive population, improvement of working conditions or the situation of vulnerable groups, to name a few, would be that the topics above would be recognized to the greater extent as security problems, especially if we are willing to concede that the state and its organs are often “part of the problem” as much as “part of the solution” for security issues. These problems are often mentioned in national security strategies, however rarely elaborated.

As a standpoint that is most directly linked to changes in the sphere of education for security, which might additionally affect the dynamics of their relationship, one of the elements “of security policies in other areas of social life” in the NSSRS refers to “raising awareness about the importance of education for national security”, along with the stipulation that “development of citizens’ security culture, especially among the youth, is an important basis for improving national security” (NSSRS/SNBRS, 2009: 27). The importance of education in this document is expressed at least as an initial impulse from which the complementary values in different areas of social life could be identified – such as education and security, rather than a “user manual” for solving some of the aspects of their development. We have seen that in the past, solutions for these relationships were short-term, lacking continuity, changing by leaps and bounds, and often being dependent on many factors which have acted beyond the possibilities of control by the professional community of both sectors. However, the strategy as a “system roadmap”, the direction in which the security plans to move, suggests that even in our time, the NSSRS could provide support for a change in the current mode of education for security, especially the security of citizens. The versatility of the security concept does not facilitate that undertaking, yet allows for the establishment of harmony between many dissenting elements and a more complete harmonization of social needs for security and its provision.

³ Apart from the NSSRS, human security is explicitly being mentioned only in the Resolution on the National Security Strategy of the Republic of Slovenia (*Resolucija o strategiji nacionalne varnosti Republike Slovenije*, (2010), Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 27)

FROM NEEDS TO EDUCATION

Education for security may be understood if we have a general idea about education in general. It is always a complex and multidimensional undertaking, with an uncertain outcome. Scope of education in the modern age is evaluated as top achievements as often as the most terrible failures. Both attitudes indicate the enormous expectations that are imposed upon the education. Although not a panacea that cures all ills, education is undoubtedly a necessary condition for individual and social development. Even if we did not go as far as H. G. Wells⁴ who concluded that the entire history of mankind is “a furious race between education and catastrophe,” we must agree that education is one of the most effective ways to try keeping the pace with the ever-faster changes.

The importance of education is indicated by the fact that the right to obtain education is internationally recognized as a human right in the corpus of social and economic rights. There is a growing advocacy for this right, together with the right to basic health care, to be regulated by the International Covenant on Civil and Political Freedoms and Rights, thus practically equaling it with the right to live, freedom of thought and religion, the right to free elections and the like. In fact, “the extent to which knowledge allows social propulsivity, moving through the social strata and real participation in political decision-making, indicates the degree of democracy in a society” (Jelincic, 2013: 35). However, the value and organizational adjustment of educational institutions to the (neo) liberal oriented society is increasingly less sensitive to the public interest and the common good. Although expectations posed upon the education are growing, it has diminishing support, less money, and lower respect in many countries (Hargreaves, Lo, 2000). Due to that, Hargreaves and Lo conclude that the teaching profession is the true paradoxical profession.

References to the public good in scientific papers and research sphere are increasing, but the real effects of these developments in the practice of education are insufficient – especially when it comes to higher education. There is a growing concern over the increasing number of indications that previously strong concept of public education in Europe is weakening. While the ministers of higher education in their declarations advocate⁵ for something that was obvious yesterday, supporting the idea that higher education should be considered a public good, “it is often an indication that more is not so obvious” (Bergan, 2006: 14) and that the public space is increasingly shrinking. If the public good is conditionally determined as a good that is *accessible to all* and *enjoyed by all*, being *non-rival* and *non-exclusive*, it seems that the attention is being diverted from the idea of community and the common good towards efficiency, practical application and profit. Symptoms of such change include the terminology that increasingly “overflows” from the economic sphere to teaching vocabulary. Glossary of “vision-mission” competences, “input-outcome” of resources, management and efficiency, increasingly replace pedagogical and educational goals, needs, knowledge, wisdom, attitudes, beliefs, and other humanitarian values.

If we combine our initial observations with the theories and concepts of educational needs, where to teaching science based some of its rules, we may ask: *whose needs for security* would the education for security need to meet? This “bridging”, quite in line with the new

4 Herbert George Wells, a British writer, best known for the work of science fiction *War of the Worlds*. He came to fame after radio drama aired in 1938 on CBS (Columbia Broadcasting System), which was directed by the famous Orson Welles and implemented as a direct broadcast of an alien invasion, with many panicked listeners across America taking it for granted.

5 *The Bologna Declaration, The European Higher Education Area*, the Joint Declaration of the European Ministers of Higher Education (1999); *Prague Declaration, Toward the European Higher Education Area*, Communiqué of the meeting of European Ministers of Higher Education, (2001).

security paradigm, rests on psychological knowledge which has established by Maslow in his hierarchical structure of needs (Maslow, 1982). The need for safety and security is, as a reminder, at the foundation of his pyramid structure, right after physiological, and far ahead of the need to belong, associate, to obtain knowledge or self-actualization. The basic character of these needs suggests that the security is the universal human need, which should be also satisfied. One can also draw many other parallels between the needs in general and the need for security. The sequence of satisfying these needs, for instance, assigns the priority to unmet needs, if a deficit or a difference between the desired and the actual security situation are established. However, if the need for security is observed solely as the lack thereof, one would remain only at the adaptation to the existing reality. The new security paradigm goes a step further, taking into account the development and objectives established by the society, in line with its perception of the future, established by the society, in addition to the current requirements. In that sense, education for security should provide not only the answers to the pertinent questions, but also to the historically neglected questions of human and societal security, as well as the environmental security.

In a world characterized by an increasing asymmetry of power and wealth, realistic political frameworks of research and thus the teaching of security would have left many increasingly relevant areas of security outside scientific observations of the security. Security of a limited group of countries or narrow podium of eternal elite is decreasingly considered self-evident and the only indicator of security. Poverty reduction, “economic growth without development” (Quobo, 2012), the lack of inclusive growth, inequality, and many other “battles without a front line” can be maintained by strengthening community groups and individuals, enabling them to implement many small solutions that make life better. One of the interpretations of the contemporary problem of terrorism is based, among other things, on closing perspectives and hopelessness for many.⁶ Contributing to the empowerment of these new reference groups can also be provided by education.⁷ It may establish, develop and strengthen the sensibility to understand the world as a unified whole by fostering discourse on security as indivisible need of all human beings.

For the security to be a realistic option for increasing number of people and the good everyone enjoys, it is necessary that a new security paradigm, present in political and scientific discussions, gets institutionally strengthened, through the educational process of forming a professional civilian security staff, along with the prospects for their employment. The deeper conceptual knowledge of the security acquired by long-term university education firstly provide for identifying and defining phenomena of reality relevant for security, and then for influencing them. In fact, the academic study of security led to a change of focus and understanding of the unique and immutable essence of security for all.

Whether we observe the security of the individual first and discover the security of the unit subsequently, by analogy, or vice versa, human security is not possible without the self-activity of individual persons. Their unique life situation and the possibility to change in the preferred direction will depend, among other things, on whether one possesses knowledge that is essential for the actual practice of security. Two sources of power to change in the conceptualization and practice of safety are becoming the knowledge of professionals who think outside the dogmas and the knowledge of individuals who are pressing to strengthen their own security.

6 Charismatic leader of Palestinian Hamas, Sheikh Ahmad Jasin, “poetically” expresses this situation by saying “When all the doors are locked, Allah opens a gate.” (from: Ćirjaković, 2013: 18).

7 Name of the militant sect *Boko haram* (from *book*), meaning “western education is prohibited, a sin”, in a manner confirms the power assigned to the education.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS
AND EDUCATIONAL CONTENTS

The need for security has individual and social dimension. Traditional and expanded concept of security should balance these two complementary parts of the same unit. Today's disproportion in favor of the traditional concept, particularly in the institutional practice, would neglect the human dimension of security against the security of the state. The complete absence of education for security of the young population, under any forms and levels of education, is one of the consequences of this imbalance. Educational institutions for training of security personnel are one of the means of meeting the needs of society for security, with the other important part of it possibly being different forms of individual education of all persons.

Identification and awareness of educational needs of society and individuals in the area of security introduces civilian security personnel together with the general population into the security discourse, in addition to traditional personnel. In the area of professional training of personnel, societies make different choices; in some areas only military and / or police personnel should be trained, while in the others, specific civilian security staff needs to be included. The choice between these forms is not always in line with the dominant theoretical orientation, sometimes even with the stated strategic orientations of a given society, so there is suspicion that it is the product of chance or a concession. In the Serbian society, the concept of security and strategic security commitments favor the need to view the security multifunctional, which had provided that the educational reality, apart from the institutions of military and police training, also includes civilian institutions of higher education that prepare civilian security personnel – the Faculty of Security Studies, University of Belgrade. With this solution, the society strives to achieve own vision of desirable development of integrated security macro-level through education. It plans, establishes, funds, organizes and evaluates educational institutions that contribute to the formation of certain structures of value and harmonized professional structure. In accordance with the needs, possibilities, ruling political and other interests, traditions and level of scientific development, ideological and other circumstances, the society always supports and encourages either preserving or various aspects of developmental role, changing society in the desired direction. Burdened by inertia, civilian security studies have been founded on the principle of passive strategy of needs reduction, taking into account largely traditional jobs and security requirements of the largest, or the only, employer - the state (Katic, Bralic & Stanarevic, 2012: 158). Some orientations and courses which are taught at the faculty make rare, active breaches into the expanded field of security. The Department of Environmental Protection or the course Human Security largely corresponds with the expanded security agenda and the concept of human security. There is a noticeable lack of facilities necessary for the understanding and participation in the activities of civil society, as well as the deficit of the matter that would ensure the acquisition of knowledge related to the functioning and regulation of the European Union, to which Serbia aspires. Some contents to which current jobs or institutions show no interest, such as the majority of critical security theories, move “up” towards the education levels after the basic academic studies.

The curriculum studied at the Faculty of Security Studies “covers” the main segments of security, defense, security in the narrow sense, civil protection and environmental protection, and resources management, in the balanced manner. Insisting on the study of several branches of sociology, ethics, psychology and other fundamental social and humanistic disciplines is the main quality of these studies. From the standpoint of security affairs professionalization and the degree of autonomy that is possible in their performance, special advantage is the positioning of the Faculty within the field of social-humanitarian sciences is being achieved. The

benefits provided by studying security under the auspices of academic institutions may not be sufficiently utilized yet, but there is a very evident presence of theoretical, abstract, generalizing knowledge. Only this type of knowledge is considered to be sufficiently solid theoretical foundation for the possibility of creative movement towards the general, wider and diverse educational objectives, which cannot be reached by useful, yet narrow and specific ways of education, qualification or training. Creative changing the existing, influencing the dynamics of change and shifting the balance of security comprehending is possible only with the knowledge and understanding of concepts, causes of certain phenomena and processes, i.e. based on a solid theoretical foundation. Technical, procedural or technological aspects of security also rely on this foundation, because without them, the staff becomes mere executors without authority, or at least without autonomy. The relationship between education and the needs of society without autonomous security elaboration would remain static and unchangeable for a long time. They would change, regardless of the form of education, as in the past, because of expectations that the education should be value-neutral, so it could take form of any dominant ideology. The level of the dynamics pertinent to these relationships, or the lack thereof indicates the degree of freedom in the scientific elaboration of security and society as a whole.

If we assume that the classical postulate of the state as the dominant object abstracted security needs of individuals and groups, or were they considered to the extent necessary for the particular situation in which they are used, the expanded security agenda is attempting to rectify this disproportion. From the perspective of the “hard core security” employees, and not only them, boundless expansion of the concept may also act as weakening of readily achieved standards of security and sovereignty. Greater professionalization of security affairs entails acting in accordance with the formal or informal set of norms of professional ethics which obliges the altruistic behavior and acting in the common interest. In this sense “any abuse of professional knowledge and position for their own interests or the interests of the organization can be characterized as a professional pathology” (Zupanov, Sporer, 1986: 49). Responsible positions of traditional security personnel have often been burdened by a tense relationship between loyalty to the authority of the state and professional standards of the profession, which often considers such personnel as “semi-professions”. Academically educated security personnel in this regard suffer “only” the pressure of liberty and their own conscience.

If education is viewed as a holistic process of preparing a human for all the important aspects of his life, then the neglect of youth education for security can be interpreted as if their security was not as important as the security of the state or that they, at best, that in terms of security, they should confidently rely on it. Neither theoretical concepts, nor declarative strategic security preferences are designed for such a possibility. The Education Development Strategy in Serbia (hereinafter: the EDSS) also provides that “the primary and secondary education to nurture a culture of security and provide the knowledge necessary for effective action to reduce the risk of disaster” (EDSS/SROS, 2012: 10). It remains unclear whether this standpoint emphasizes a culture of security, or protection against disasters. Judging by the fact that the security in the text below deals mainly within the social care of children, it seems that human security is not the focus. Strategies are often more of a “wish list” than realistic development options, thus their implementation largely depends on the fundamental social changes. Yet, these changes would be facilitated if the strategies envisaged so. However, the fact that is at least mentioned in the National Security Strategy cannot be found in the Strategy for the Development of Education.

Judging by the lack of systematic education of citizens, which could contribute to their security culture, it seems that possessing the knowledge of security is considered essential component of competency in a democratic society. Many socially-engaged education theo-

rists have long been claiming that the entire education, despite the didactic optimism, is organized so that it provides greater contribution to social reproduction power and strengthening the social, cultural and economic capital of the ruling classes (Apple, 2012; Bourdije, Paseron, 2014), than to knowledge-based social advancement. Proclaimed and educational reality coincides in a small number of societies, presently. We shall agree that Spencer was right when he claimed that one of the most important issues related to the process of education is the question of “which knowledge has the greatest value.” It is a “misleading, simple question” (Apple, 2012: 29) because it sublimes the whole complexity of the ideological and political influence to education. Education is never value-neutral, but the question is whose values are in its presumed foundation. If it should contribute to the well-being of all people, then truths that are taught in schools should be the truth of each of us. In the field of security, and human security in particular, such a change would lead to changing perspective from which the society is observed and study contents are selected. Perhaps the most descriptive, current issue of today is an example of refugee / migrant crisis, which can be viewed from the state-centric standpoint, thus dealing with the issues of borders and the dangers of terrorism, or, on the other hand, in terms of specific individuals injured and deal with the issues of human rights, tolerance, the fight against racism and related contents. The ones who, therefore, have the most to gain from what is taught, who decide what constitutes or should represent official knowledge, who define what is a security problem and what is not, and decides on the ones who do have access to education and knowledge, holds economic, political and cultural power, and is safe to the greatest extent possible.

Knowledge about the possibility of change and the manner of its implementation are some of the most important factors in the success of reform initiatives. The dynamics of change does not only depend on the strategy, but also on responsible management of change, which usually lacks (Fullan, 2004). Clear strategies are just the first step, which should be followed by strengthening the capacity for change, increasing the level of participation and dialogue between stakeholders, knowledge of organization, as well as the consent of the professional community on the need for change. Complex forces at work in the field of education in general are also acting in the sphere of education for security. Security relevant issues extend to the questions the education system quality, its availability to the general population, the level of literacy of the population, and finally the content and methods of study. The unfavorable state of the education system is increasingly narrowing the education goals that it is trying to achieve, until they are reduced to mere issues of economic efficiency, as if the educational institutions were “personnel departments” of economic entities or /private/ companies. If contents of study lack human, societal, or even general security, it seems that the goals of education are not safe society and individuals.

CONCLUSION

Education for security and society’s needs for security are dynamic categories that change under the influence of many factors. Ranging from conditionality to the autonomy of education and society generates dialogue and interaction in multiple planes and relations. The dominant influence moves from the society towards the education. On the declarative level, the strategic security documents stress the importance of specific education in the field of security. The society accordingly opted for a particular form of professional education of security staff by forming specific university institution of higher education in the field of security, along with the institutions of military and police education. On the other hand, the lack of coherence of national strategies on various aspects of social life had imposed that the

strategic document on the development of education contains no indication, apart from the most generalized ones, of the importance of education for security, so it is not carried out systematically, for the entire population.

Although the theoretical concept of security and the associated security strategy takes into account the concept of multifunctional security, it is yet to be recognized by the public as the recipient environment, thus the security affairs are still being considered predominantly under the scope of work of the “hard security core” employees, rather than professional academic staff, especially not all citizens. For the change to come to life, equal respect of the needs of society and individuals is necessary. Critical thinking, scientific expertise and ethical issues of security, on the one hand, and the pressure of stakeholders who have yet to become agents of their own security, on the other, can jointly lead to the transformation of the theory of implied options into living reality. Educational institutions have the potential to change, but they are inseparable from economic, social and political changes in a society. The structures and functions of these institutions, although having their internal organizational logic, system of values, objectives, contents and methods of studying security, may affect the duration, maintaining or changing a certain concept of security, and the society character in general in the long run. By their nature, they should do more to “pull” the changes in a society and step towards them, than to accept a passive position, one of a “dragged” object.

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NEW FORMS OF TERRORISM – CHALLENGES FOR CRIMINAL LEGISLATION

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Abstract: Terrorism is undoubtedly one of the most manifested forms of criminal phenomena. Namely, the changes in the structure of this criminal phenomenon are so evident that it is justifiable to talk about the challenges in modern criminal legislation. It is undisputed that there are incriminations directly linked to terrorism, but the problem is how to legally define all terrorist manifestations as criminal offences in terms of precision, clarity and unambiguity. In addition, terrorism entails not only terrorist acts, but also terrorism financing, public invitation to terrorist activities, terrorist recruitment, terrorism training, execution of terrorist activities abroad, organization of terrorist groups. It is precisely these forms of terrorism that pose a challenge for criminal legislation, because many dilemmas emerge in terms of their incrimination (Criminal Code – the General and Special Part) and proving (Criminal Procedure Code). Their relation with the existing criminal law institutes draws special attention, such as provocation as a form of complicity, involvement of more persons in a terrorist activity and similar. Likewise, collecting evidence for the above committed offences poses a challenge, especially under aggravating circumstances. Thus, many problems arise in an attempt to prove the participation of the citizens from parent countries in terrorist activities (foreign terrorist fighters). This paper provides an overview of new criminal offences concerning terrorism with a special review of incriminating circumstances related to both Criminal Code and Criminal Procedure Code.

Keywords: terrorism, criminal offence, terrorism financing, public invitation to terrorist activities, terrorist recruitment, terrorism training, foreign terrorist fighters, organization of terrorist groups.

INTRODUCTION

Terrorism, as a phenomenon with a much accentuated dynamic, in its historical genesis, has changed many times in form and content. Throughout the history of terrorism this phenomenon has always been pervasive and has elicited a lot of public attention. The violence during the French Revolution (1789-1799) became its significant agent, bombing attacks marked a period of anarchism (during the 19th century), airplane hijackings disgusted the public from the second half of the twentieth century, while religious radicalism has become an attribute of modern times (from the end of the 20th century). However, it seems that this last phase in the historical genesis of terrorism has trumped all of previous concepts of this phenomenon, where the repercussions are far reaching and affect international relations and geopolitics, which will be even more accentuated in the future². Besides that, terrorism has

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² Šikman, M. (2015). Aktuelna prijetnja terorizmom i okvir reagovanja. *Bezbjednost, policija, građani*, 3-4/15, 5-24.

further escalated in the last twenty years and has trumped the familiar forms and shapes of manifestation, and hence is a serious threat to international peace and security and is therefore in the group of the most serious crimes³. Thus for Richard A. Falk, a respected American professor of international law, “mega terrorism”⁴ is a unique challenge, which differs from previous manifestation of global terrorism in its force, volume and ideology, since it is a serious endeavor to transform the world order as a whole, not just the structures of power of one or more sovereign countries⁵. The French academic and philosopher Alain de Benoist considers terrorism to be an asymmetric war of the global world, which he calls “hyper terrorism”⁶. The prominent theoretician on terrorism Walter Laqueur points out a new position on “super terrorism” and “postmodern terrorism”, stating that: “the character of terrorism is changing, all limitations which once existed are fading and, above all, the threat to human life has become endlessly greater than it ever was”⁷. In fact, today we live in an era in which terrorism draws constant attention⁸. Namely, the brutal terrorist attacks, simultaneous on different continents, the number of victims and the terrorist collective that controls a certain territory and its inhabitants are key characteristics of “new” “modern” “contemporary” terrorism⁹.

Terrorism is one of the phenomena which have been included in international law for many decades¹⁰. International law has so far been limited in designating individual terrorist manifestations (airplane hijackings, taking hostages, attack on internationally protected individuals, assassinations, bombing attacks, etc.) through international legal acts – conventions¹¹. Due to the increased escalation of terrorism and the global danger that it poses, this approach has changed in the last few years and is reflected through the adoption of legally binding documents, which are not linked to specific incidents and are limited in time, but are related to every act of terrorism which is a threat to peace and security, regardless of the sig-

3 Security Council Res. 1377. (2001). *Adopted by the Security Council at its 4413th meeting, on 12 November 2001, S/RES/1377.*

4 Falk considers mega terrorism to be violence directed at civil targets, which achieves considerable levels of material and symbolic damage, which was once only possible with a wide scale military attack. Falk, R. (2003). *The Great Terror War*. Northampton, MA: Olive Branch Press.

5 Falk, R. (2003). *The Great Terror War*. Northampton, MA: Olive Branch Press.

6 Hyper terrorism is in his opinion a product of the globalization process – where just like multinational companies, terrorism is without a state and therefore uses gray zones of our planet, those where there are no legal political structures and control. Terrorism is under the influence of that proclaimed to be an “act of war”, a war without territories and battlefields, which introduces a constant global state of emergency. Benoist, A. de. (2007). *Global Terrorism and the State of Permanent Exception: the Significance of Carl Schmitt's Thought today*. London: Routledge; Benoist, A. de. (2013). *Carl Schmitt Today. Terrorism, “Just” War, and the State of Emergency*. Londres: Arktos Media Ltd.

7 Laqueur, W. (1996). Postmodern Terrorism. *Foreign Affairs* 75(5): 24–36; Laqueur, W. (1999). *The New Terrorism: Fanaticism and the Arms of Mass Destruction*. New York: Oxford University Press; Laqueur, W. (2004). The Terrorism to Come. *Policy Review* Aug & Sep 2004(126) 49–64.

8 Hipp, V. (2015). *The New Terrorism: How to Fight It and Defeat It*. Bloomfield Hills: Countinghouse Press, Inc. 9 That terrorism is becoming an integral part of everyday life; terrorist activity is more and more carried out in a different way and with different methods; in a state of global social changes, we can see an emersion of new forms of terrorism; the terrorist threat from nuclear, chemical and biological terrorism is more and more prevalent; changes are important in the way terrorist organizations are organized. Šikman, M. (2016). Foreign Terrorist Fighters – Different Points of View. *Compresie Approach to Counter Radicalisam and Extremism – Future Challenges for Counter Terrorism Process* (Eds. Denis Čaleta, Paul Shemella). Ljubljana: Ministry of Defence. (161-176).

10 See more: Šikman, M. (2016). Foreign Terrorist Fighters – Different Points of View. *Compresie Approach to Counter Radicalisam and Extremism – Future Challenges for Counter Terrorism Process* (Eds. Denis Čaleta, Paul Shemella). Ljubljana: Ministry of Defence. (161-176)

11 There are eighteen universal instruments (fourteen instruments and four amendments) against international terrorism have been elaborated within the framework of the United Nations system relating to specific terrorist activities. , as well as 156 resolutions related to suppressing terrorism, from which the Security Council resolutions (48) are especially important are legally binding documents for all member states..

nificance and international effects – United Nations resolutions. Although there is not a universally accepted definition for terrorism in international law, the generally accepted standpoint is that terrorism cannot be justified through any motives, either political, philosophical, ideological, race related, ethnic, religious or other reasons¹², while being the subject of strong condemnation in all its forms and manifestations, carried out by anyone, anywhere and for any purpose (identifying terrorism with any nationality, religion or ethnic background is strongly dismissed)¹³. The fact that there are incriminations which are directly related to terrorism is indisputable, but a problem is manifested when trying to think of a way to classify all implemented acts under criminal acts, which should be precise, clear and unambiguous. Hence, when looking at modern movements in comparative criminal law, we can recognize a phase of incrimination hypertrophy in the field of combating terrorism¹⁴. On the one hand the number of terrorist acts has risen and on the other stern penalties have been stipulated in accordance to the recommendations of international sources¹⁵.

The above mentioned poses the key issue in this paper, which is how to encompass new forms of terrorist manifestations into norms of criminal legislature: in which way to incriminate all behaviour that is deemed terrorist, while fulfilling the strict criteria of criminal law, above all for the norms to be designated and precise to the fullest extent (*lex certa*), justified and necessary (legitimate), while the stipulated criminal penalties being fair and proportional. There is no dilemma that the mentioned problems pose a great challenge for modern criminal legislature since it opens up various dilemmas in respect to their incrimination (criminal code – general and special part), as well as in respect to their proof (law on criminal procedure). Their relation to current institutes of criminal law is especially pronounced, as are soliciting and aiding as forms of complicity, alliance of more individuals for carrying out criminal acts, etc. On the same token, a special challenge is gathering evidence for the mentioned committed criminal acts, especially when it is tied to aggravating circumstances (i.e. proving participation in terrorist activity abroad).

NEW FORM AND CONTENT TERRORISM

Global changes at hand have a large impact on the character of terrorism, and thus lead to changes in trends, tendencies and movements of terrorism. Global terrorism is characterized by its volume, both in the implementation, as well as in the number of victims it creates. The development of information technology has enabled the news of terrorist attacks to spread very quickly, whereby the effects of terrorism gain significance and as a result creates a bigger spectacle in the actions and in attaining economical principles in terms of used resources and accomplished goals. It is the reason why the fear of global terrorism has taken on global proportions. New emerging forms of terrorism are appearing and certain forms of terrorism are becoming prevalent (first of all suicide terrorism). Likewise, terrorism is being carried out inspired by ideas of radical fundamentalism (radical Islamic fundamentalism), which differentiates it from all other forms of terrorism by its methods and resources in carrying out terrorist acts¹⁶.

12 United Nations, General Assembly. (1994). *Declaration on Measures to Eliminate International Terrorism, contained in the annex to General Assembly resolution 49/60 of 9 December 1994*, Retrieved February 25, 2016 from <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/49/a49r060.htm>

13 Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe – OSCE. (2002). *OSCE Charter On Preventing And Combating Terrorism*. Porto: Ministerial Council.

14 Kolarić, D. (2013). Nova koncepcija krivičnih dela terorizma u Krivičnom zakoniku Republike Srbije, *Crimena, (IV) 1/2013*, 49–71.

15 Stojanović, Z., Kolarić, D. (2014). *Krivičnopravno suzbijanje organizovanog kriminaliteta, terorizma i korupcije*, Beograd: Edicija Crimena, str. 159.

16 Hence, the strengthening of religious fanaticism and religious indoctrination of certain potential terrorists is noticeable. This tendency is supported by the increase of religious terrorism, which strives to

Global terrorism is characterized by global terrorist radicalization as a process where an individual gradually accepts terrorist violence as a possible, perhaps even a legitimate course of action. Terrorist radicalization can appear in the most different conditions, in different ways and different rates. Ultimately, that can lead someone to advocate, support or participate in terrorism. Every case of terrorist radicalization and recruitment rises from a cross section of society that enabled such radicalization, from personal circumstances and the psychology of the given man or woman. The terms “self-guided” and “self-initialized” radicalization is often used in cases where there is a minimum level of interaction with people who actively seek to radicalize and recruit individuals.¹⁷ Terrorist radicalization by means of the Internet has become a unique and an increasing concern for nations in the international community. It is connected to the emergence of the so-called lone wolf terrorist or the self-initialized, who seemingly act alone, without any clear external guidance or support¹⁸.

In the past few years the terrorist collective under the name “Islamic State”¹⁹ has been at the centre of attention and it poses a global and up until now the biggest threat to world peace and security²⁰. The name²¹, which carries a certain political message, indicates that this is not a typical terrorist organization, which has a defined structure and membership, but a terrorist collective which controls a designated territory and its inhabitants. Taking into consideration the above mentioned facts, the increase in threats from foreign terrorist fighters is evident, meaning from individuals who travel to foreign countries in order to plan, organize and carry out terrorist acts, or to provide or receive terrorist training and to recruit for terrorism. What is similar to other terrorist groups, principally Al-Qaida, is that it spreads the ideology of global jihad²², just in a much more dangerous, brutal and different way. Based on available

link the religious feelings of people and certain intellectual circles who are devoted to a certain religion to the frustrations of the poor and humiliated and on that basis to organize resistance to certain (usually different) social and religious groups. Stajić, Lj. (2006). Postmoderni terorizam, organizovani kriminal i korupcija kao savremeni bezbednosni izazovi, rizici i pretnje, *Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta Univerziteta u Novom Sadu*, br. 2, 381–382.

17 Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe - OSCE. (2014). *Preventing Terrorism and Countering Violent Extremism and Radicalization that Lead to Terrorism: A Community-Policing*, Vienna: Stanzell Druck Approach.

18 Terrorist radicalization is a dynamic process: it can be sped up, perhaps even slowed down, while in some cases even turned around. In the retrospect, it is important to differentiate between the push and pull factors. Silke, A. (2003). Becoming a terrorist. In: Andrew Silke (Ed.), *Terrorists, Victims and Society: Psychological Perspectives on Terrorism and its Consequences*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

19 The Islamic State is rooted from the Jordanian terrorist Abu Musab al Zarqawi, who is deemed as the founder and inspirer of this ideology in 2003, when the first foreign terrorist fighters started coming. After that in 2006 the Islamic State in Iraq was formed by Abu Omar Baghdad, up until 2012 when there is a fall out with the Al Nusra Front and the forming of the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria. Finally, in June 2014, the group established a caliphate and changed its name into the Islamic State – IS.

20 The statement comes from the preamble of Resolution 2249 of the United Nations Security Council, which states: Determining that, by its violent extremist ideology, its terrorist acts, its continued gross systematic and widespread attacks directed against civilians, abuses of human rights and violations of international humanitarian law, including those driven on religious or ethnic ground, its eradication of cultural heritage and trafficking of cultural property, but also its control over significant parts and natural resources across Iraq and Syria and its recruitment and training of foreign terrorist fighters whose threat affects all regions and Member States, even those far from conflict zones, the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL, also known as Da'esh), constitutes a global and unprecedented threat to international peace and security. Security Council Res. 2249 (2015): Threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts, S/RES/2249 (2015), Retrieved November 25, 2015, from [http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/RES/2249\(2015\)](http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/RES/2249(2015)).

21 Regardless of the fact that in its name the word ‘State’ exists, and the fact that it has got some attributes of a state (territory, inhabitants, government), it is not a state with a sovereign body, since it is not internationally recognized from any other country, but also does not have precisely established borders.

22 Bunzel, C. (2015). *From Paper State to Caliphate: The Ideology of the Islamic Stat*, Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution.

data it can be inferred that this terrorist collective is characterized by a rigid ideology and extremism, brutality in their terrorist activities, including terrorist acts, guerrilla fighting and military actions, administration, recruiting and financing, as well as media propaganda, primarily through the Internet²³.

Terrorist activity is distinguished by the brutality and cruelty in carrying out terrorist acts, which are directed not only at the territory where it takes place, but outside of it as well. Besides that, terrorist activity is distinguished by military strategy which is manifested not only in tactics, but in the use of military equipment and arsenal. Therefore, there is a combination of classic terrorist tactics, including massive implementation of suicide terrorism, as well as using military skills and armament, as in tanks and artillery. Financing is an important characteristic of terrorism today considering the system of financing and the estimates of financial effects. Media propaganda is another specific attribute of global terrorism, with a massive use of all available forms of communication. The use of the Internet and social networks is at the top of the list²⁴.

Moreover, the specificity of terrorism today is the response to terrorism, which greatly exceeds the borders of nations, as well as international authorities. What is especially accentuated is that the response to current terrorism is a response to an "act of war", where armed forces dominantly take part (aviation, navy, cruise missiles, etc.), and less the actual anti-terrorist units which were once a symbol in the fight against terrorism in the 1970's. The mentioned response is accompanied by adequate national security policies, but also a new approach in the legal criminal incrimination of this problem.

NEW INCRIMINATION IN CRIMINAL CODE

The Strategy for prevention and fight against terrorism²⁵ establishes a general framework for Bosnia and Herzegovina's actions in its fight against terrorism and offers guidelines for improving the existing and developing new measures and instruments for the prevention and suppression of terrorism. Protection against terrorism is a state competence, a part of its fundamental function to establish conditions allowing for peaceful and safe life of all its citizens, free from violence and fear, democratic, creative and prosperous, respectful of law and order. Any form of terrorism directed against Bosnia and Herzegovina would be a grave and intolerable threat to the country's fundamental values and interests as it would directly affect security and lives of its citizens. Therefore, Bosnia-Herzegovina's priority is to develop comprehensive measures, national and international, for the prevention of and protection from all forms of terrorism, measures which should produce, along with direct benefits, a strong deterrent effect against any terrorist act targeting Bosnia-Herzegovina²⁶.

The response to terrorism in Bosnia-Herzegovina (B-H), in the paper, is viewed solely through criminal law aspects and how that development progressed²⁷. Namely, the develop-

23 Šikman, M. (2016). Foreign Terrorist Fighters – Different Points of View. *Compreisve Approach to Counter Radicalisam and Extremism – Future Challenges for Counter Terrorism Process* (Eds. Denis Čaleta, Paul Shemella). Ljubljana: Ministry of Defence. (161-176)

24 On the example the most dominant form of communication for the Islamic State is done through the social network Twitter and YouTube channels, but the use of websites is also important, where they serve to promote the jihad-salafist ideology, but also to recruit new foreign terrorist fighters.

25 Ministry of Security. (2015). Strategy of Bosnia and Herzegovina for prevention and fight against terrorism 2015-2020. Sarajevo: Ministry of Security.

26 *Ibidem*.

27 Nonetheless, it should be stated that Bosnia and Herzegovina has remained a cooperative counterterrorism partner and continued to make slow progress in increasing its counterterrorism capacity in 2014. B-H law enforcement agencies generally keep close track of foreign terrorist fighter

ment of criminal law provisions by which terrorism in B-H is incriminated has been intensively taking place in the last 13 years. It is under a great influence from international provisions related to terrorism, which is reflected in its implementation in domestic legislation. This has had an effect on strengthening criminal law repression (stipulating more rigorous punishment) and the increase in the number of terrorist criminal acts. These criminal acts in Bosnia and Herzegovina have been classified in the Criminal Code of B-H²⁸ in the group of criminal acts against humanity and other values ensured by international law, while the most rigorous punishment is stipulated (long-term prison sentence). In addition to the elementary criminal act of terrorism²⁹ (Article 201), a new criminal act was introduced in 2003 for financing terrorist activity³⁰ (Article 202), while in 2010 four more terrorist criminal acts were introduced: public promotion of terrorist activity (Article 202a), canvassing for terrorist activity (Article 202b), training for carrying out terrorist activity (Article 202c) and organizing terrorist groups (Article 202d), in order to adjust the provisions in domestic criminal law with international documents³¹, but also because of an evident escalation of terrorism and behavior linked to it. Likewise, in this law, and basic provisions, a terrorist group is defined (Article 1, Section 23), as an organized group which is made up of at least three individuals, which has been formed and acts in a certain time period with an aim to carry out some of the criminal acts of terrorism.

The criminal act of terrorism is a criminal act which consists of carrying out a terrorist act with the purpose of seriously intimidating the population or compelling authorities of Bosnia and Herzegovina, governments of other states or international organizations to perform or to abstain from performing any act, with the goal of serious destabilization or abolishing political, constitutional, economic or social structures of Bosnia and Herzegovina, other states or international organizations (Paragraph 1). For such an act, a prison sentence of no less than five years is stipulated for the perpetrator. If the terrorist act elicited fatalities of one or more people, the perpetrator is to be sentenced to no less than eight years (Paragraph 2). The most serious form of terrorism is in the case of premeditated killing of one or more individuals, for which there is a sentence of at least ten years for the perpetrator or a long-term sentence (Paragraph 3). It is also stipulated that who gathers or provides resources or removes obstacles or engages in some other activity which creates conditions for carrying out a criminal act will be sentenced from one to ten years (Paragraph 4). A terrorist act (Paragraph 5), in regards to this

suspects in B-H and have carried out operations against them, although internal cooperation needs to improve. In November 2014, B-H joined the Global Coalition to Counter ISIL and in December sent its Foreign Minister to Brussels to participate in the U.S.-led coalition ministerial (United States Department of State, 2015).

28 Criminal Code of Bosnia and Herzegovina, "Official Gazette B-H", number 03/03, corrections 32/03, amendments: 37/03, 54/04, 61/04, 30/05, 53/06, 55/06, 32/07, 08/10, 47/14, 22/15, 40/15.

29 Current legal decision on the elementary criminal act of terrorism from 2003 (which has been supplemented numerous times from then), is primarily based on the designation of terrorism in the Council Framework Decision from 2002 and the European Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism in 2005, whose provisions were adopted by all member states.

30 The basis of the incrimination of this criminal act is the International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism from 1999, where member states agreed that a criminal act is committed by any person who by any means, directly or indirectly, provides or collects funds with the aim that they should be used or knowing that they are to be used, in full or in part, in order to finance terrorist activity, as the Council of Europe Convention on the Laundering, Search, Seizure and Confiscation of the Proceeds from Crime and on the Financing of Terrorism from 2005, where certain measures were stipulated for preventing money laundering and for financing terrorism.

31 The most important document in that sense is the Council of Europe Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism from 2005, which was adopted to increase the efficiency of existing international instruments, where certain behaviour was incriminated as terrorist (public provocation, recruitment and training). Besides that, the European Union adopted an amended Council Framework Decision on November 28th 2008, where incrimination was stipulated for criminal acts tied to terrorist activity, as: public provocation for carrying out a criminal act of terrorism, recruitment for terrorism and training for terrorism.

article, implies a malicious act, which in respect to its nature and context can seriously damage a state or international organization. What is evident is that the legislator has in the criminal act of terrorism put a special focus on the heterogeneity and the number of acts, i.e. on terrorist acts in regards to carrying out these criminal acts³².

Financing terrorist activity is a new criminal act, which has been introduced in criminal legislature of B-H in 2003 (later amended in 2015) besides the basic criminal act of terrorism. The criminal act of funding terrorist activity is whoever by any means, directly or indirectly, provides or collects funds with the aim that they should be used or knowing that they are to be used, in full or in part, in order to perpetrate one of the mentioned criminal acts (Paragraph 1). For this act a minimum sentence of three years is stipulated. In addition this criminal act stipulates a penalty for anyone who, directly or indirectly, gives or gathers or in any other way provides resources: a) with the goal for them to be partially or fully used for the purpose of any terrorist organization or individual terrorists, or b) knowing that they are to be, fully or partially, used for carrying out criminal acts from Paragraph 1 of this Article (Paragraph 2). Besides the mentioned, the legislator has stipulated for the gathered resources intended for the criminal act of funding terrorist activity to be confiscated (Paragraph 3). Under resources are regarded all kinds of resources, either things or rights, material of non-material, mobile or immobile, without regards to how they were acquired, as well as legal documents and instruments in all forms, including electronic and digital, which prove ownership over real estate, including, but not limited to bank loans, traveler's cheques, money orders, shares, loan stocks, bonds and loan letters (Paragraph 4).

“New” criminal acts related to terrorism have been introduced in criminal legislature of B-H in 2010: Encouraging Terrorist Activities in Public – Art. 202a, Recruitment for Terrorist Activities – Art. 202b, Training to Perform Terrorist Activities – Art. 202c and Organizing Terrorist Groups – Art. 202d. The starting point of new factual information is behaviour that is typical preparation activity which the legislator moves up to execution acts, meaning acts that can be classified as encouraging acts which the legislator stipulates are an individual criminal act.

The criminal act of encouraging terrorist activities in public is carried out by those that publicly, by means of public information services, distributes or in any other way sends a message to the public which has an aim for encouraging another individual for carrying out a criminal act itemized in the mentioned articles. Public encouraging is, in essence, intermediately influencing the execution of a criminal terrorist act and hence there is no need to identify the causality (liability for public encouraging exists regardless if an actual act of terrorism has been committed) but only that a risk has been created for its execution. In addition this criminal act is closely tied to the guaranteed right to the right of speech, where in many cases the fine line between public encouraging for terrorism and the freedom of speech is not entirely clear, and thus can create a basis for a serious violation of the criminal procedure³³.

The criminal act of Recruiting for Terrorist Activities is a criminal act which consists of recruiting for terrorist activities, namely in participating or aiding in the execution of one of the criminal acts itemized in the mentioned articles. Recruiting can be done in different ways which are in itself acts of encouraging (coaxing, promising or giving money, etc.) and different resources, for example by means of the Internet or directly contacting potential individuals.

32 Marković, I., Babić, M. (2011). Borba protiv terorizma (krivičnopravni aspekt), *Zbornik radova "Suprotstavljanje terorizmu – međunarodnopravni standardi i pravna regulativa"*, Banja Luka: Visoka škola unutrašnjih poslova, 173-188.

33 See more: Stojanović, Z., Kolarić, D. (2014). *Krivičnopravno suzbijanje organizovanog kriminaliteta, terorizma i korupcije*, Beograd: Edicija Crimena, str. 181.

The criminal act of Training to Perform Terrorist Activities consists of enabling others to make and use explosives, firearms or other weapons with damaging or dangerous material or explosive devices or training in other methods, techniques or skills (Paragraph 1) or providing resources for training or in any other way offers a room or other space (Paragraph 2), knowing that it will be used for carrying out one of the mentioned criminal acts. For this criminal act a prison sentence of no less than three years is stipulated.

The criminal act of Organizing Terrorist Groups is a criminal act that incriminates an organized terrorist group or of any alliance between three people for the purpose of carrying out a terrorist act and seminal criminal acts (Paragraph 1), participating in a terrorist group or in any other way participating in a terrorist group's activities, including providing financial or any other kind of support (Paragraph 2) and the possibility to acquit a member of the terrorist group who reveals the group before the person has committed a criminal act (Paragraph 3). A minimum sentence of five years is stipulated for the organizer, while for the members there is a minimum sentence of three years. A facultative possibility of acquitting somebody exists if the perpetrator reveals the alliance or in other ways prevents criminal terrorist acts or contributes in their disclosure (that is also a privileged form).

Later in 2014, participation of B-H citizens in foreign terrorist activity was incriminated (not completely clearly and unequivocally) by way of a criminal act of unlawfully forming and joining foreign paramilitary or para-police formations (Article 162b). Although this criminal act was not systematized into the same group of criminal acts, but is in the group of criminal acts against the integrity of Bosnia and Herzegovina, while from it there is not an explicit incrimination for behavior implied by "foreign terrorist fighters", but it prohibits joining any paramilitary and para-police formations³⁴. Besides the aforementioned, a problem can also be the political character of the violation and the motive of its implementation. The character of these acts is of importance in the area of extradition law, since in relation to them a principle of non-betrayal of political agents is in effect (Stojanović, Kolarić, 2010: 74).

Possibilities have been created for a more efficient gathering of evidence for these criminal acts through special investigation procedures and financial investigations, as well as preventing money laundering and financing terrorist activity. On the other hand a question arises on how efficient the mentioned criminal law framework is and how realistic is its scope when talking about the suppression of terrorism. If for example provisions are looked at related to public provocation for terrorism or canvassing for terrorism, we face problems that are already accentuated when talking about complicity in criminal law. On the same token, there will be numerous obstacles in proving someone's participation abroad in carrying out terrorist activity (for example foreign terrorist fighters).

CONCLUSION

It is clear that the norms of criminal legislature have an irreplaceable role when talking about combating terrorism. Thereby, a stern criminal policy in respect to terrorist criminal acts offers guarantees that the perpetrators of those acts will be responsible for their actions. Besides that, possibilities are created for a more efficient gathering of evidence for these criminal acts through special investigative actions and financial investigations, as well as curtailing money laundering and financing terrorist activities.

³⁴ It is not clear why this criminal act is not systematized in the group with other terrorist criminal acts, while the provision labelled "foreign terrorist fighters", with a decisive prohibition of travelling to Syria and Iraq in order to participate in terrorist activity of the Islamic State.

Nevertheless, it is clear that criminal legal norms which involve terrorism have their limitations. It means that a wide incrimination of terrorism, as a criminal phenomenon, cannot provide desired results. On the other hand a question is posed on how efficient is this criminal legal framework and how realistic is its scope when talking about combating terrorism. When looking at norms which are related to public encouraging for terrorism or recruiting for terrorism, we encounter problems that are already prominent when talking about complicity in criminal law. On the same token, many hardships will arise when trying to prove somebody's involvement abroad in carrying out terrorist activities (i.e. foreign terrorist fighters).

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HUMAN SECURITY AS CONTEMPORARY THEORETICAL LEVEL OF ANALYSIS IN SECURITY STUDIES

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Abstract: Security, as a complex social phenomenon, is considered from different aspects: philosophical, legal, political, sociological, economic, etc., but even so, in theory, still there is no unique definition for this term. When considering the security issues we are faced with dilemma for whom it is necessary to provide security, from whom comes the threat of security, who is responsible for security, and by what means and ways to achieve and improve security. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to indicate traditional and contemporary theoretical levels of analysis and different perceptions of security. First it is pointed out how security is determined in a conceptual sense, ie. in relation to the protection of the object and the specific reference values that are the subject of protection. In this regard, as the contemporary theoretical levels of analysis in security studies are defined: security of man (human), security of the State (national security) and international security. In relation to the analysis level, these concepts can be seen as a concept of internal security (human and national) and the concept of international security (regional and global). The paper especially deals with the achievement of human security and the reference values which this particular concept protects. It also discusses the various concepts within the analysis of human security, of which the one called „R2P - Responsibility to Protect“, according to which the international community could take measures to prevent a humanitarian disaster, is especially controversial because of the possibility of abuse.

Keywords: Security Studies, theoretical analysis, human security

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

After the World wars, issues of national and international security become concerns of the whole world. In this regard attitudes emerge arguing that the international relations and therefore security issues must be considered scientifically. Thus, the first considerations of security in the context of scientific and teaching discipline known as Security Studies come up after World War II. During the Cold War the Security Studies researchers focus on the studies of military strategy. This course was called strategic studies. A key object of observation is the

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security of the national state and key threats are those of military nature which come from the outside. Achieving an adequate level of security is possible only by increasing military power.²

By the end of the XX century the main concepts of these studies (eg. Nuclear deterrence, bipolar activity, the balance of power) lost their relevance.³ The field of interests was transferred to the ethnic conflicts and nuclear proliferation. At the beginning of XXI century, these studies have focused their attention on the combating terrorism, private military companies, etc. Also, alternative approaches in security studies are gaining significance and among them particularly: the study of peace, poststructuralist, feminist course, social constructivism, critical theory, etc.⁴

One group of authors insist on expanding the concept of security through the inclusion of new, wider potential security threats, including particularly weak economic development, environmental degradation, human rights violations, and large migratory movements. Another group of scholars, insists on deepening the agenda of security studies with a wide range security segments, starting from the individual or human security through national security or the security of society, to the regional, international and global aspects of security issues. The third group of authors, remaining faithful to the traditional state-centric approach to security issues, involves in it the definition of new forms of security (common security, collective security, cooperative security, etc.).⁵

According to Paul Williams, although Security Studies have their roots in the scientific discipline of international relations, today's challenges imposed by the need to observe Security Studies separately, ie. as an independent research field. The intellectual core of these studies make questions: what is security; about whose security are talking; what can be seen as a security issue; and how security can be achieved. Explaining these issues the same author points out that during the course of previous development it is possible to distinguish two dominant philosophies of security. In this case, each of them arises from different starting points. According to the first, the security is seen as a synonym for the accumulation of power and it is believed that the power is path to security. That is, the more power (particularly military) people have, the more they will be safer. According to another, security is based on the emancipation, ie. the care for justice and ensuring human rights. According to this philosophy, true or sustained security does not arise from opportunities to demonstrate power over others, on the contrary, it derives from cooperation to achieve security without deprivation of the rights of others to it. This represents the promotion of emancipatory politics that questions of justice and human rights takes seriously.⁶ Responding to the second question: About whose security is talking ?, P. Williams in fact points to the modern theoretical analysis of levels of security, among which is the concept of human security.

2 See: Simić, D., 2002, *Nauka o bezbednosti – savremeni pristupi bezbednosti*, Beograd, Javno preduzeće Službeni list SRJ i Fakultet političkih nauka, str. 26.

3 Compare: Nikodinovska-Stefanovska, S., 2015, The concept of security and security studies, in: Kolarić, D. (ed.), *Archibald Reiss days*, Thematic conference proceedings of international significance, Volume II, Belgrade, Academy of criminalistic and police studies, pp. 49–56.

4 See: Ejđus, F., 2012, *Međunarodna bezbednost: teorije, sektori i nivoi*, Beograd, JP Službeni glasnik, Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku, str. 59–60.

5 Compare: Tatalović, S., Novo razumijevanje sigurnosti i sigurnosno okruženje na jugoistoku Europe, u: Vignjević, B. (ur.), 2004, *Demokratski nadzor i kontrola nad bezbjednosnim sektorom u regionu*, Banja Luka, M-impeks, str. 46.

6 See: Vilijams, P., Uvod u studije bezbednosti, u: Vilijams, P. (ur.), 2012, *Uvod u studije bezbednosti*, Beograd, Javno preduzeće Službeni glasnik, Fakultet bezbednosti, str. 45–46.

THEORETICAL LEVELS OF SECURITY ANALYSIS

Levels of security analysis is an analytical construct that security share in relation to the scale (eg. The micro, meso and macro), ie. observing security horizontally, where each lower level is contained in the upper.⁷ Furthermore, security can be analyzed according to sectors. Thus, security can be viewed through military, political, economic, environmental and societal security sector⁸, or the public, ie. national security sector and private, ie. non-state security sector.

As traditional levels of security analysis, according to S. Mijalkovic, can be seen two:⁹

1. *level of national security* – state-centric character, in which a central position take up the traditional values of state, caring by the state through its security system, and
2. *level of international security* – which promotes the values of the international community, cared by the state through the international relations, co-operation or through certain international organizations. The traditional concepts of international security are: the balance of power and collective security¹⁰.

In this regard, D. Simic points out that “security has traditionally been understood in the spirit of the orthodox concept of national security, as well as the traditional concept of international security, which was based on the principles of state-centric security, and that the basic principles of the traditional concept of security was that the state is secure only when achieve the balance between military threats and their own military capabilities to respond to these threats.”¹¹

However, at the end of the last century there has been a transformation of concepts of security. Barry Buzan stated five reasons why there is no integral idea, nor a deeper understanding of the security, and these are:¹²

- The complexity of the phenomena of security (returns researchers of an integrated approach, so they are rather focused on more tangible dimensions of this phenomenon, for example, the army and police, and others);
- Unconstructive opposition between realist and idealist schools in the development of the concept of power and peace, instead of cooperation in formulating the concept of security;
- The nature of strategic studies (emphasizes too much the connection of this discipline with the state policy and thereby the object of study narrows at the military aspects of security);
- In real international security environment, which after World War II is characterized by tension, mistrust and conflict between states, the concept of security is reduced to the concept of power;
- The political and symbolic power of the concept of national security among members of the political elite. Imprecisely and unclear determination of the concept of national security allows the political and military elites the creation strategy through which strengthen its own power in the state and society.

7 See: Buzan, B., Wæver, O., de Wilde, J., 1998, *Security. A New Framework for Analysis*, Boulder-London, Lynne Rienner Publishers, p. 5.

8 See: Buzan, B., Wæver, O., de Wilde, J., 1998, p. 7; Ejodus, F., 2012, str. 207–208 i 215–275.

9 See: Mijalković, S., 2009, *Nacionalna bezbednost*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, str. 61.

10 See: Bajagić, M., 2007, *Osnovi bezbednosti*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, str. 39–51.

11 Simić, D., 2002, str. 24.

12 See: Buzan, B., 1991, *People, States and Fear: An Agenda for International Security Studies in the Post-Cold World Era*, 2nd ed., London, Harvester Wheatsheaf, pp.7–12.

Buzan concludes that the traditional concept of security through observing the terms of force (realist school, security is the goal) and peace (liberal, idealistic school, security is the result), is not appropriate for the understanding of the term and that kind of approach does not give a clear definition of security. It also points out that security should be viewed from many angles and broader framework than the earlier observation.¹³

At the same time Emma Rothschild states that the concept or idea of security expanded through four main forms.¹⁴ First, there is an enlargement from the security of nations to the security of individuals and groups. Next comes the spread from the security of nations to international security system, ie its physical environment. Thirdly, the security is expanded from the military to the political, economic, social and environmental, that is human security. And finally, the political responsibility for guaranteeing security extends in all directions beyond the nation-state as follows: towards international institutions, then by regional or local governments, and to non-governmental organizations, public opinion and media and abstract forces of nature or marketplace.

According to these understandings, there are different levels of notion and analysis of security. According to them, the security, in the contemporary conceptual sense, is determined as:¹⁵

1. *human security* – individual, people and society;
2. *security of the state* – or national security;
3. *international security* – security community, security regime, security complex and cooperation in security.¹⁶

An integral, ie. the entire security is divided into internal security and international security. Furthermore, the internal security can be seen through the concepts of human and national security, while international security can be more seen as a regional and global security.

HUMAN SECURITY AND PROTECTED VALUES

In essence of the concept of human security is the idea that the individual is the object of security, not the state or the nation. The individual is generally the smallest unit to which the security analysis can be reduced. Thus, the “basic understanding of human security, is that according to which a term human indicates that the focus is on the individual, and the term security refers to the need to protect against threats”.¹⁷ This implies that human security deals with safety of individuals.

The man is safe if his physical integrity, dignity and privacy are protected from threats and injuries. Thus, the security of man is defined as «the condition of protection of man from danger, threats and injury of his personality, rights and property”.¹⁸ However, this definition seems narrow and can be considered correct only in terms of the role of the police in protecting the rights and property of man.

13 See: Buzan, B., 1991, p. 24.

14 See: Rothschild, E., 1995, What is Security?, *Daedalus*, Vol. 124, No. 3, p. 55.

15 Compare: Mijalković, S., Popović, M., 2015, *Uvod u studije bezbednosti*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policajska akademija; Pavlović, G., Gjurovski, M., 2012, Traditional and contemporary concepts of security, *Security Dialogues*, Vol. 3, Number 2, pp. 137–147.

16 About the modern notions of international security, see: Bajagić, M., 2012, *Međunarodna bezbednost*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policajska akademija; Simić, D., *Savremene teorije bezbednosti*, u: Janković, P. (ur), 2007, *Antologija tekstova sa škola reforme sektora bezbednosti*, Beograd, Centar za međunarodne i bezbednosne poslove – ISAC, str. 165–193.

17 Oberlajtner, G., *Ljudska bezbednost i ljudska prava*, u: Dulić, D. (pr.), 2006, *Ljudska bezbednost*, Zbornik tekstova 2, Beograd, Fond za otvoreno društvo, str. 102.

18 Miletić, S., 1997, *Policijsko pravo*, I knjiga, Beograd, Policijska akademija, str. 1–2.

The idea that people have to be protected in their daily lives is not new. Some authors emphasize that «the focus on a man is in fact characteristic of the political philosophies of liberalism, that puts people and individuals in its center, and prescribe certain requirements, such as freedom and equality, in order to make them safe».¹⁹ However, what is new here is the very term itself (Human security), ie the long political and philosophical tradition focused on a man, only from the end of the XX century is expressed under this name.

In this regard, in the 1993 Human Development Report of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP)²⁰, it was pointed out that the concept of security has to be changed. Instead of the national security the focus is on human security. The following year in the Human Development Report²¹ has introduced the concept of human security into debate. Human security is, in the same report, defined as security in the relation to chronic threats (hunger, illness and repression), and protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions flow of daily life. As two key elements of human security Human Development Report of 1994 have been introduced *freedom from fear* (which includes human rights and security) and *freedom from deprivation*. The United Nations are not tied human security only to protect the individual against violence, but also for his overall development. In this way, defined human security involves seven different dimensions, namely: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, societal and political security²²:

- Economic security implies sufficient and predictable income, predictable employment, safety and health at work, covered social security, satisfaction with the level of income, the disparity of income and competitiveness;
- Food security implies physical and economic access to food, ie the availability and quality of food products and the purchasing power of the people;
- Health security is accomplished through sheltered people from disease and infection, availability and quality of health care, the health status of people and the existence of the health care system;
- Environmental security is accomplished through the protection from pollution, as well as unrestricted access to clean water and air and unpolluted land ecosystem;
- Personal security implies the absence from fear of violence and abuse, protection of people from crime and destructive phenomenon;
- Societal security implies stability of the family, quality of living, quality of life in the local community, security of cultural identity, the effects of community the code of ethics, development and freedom of media and communication, freedom and the effects of union organizing;
- Political security includes the development and protection of human rights, the impact of policies on the quality of life and impact of formal social control on the human security.

19 Ker, P., Ljudska sigurnost, u: Collins, A. (ur.), 2010, *Suvremene sigurnosne studije*, Zagreb, Fakultet političkih znanosti Sveučilišta u Zagrebu – Centar za međunarodne i sigurnosne studije, Politička kultura, str. 115.

20 UNDP, 1993, *Human Development Report 1993*, New York, Oxford University Press, p. III.

21 UNDP, 1994, *Human Development Report 1994*, New York, Oxford University Press, p. 23.

22 See: *Human Development Report*, 1994, pp. 25–33; Ejodus, F., 2012, str. 219.

DIFFERENT CONCEPTIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

In the ongoing academic discussions there are at least three different conceptions of human security.²³

The first conception is based on human rights and the rule of law, and define human security in terms of the feasibility of a wide range of different human rights. This conception has its base in the basic liberal assumption of elementary personal rights «life, liberty and pursuit of happiness», as well as the obligation of the international community to protect and promote those rights.

The second view, ie. another approach to human security is humanitarian, according to which the security (sometimes described as the absence of fear) is the highest goal of international intervention. This approach considers the war of a major threat to human security and emphasizes the idea that people need to be protected from threats of violence, and that protection is obliged to provide the international community. Also, in addition to conflict and emergency situations, economic misery, social injustice and political pressures have been accepted as a threat to human security. Thus the objectives of human security have become associated with the preventive and post-conflict peace-building, and reducing the possibility of armed conflict and civil violence.

These two points of view which focus on basic human rights and their denial, are in conflict with the third, the broader point of view that suggests that human security must be broadly built, so as to include various forms of damage caused to life and welfare of individuals. The third point is the widest and implies sustainable human development, ie the achievement, protection and enhancement of economic, ecological and social rights. Real threats to human security are considered to be diseases like AIDS, drug trafficking, terrorism, global poverty and environmental problems. These threats are not local or national, but global, and their base is the problem of inequality and lack of social justice in international relations (these dimensions are often referred as freedom from deprivation).

As a major representatives of the narrow point of human security view and its promotion can be marked Canada and Norway, which together led an informal network for human security (in addition to these two countries into network are included: Austria, Chile, Greece, Ireland, Jordan, Mali, Netherlands, Slovenia Switzerland and Thailand). This network was established in 1998 to develop the idea according to which the concept of human security should be narrowed down to just freedom from fear. Thus, at the initiative of Canada the *ad hoc* International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty was established, whose report in 2001, entitled «The Responsibility to Protect - R2P» narrow understanding of human security further encouraged. „In this document, it was pointed out that States have an obligation to protect its citizens, and if they are unable to do so they lose certain rights and responsibilities to protect then falls on the international community. The international community can take preventive actions (to prevent a humanitarian catastrophe), reactive measures (to react if a disaster strike) and reconstructive measures (building society after the disaster). The so-called. «R2P» concept was adopted first in the African Union, and then at the level of the UN, with the adoption of the Final Act of the 2005 World Summit and the UN Security Council Resolution 1674²⁴».

23 See: Hampson, F.O., Višeznačnost pojma ljudske bezbednosti, u: Dulić, D. (pr.), 2006, *Ljudska bezbednost*, Zbornik tekstova 1, Beograd, Fond za otvoreno društvo, str. 32–33; Hampson, F. O., *Ljudska bezbednost*, u: Vilijams, P. (pr.), 2012, *Uvod u studije bezbednosti*, Beograd, Javno preduzeće Službeni glasnik, Univerzitet u Beogradu – Fakultet bezbednosti, str. 306–307.

24 Ejodus, F., 2012, str. 221 i 223.

The most important representatives of a broader perceptions of human security can be marked former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan, who held that the protection of human security is a key mission of the UN, and former Prime Minister of Japan, Keizo Obuchi, who adopted human security as an integral part of foreign policy of his country in 1998. Also, at the initiative of Japan in 2001 Commission for human security was established. In the reports of this Commission can be found a broader understanding of human security, such as definition from 2003, when it was emphasized that: «Human security implies protection of fundamental freedoms - freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (serious) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. Also, it means the use of processes that are based on human strengths and preferences. Means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural system which people provide the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity²⁵ According to F. Ejdus, «the goal is to promote a wider version of human security, which next to protection from violence includes many other threats to the well-being of individuals²⁶».

CONCLUSION

Human rights are the core and the framework of human security, but human security is still a broader concept. Unlike the human rights, human security includes the threat that human rights law does not address primarily. So it can be concluded that the discussion on human security extends to the human rights and their violation (in the name of human rights, and human rights violations by non-state actors).

Examining the concept of human security can be concluded that although there is no consensus on the precise meaning the very concept of human security, the concept has rapidly gained a large number of supporters. At the same time it was addressed to a lot of criticism, especially from the scientific community.

The main criticism relates to the broader definition of human security, according to which it represents not only freedom from fear, but freedom from want, and which includes as much content (physical violence, the environment, etc.) that it is not clear what is and what is not an area of human security.

Moreover, the concept of human security was criticized because it legitimizes humanitarian interventionism, which has so far several times been abused (eg. The attack of NATO on the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia).

Regardless of all that, the concept of human security is entered in the theory and practice of security, and its development has led to humanize the concept of security in general, but also to the securitization of concept of human rights.

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²⁵ Commission of Human Security, 2003, *Human Security Now*, New York, p. 4.

²⁶ Ejdus, F., 2012, str. 220.

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CONTEMPORARY SECURITY CHALLENGES IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES VIEWED FROM THE ASPECTS OF TERRORISM AND RELIGIOUS EXTREMISM

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Abstract: The continuous development of society has influenced the strengthening of awareness about the growing number of security challenges with which modern countries are faced. The basic idea about the country, especially looked through the prism of ensuring the protection and security of citizens, has not changed very much from its original form, unlike some other social values. Security is a prerequisite for any progress of society, but by itself it does not create anything, only makes it possible. Although it is indisputable that an absolute security cannot be achieved, this may not justify lack of improving the existing and not finding new security measures of protection and prevention. After the Cold War and bloc divisions, militaristic security challenges in the area of Europe have substantially changed and are manifested through the terrorist attacks. In recent months, Europe has been faced with a migration crisis and for the first time it has been acquainted with this “problem”. Divided between the proclaimed European values on the one hand and security threats and insecurity on the other, humane actions have been made that have had the inhumane consequences, by which we mean several terrorist attacks carried out, but also the possibility of new ones. The question of terrorism is a very complex, especially if we look at the motives of such acts, methods of execution, their frequency but also the means that are used in order to achieve them. If we take a closer look at the latest terrorist attacks in Europe, they could be equated with religious extremism, which significantly complicates preventive security measures due to a wide range of targets, because terrorist targets in this chase cannot be predicted, beside the common risk factors in terms of public gatherings, etc. Examining this issue, this paper, whose goal is that in addition to theoretical study, also draws attention to some possible preventive measures, all in order to minimize the contemporary security challenges.

Keywords: security challenges in Europe, terrorism, religious extremism

INTRODUCTION

Development of society with all its positive and negative changes has resulted in the existence of what surrounds us today. As undeniably humans have influence on the development of the society, the society has an impact on an individual in the same way. The development of

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the society has also influenced the evolvement of the awareness for a need of safety to such extent we can control. Direct or indirect causes have influenced the strengthening of awareness about the growing number of security challenges, keeping in mind that raising of awareness in this direction still continues, and the only question is how much we, as members of society, are aware of it. When this issue is observed from a historical distance, the basic idea about the country, especially looked through the prism of ensuring the protection and security of citizens, has not changed very much from its original form, unlike some other social values. It can be noticed that some things have not changed, i.e. that the development of society is conditioned by security of that society, provided that the question of security is conditioned by society.

Security challenges are not always the same viewed from the angle of social development, as well as the generation awareness about it. They are constantly changing, complementing and growing, increasing the constant need to raise the level of protection of social values. Under the values we mean an ideal characteristic of certain standards, norms, appearance, condition and contents of consciousness, so that a society value is each value that is of great importance to an individual, group and country representing everything that is the object of social interest and thus social protection.²In order to function and survive as a whole, the society needs to build a value system. That value system represents a common goal of all members of the society, but at the same time it also represents criteria and behavior patterns.³

With the significant development of various forms of security measures and procedures, but also with the maximum exploitation of the existing security technologies, we cannot regard the existing conditions as a state of absolute security. It is necessary to have a realistic awareness that such a state is impossible to achieve.

The modern concept of security, in terms of comprehensive security, can be divided into two groups: internal and international security. When we talk about internal security we can distinguish between individual, social and national security, and when it comes to international security we can distinguish between regional, global, shared, collective and cooperative security.⁴

The United Nations, in their study from 1986, defined the security as a condition in which countries consider that there is no threat of military attack, political pressure or economic coercion, so they are free to grow and thrive.⁵ Viewing the definition of security from that time until today, it has changed to some extent, especially because there is no war tension among “developed” countries, which is important for achieving security. But security has other challenges as well.

In recent years we have been witnesses of frequent security pressures on potential targets for possible terrorist attacks.⁶ Precisely these forms of security challenges in recent months have significantly called into question the level of security achieved in European countries due to which there is also the question of whether the existing mechanisms of protection starting with the legislations and across physical security measures can present sufficient protection.

2 Ljubomir Stajić (2008), *Osnovi sistema bezbednosti-sa osnovama istraživanja bezbednosnih pojava*, Pravni fakultet, Novi Sad, p.17

3 Milo Bošković (2002), *Kriminologija sa patologijom - Socijalna patologija*, Pravni fakultet, Novi Sad, p.25

4 Radoslav Gaćinović (2007), *Klasifikacija bezbednosti*, Nauka - bezbednost - policija, no12/2-3, p.5

5 Conception de la sécurité, Série d'études 14, Publication des Nations Unise, 1986, A/40/533

6 Mina Zirojević and Željko Bjelajac (2013). *Blisko istočni terorizam i religija u savremenom polisu*, Kultura polisa, no. 22, year X, p.193-207

CONTEMPORARY SECURITY CHALLENGES IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

After the Second World War, the question of the security has again been receiving more and more importance, especially in European countries. A former basic idea of achieving i.e. re-establishing security is based solely on minimizing interstate tensions that arose between the American and Soviet bloc during the Cold War. One of the possible solutions was the signing of the Helsinki Final Act in 1975 as a basic idea for reducing the existing interstate security tensions. It was based on announcing major military maneuvers whose goal was to achieve risk reduction of new wars by moving the peacetime military formations and maintenance of their readiness.⁷

Creation of the European Union, collapse of the USSR and the significant strengthening of the US have led to the changing security conditions in Europe in the sense that the mid-nineties war threatening the security of Europe, if we do not take into consideration the war destruction of Yugoslavia, is considered no longer possible, which does not mean that there are not many security challenges within each country.

In recent years terrorist attacks have been the most common security challenges in the world and in Europe as well. There are various motives for terrorist attacks, and therefore it is difficult to predict and prevent them. When the terrorist attacks are carried out by the already known terrorist groups, many of the world's security services have a theoretical possibility to prevent potential attacks as a result of surveillance or "cutting" the communication channels. While when it comes to individuals or small groups who are not linked to the known terrorist organizations, the possibility of prevention and preventive action is minimized or even impossible.

As an example for the above mentioned self-organized terrorist actions we can mention an attack performed by Anders Breivik in Norway, on the island of Utoya near Oslo in 2011, in which he killed 85 people.⁸ Because of his independent operation, it was not possible to make adequate preventive measures in order to prevent an attack. During the investigation, motives and methods of how he provided the technical means for the execution of the attack were identified, and this knowledge will be used in further struggle for establishing a higher level of security. An example of self-organized attacks by the already known terrorist organization (from Chechnya) was an attack on Domodedovo airport in Moscow in 2011, when 35 people were killed and more than 130 persons were injured.⁹

These two examples show us that the aim of terrorist attacks is killing and wounding (injuring) as many civilians as possible, and that the locations of those attacks are busy (frequent) and urban locations. An additional aim is causing panic and insecurity among citizens together with inability of the state to protect society (citizens).

Known terrorist organizations have the same objectives, but when it comes to those objectives, very often more coordinated attacks are carried out in several locations of interest around the city and in several cities in the same country. Additional characteristics of

7 Nenad Bingulac and Joko Dragojlović (2015), *Uticao vojnih manevara na pitanje bezbednosti u Evropi sa stanovišta Helsinškog završnog akta*, International thematic proceedings, "Četrdeset godina od potpisivanja Helsinškog završnog akta", ed. Mina Zirojević and Vesna Čorić, Institut za uporedno pravo, Beograd, p.111

8 Andy Whelan and Martin Delgado, Burning with hatred... The right-wing extremist who hated immigrants and multi-culturalism, www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2017962/Anders-Behring-Breivik-Right-wing-extremist-hated-immigrants-multi-culturalism.html (January 22th 2016)

9 See: Telegraf, *Najstrašniji teroristički napadi u Evropi*, <http://www.telegraf.rs/vesti/1382333-tekle-su-reke-krvi-ovo-su-najstrasniji-teroristicki-napadi-u-evropi-video> (January 012016)

organized attacks by terrorist organizations are the fact that their attacks are organized not only once but there is a certain continuity of those attacks. Certainly, security measures are reinforced and perfected after each attack, and each subsequent attack is to some extent more difficult to implement.

As an example of a coordinated terrorist attack carried out by a terrorist organization (Al Qaeda) we can mention the attack in London in 2005 when the two simultaneous attacks were carried out, one of which was in the subway, while the other was on a city bus, killing 52 people. The same operational model can be seen in the case of the attack that was directed to four passenger trains in Spain in which 191 people were killed and 2000 people were injured.¹⁰

By pointing out the mentioned individual terrorist attacks, our aim is to create awareness about the degree of danger they cause. The establishment of a higher level of security and protection of society, especially from terrorist attacks, largely depends on the work of many security services, but we cannot leave out necessary legal protection.

Considering the topic of this study, it is clear that the emphasis is exclusively on the breach of security caused by terrorist attacks, but of course, those attacks are not the only security challenges in European countries. Security challenges are represented by various forms of crime (robbery, theft, murders, etc.), cyber crime, as well as various forms of organized crime, like white collar crime, human trafficking, etc.¹¹ As for endangering the safety by terrorists, as well as for endangering the safety in all its forms, it is necessary to implement a variety of measures and action plans provided that they are mainly conducted by the police, which have a significant role because one of the main functions of the police in modern society is to protect and have respect for fundamental freedoms and human rights and freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution laws.¹²

TERRORISM AND RELIGIOUS EXTREMISM

In order to better understand the security challenges in the form of terrorism and religious extremism, it is necessary to make a short theoretical overview of both concepts. Terrorist organizations can be defined as associations (organizations) which are based on the principles of hierarchy, coordination, subordination, but also on other principles typical for other organizational and functional forms that bring together more people connected through aspiration and determination for achieving specific goals, i.e. terrorist goals, while those goals are perceived as common as long as there is a firm commitment to their implementation in ways that are typical for a terrorist operation.¹³ Considering that main characteristics of modern terrorism are organization, precision, unpredictability, obscurity, flexibility, privacy, cost-effectiveness, cruelty, terrorist organizations are further characterized by a great connection among members and mutual discipline that has elements of military discipline. This is understandable due to the existence of elements of hierarchy within the organization and due to its structure.¹⁴

When considering a terrorist organization and having in mind previously given facts, it is reasonable to think that the preparation and implementation of a terrorist attack represents

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ See: Nenad Bingulac (2015), *Modern slavery as a challenge to current security*, Archibald Reiss days – Thematic conference proceedings, vol.2, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, p.202

¹² Vesna Stefanovska (2014), *Police role in building community safety*, Archibald Reiss days – Thematic conference proceedings, vol.3, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, p.189-190

¹³ Živojin Aleksić and Milan Škulić (2013), *Kriminalistika - sedmo izdanje*, Pravni fakultet u Beogradu i JP Službeni glasnik, Beograd, p. 259

¹⁴ Milan Škulić (2015), *Organizovani kriminalitet*, JP Službeni glasnik, Beograd, p. 82

a specially planned and targeted activity preceded by a very precise organization and preparation. From the theoretical aspect a terrorist attack can be assembled in several stages, such as a choice of a target, planning, organization and execution. The reason why these stages are mentioned is to give information how much time we have in order to make all necessary preventive measures and anti-terrorism steps. It is undeniable that the most efficient way is by preventing the initial stages, i.e. the planning of the attack and the choice of a target. At the stage of selecting a target, preventive measures in terms of securing a safety measures of objects that can be considered for a potential terrorist target, have a very important role. Understandably, airports, railway stations, theaters, concerts and major events, embassies, political institution buildings, international hotels, infrastructural facilities (water pipes, electricity...) are potential targets of these attacks. In countries with higher risk level of a possible terrorist attack it is necessary to increase the protection and supervision of the mentioned objects and other important buildings because in this way it is possible to considerably reduce the risk if one of these objects has been chosen as the target. It has already been acknowledged that absolute state of safety does not exist, so you cannot absolutely protect any facility (object).

For example, if the target of a terrorist attack is an international hotel, a terrorist e.g. a suicide bomber can be prevented to enter the hotel and carry out an attack by taking effective safety measures. However, based on these measures it is not possible to prevent the attack in front of the hotel where the terrorists will accomplish their goal to some extent because there will be human victims; or they may cause some damage. But, do not forget the most important thing, and that is causing fear and insecurity. Such situations make it clear that preventive measures that have an important role in the "target selection phase" are not enough, so it is necessary to see that there are such methods of protection that could obstruct the second and third phase of the terrorist attack, i.e. planning and organizing. Planning the attack can be prevented to a certain extent, keeping in mind that this phase is very difficult to detect because the planning is mainly done in a very small circle of people who are highly positioned in a terrorist organization. At this stage security agencies and secret services, or agents who have infiltrated into the terrorist organization (if there are such agents), and of course with all of those preventive measures, come into focus. It is also similar with "organization of the attack" because the role of security agencies is most important here, and actions of these agencies should notice some changes to the typical behavior of the members of the terrorist organization, which is covertly monitored, or by noticing acquirement of certain assets and equipment which can be used during the terrorist attack. The final phase of the attack, i.e. "execution of the attack" can be prevented only in cases of well-organized preventive measures at the site and by identifying targets by the security agencies and identifying certain circumstances which indicate that there is possibility for an attack to be carried out. If a terrorist attack is aimed at a single object and is organized and planned well and covertly, the attack has a high probability of being successful, but such an attack will raise the level of preparedness of the security services, because the certainty of attacks on other possible objects will significantly increase resulting in increase of the level of anti-terrorism measures. The abovementioned shows a certain complexity of this problem and the real degree of security vulnerability, but this is largely because it multiplies in every city because there are dozens or hundreds of objects that are potential terrorist targets. It can be understood the undisputed importance of all the necessary safety measures, but it is necessary to bear in mind that the visible security measures may have a negative impact on the population although they are there to protect. If military checkpoints are placed at potential targets of terrorist attacks, for example a large number of checkpoints were placed in London during the Olympic Games, they will certainly have a negative impact on the citizens of this part of the city or citizens that commute near

such objects. Although they are placed there for the safety and security of citizens, they will certainly affect the sense of security to some extent because of the existence of consciousness, and partly a certainty of possible attacks on them.

Without going deeper into analysis, it is necessary to mention that when the state anti-terrorism measures are inadequate or insufficiently strong to stand up to terrorist attacks in which terrorists have a strong organization and are unnumbered and if they have strong support by external factors, then it is possible that the results would be open large-scale conflicts (wars). In these circumstances, the terrorist organizations are starting an armed conflict in the wider area in order to raise massive armed rebellion in a particular territory and thus create the apparatus of coercion and compulsion for subsequent political negotiations and trade-offs.¹⁵

According to its operations, modern terrorism is characterized by fanaticism, which is manifested through ethnic, ideological or religious indoctrination of terrorists to the point of self-sacrifice in carrying out a terrorist act. Fanaticism as an extreme motivation of individuals and terrorist groups is inherent for the terrorist organization and aims to achieve a high degree of determination, unconditional cruelty in the execution of terrorist tasks. Fanaticism in a terrorist organization manifests itself as a positive qualitative psychological category and is a key indicator of the success of the terrorist organization.¹⁶

In recent years terrorist attacks have been dominated by religious factors, mostly Islamic, and the goal identified through religious violence is to achieve the Pan-Islamist objectives. In the west, the terrorists are motivated by specific national goals and interests, while in Islamic countries terrorism is additionally motivated by Islamic ideology which is transnationally manifested.

Some authors suggest that religious funded terrorism involves the incorporation of religion to justify carrying out terrorist activities. In recent decades close attention has been paid to Islamist terrorism, especially after the terrorist attacks on the United States in 2001. Islamist terrorism is a form of religiously funded terrorism, because its implementation is largely justified by the interpretation of Islam. Such interpretation often evokes the impression in the wider international public that Islam promotes and justifies political violence and the fight. The same authors suggest that it is wrong to seek a trigger within religion for the development of Islamist terrorism bearing in mind that the Quran calls for peace and compassion not violence and war, and that some parts of the book that are about war and suffering should be accepted only in the spirit of the times when Islam originated.¹⁷ The opinion of those authors to a certain extent "alleviates" state of facts from the point that endangering the safety is completely the opposite, in that sense that many (if not all) "latest" terrorist attacks that were carried out by Islamic organizations have "connotation" of a Holy War against infidels. In support of the above mentioned it is necessary to point out the stance of other authors who believe that religious fundamentalism describes the attitude of those religious groups that call for a literal interpretation of the Quran and other religious texts and who believe that the doctrine arising from such readings should apply to all aspects of social, economic and political life. Religious fundamentalists believe that there can be only one view of the World and that their view is the right with no room to ambiguity and different interpretations. According to the

15 See: Ivana Prajović (2012), *Ideološke osnove savremenog terorizma*, Thematic proceedings of the international scientific conference: Željko Bjelajac and Mina Zirojević, ed., Organizovanikriminalitet, izazov XXI veka, Pravni fakultet za privredu i pravosuđe, Novi Sad, p.497

16 See: Mina Zirojević and Željko Bjelajac (2012), *Uticao islamskog verskog fanatizma na ekspanziju ženskog samoubilačkog terorizama*, Kultura polisa, vol. 11, no. 24, Kultura polisa, Novi Sad, p.91-108

17 Jelena Stevančević (2015), *Terorizam sa posebnim osvrtom na verski fundiran – islamistički terorizam*, Iustitia: časopis udruženja sudijskih tužilačkih pomoćnika Srbije, no.1, p. 41

fundamentalist movements, access to the exact meaning of the scriptures is limited to a group of privileged “interpreters”, such as priests, members of the clergy or other religious leaders, which gives them great power.¹⁸ It is necessary to draw attention to the opinion of the authors indicating that what unites and connects religious terrorist groups is actually a common religious belief although in practice these groups are usually more decentralized than ideological terrorists. The way these terrorist groups function is through a “cell” and they are not directly connected with a very hierarchical core of the whole terrorist movement, which means that breaking a cell does not have to lead to particularly productive results in terms of detection of the entire leadership of a religious terrorist movement. This represents a major operational advantage of this type of terrorist organizations and great security challenge because of lack of information. Consequently, it remains unknown how many separate cells there are within a terrorist organization.¹⁹

THE ISSUE OF TERRORISM AND RELIGIOUS EXTREMISM IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

The number of terrorist attacks in European countries (mostly in the European Union) has been constantly increasing in recent years. Even though security measures are increasing, the trend of successful attacks, i.e. the failure of the defense is greater. The number of attacks increased in 2014 contrary to the trend in past years (*Figure 1*). The largest single increase in terrorist attacks had the UK, and the statistics shows that the increase was from 35 in 2013 to 109 (73 shooting incidents and 36 bombing incidents) in 2014. Some analysts suggest that none of these attacks were classified in a specific terrorist affiliation, they all took place in Northern Ireland, but still the targets were public and National Security Targets. When we look at the European countries (*Figure 2*), it can be seen that a total of 201 failed, foiled or completed terrorist attacks were reported by seven EU Member States, more than half of them by the UK. These attacks specifically classified as separatist terrorism accounted for the largest proportion, followed by anarchist and left-wing attacks. In favor for the above mentioned it can be stated that France reported 50 separatist attacks, all of them in Corsica. Two attacks were classified as religiously inspired. In one of these attacks, which occurred inside the Jewish Museum of Belgium in Brussels, the perpetrator used a semi-automatic rifle to kill four people. In addition to the four fatalities in Belgium, injuries as a result of terrorist activities were reported by France and Greece. Further attacks in which religious extremism seems to have played a role occurred in France. In modern European history, viewed from a certain point in time, France and Spain have the highest numbers of terrorist attacks. Statistical indicators show that in 2014 a total of 774 individuals were arrested for terrorism related offences (*Figure 1*). This number was significantly higher than in 2013 when there were 535 arrested people. Most arrests occurred in France - 238 individuals, than Spain - 145 individuals and the UK - 132 individuals. The largest proportion of arrests was linked to religiously inspired terrorism - 395 individuals.²⁰

¹⁸ Entoni Gidens (2007), *Sociologija*, Ekonomski fakultet, Beograd, p. 569

¹⁹ Mina Zirojević (2014), *Terorizam: međunarodni pogled*, Institut za međunarodnu politiku i privredu, Beograd, p.171

²⁰ See: Europol – European law enforcement agency (2015), *European Union terrorism situation and trend report 2015*, European Police Office, p.8-9

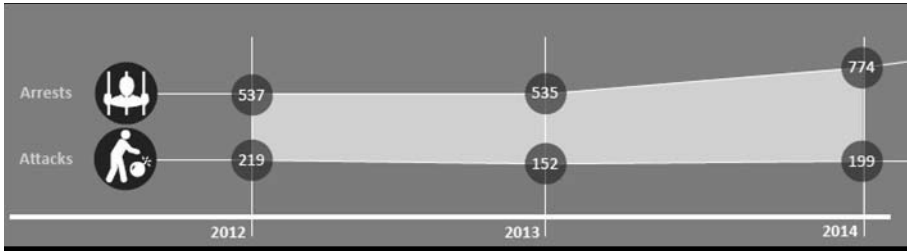


Figure 1: Number of failed, foiled or completed attacks; number of arrested suspects 2012 to 2014.

Source: European Union terrorism situation and trend report 2015.



Figure 2: Terrorist attacks and arrests in the EU in 2014

Source: European Union terrorism situation and trend report 2015.

When it comes to religious terrorist attacks, two of them were completed terrorist attacks specifically classified as religiously inspired terrorism for the 2014 period, provided that more attacks were prevented (Figure 3). The first one was in May 2014, a fatal attack was carried out in Belgium (The Jewish Museum in Brussels - four people were shot and killed). This was the first attack committed in the EU by a returnee from the Syrian conflict. The alleged suspect is believed to have spent over one year in Syria. He was found in possession of a rifle wrapped in a sheet with ‘Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant’ inscribed on it in Arabic, as well as other guns, and he had a recording in which he appeared to claim responsibility for the attack. Based on the other evidence found on him, five further arrests took place with regards to this event. The second religiously inspired terrorist attack took place in France in December. An individual entered a police station and attempted to steal a firearm. The assailant was reported as repeatedly shouting “Allahu akbar” “God is great” in Arabic. From December onwards, a

number of other incidents took place in quick succession, in which the perpetrators alluded to religion. The authors of these analyses indicate that the invocation of an interpretation of Islam that legitimises terrorist acts may have been a pretext for the manifestation of their violent tendencies. Nonetheless, they carried out these acts apparently inspired by the modus operandi recommended in terrorist propaganda.²¹

In France, which carried out the greatest number of arrests with regards to religiously inspired terrorism, at least two attack plots involving individuals that had returned from Syria were thwarted. Furthermore, arrests concerning the facilitation of travel to Syria took place from January to December in a number of locations, including Paris and its surrounding suburbs, Le Havre, Nice, Nîmes, Strasbourg and Toulouse. Almost one quarter of the arrested was women. In July, an individual was arrested in Créteil having returned from Syria (via Lebanon), after having been part of an IS training camp. In Spain, the majority of arrests concerned cases of suspected recruitment and facilitation of individuals into terrorist networks abroad, mainly to the Syria/Iraq conflict zone and Mali. Furthermore, during September, a total of five German citizens were arrested at the Frankfurt airport upon their return from Kenya on suspicion of being the members of Harakat al-Shabab al-Mujahidin.²²

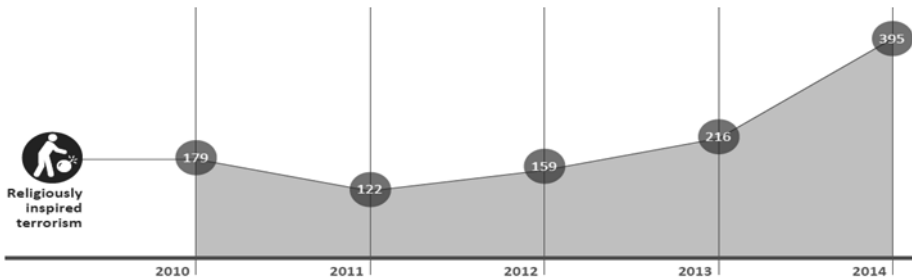


Figure 3: Number of suspects arrested for religiously inspired terrorism 2010 to 2014

Source: European Union terrorism situation and trend report 2015.

It is necessary to point out that the so-called “travelling for terrorist purposes” transnational fighters from Europe are present in the Afghanistan and Pakistan region, Chechnya, Libya, Mali, Somalia and Yemen, and primarily in Syria and Iraq. The majority of the fighters in Syria and Iraq are believed to have been residents in the EU before travelling. France for example reported an 86% increase in the number of individuals leaving for Syria or Iraq in 2014. The proclamation of the caliphate by IS may well have accelerated travel of transnational fighters to the region over the reporting period. Efforts to recruit fighters also appeared to have intensified, and by late 2014 the overall number of people that departed from the EU to the conflicting countries may have reached between 3000 and 5000 individuals. There are no official figures with regard to the total numbers of the EU fighters that either died, or returned to the EU in 2014. However, the volume of returnees has been reported as increasing in some EU Member States, including Finland, France, Italy and the UK. Security services know the routes that these persons travel, so Turkey remains the main transit hub for travel to and from Syria and Iraq. They use direct and indirect plane routes from Western Europe or land routes via countries including Austria, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland, Croatia, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Bulgaria, and sea-ferry routes via Greece and Italy. Frequent arrests have taken place at the Bulgaria-Turkey border crossings. Based on the monitoring of their movement, there was another security problem and it refers to the fact that the number of young women and minors travelling out

²¹ *Ibid.* p.18

²² *Ibid.*

to Syria and Iraq has been reported as increasing from some EU Member States in 2014, a development which the IS leader has actively encouraged.²³

Some data suggest that about one million migrants have applied for asylum in recent months due to the migrant crisis faced by the countries of Europe. The largest number of migrants in Europe came by sea, while a much smaller number came by land.²⁴ Divided between the proclaimed European values on the one hand and safety threats and insecurity on the other hand, humane steps that had inhumane consequences were created by referring to previously executed terrorist attacks, as well as to the possibility of the new ones. Some data indicate that with the migrants going into Europe thousands of terrorists have also come (some sources say that it is 4000 terrorists).²⁵ If the indicated information is correct, Europe is faced with an unprecedented security challenge which cannot be easily overcome.

CONCLUSION

With awareness that absolute security cannot be achieved this may not justify lack of improving the existing and not finding new security measures of protection and prevention. The development of society has influenced the strengthening of awareness about the growing number of security challenges with which modern countries are faced. Security challenges were not always viewed from the same angle of social development and also the generational awareness about it. In recent years we have been witnesses of frequent security pressures on potential targets for possible terrorist attacks.

Soon after the Second World War, the issue of security had again been receiving more and more importance, especially in European countries. The former basic idea of achieving i.e. re-establishing security is based solely on minimizing interstate tensions that arose between the American and Soviet bloc during the Cold War. As already mentioned, terrorist attacks have been a great security challenge in the world in recent years. There are various motives for terrorist attacks, and therefore it is difficult to predict and prevent them. However, the aim of terrorist attacks are always the same, and it is killing and wounding as many civilians as possible, and the locations of those attacks are busy (frequent) and urban places. An additional aim is causing panic and insecurity among citizens, while often there is an additional side effect, a sense of inability of the state to protect society (citizens).

In recent years, especially in recent months in European countries, the biggest security challenges have been in the form of terrorism or religious extremism. Therefore, the paper has paid a special attention to primarily theoretical consideration of these security problems after which we have analysed the modus operandi system.

Special attention in this study is devoted to the issue of terrorism and religious extremism in European countries where we can see that the number of attacks increased in 2014 contrary to the trend in past years, which was given special importance due to its re-actualization in our research.

In addition to certain important statistical data pertaining to the issue of terrorism and religious extremism, an issue of the so-called "travelling for terrorist purposes" reflected in the fact that in recent years there has been an increase in the number of individuals leaving for

²³ *Ibid.* p.22-23

²⁴ BBC News, Migrant crisis: Migration to Europe explained in graphics, www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-34131911 (January 23rd 2016)

²⁵ Express Uk, Islamic State reveals it has smuggled thousands of extremists into Europe, www.express.co.uk/news/world/555434/Islamic-State-ISIS-Smuggler-THOUSANDS-Extremists-into-Europe-Refugees (January 24th 2016)

Syria or Iraq, while security agencies report proclamation of the caliphate by IS. An additional problem faced by European security agencies is that the number of young women and minors travelling out to Syria and Iraq has been reported as increasing from some EU Member States in 2014, a development which the IS leader has actively encouraged. The mentioned represents a new security challenge because until now the terrorist attacks were carried out mostly by men, but that does not mean that the security services were exclusively “tracking only men as possible terrorists”.

At the end of this research, we have tackled the issue of migrant crisis faced by the countries of Europe, especially if you take into consideration that some data suggest that around 4000 terrorists entered Europe along with migrants. If the security information is correct, Europe will face the biggest security challenge so far. One way is prevention and work on the prevention started with the first newly arrived migrant. The first preventive measure is the registration of migrants when they enter each country. In that way a unified database on these people can be created, but also a way to check whether they have already been registered as members of terrorist organizations. If the registration is done in every transit country and the country of destination, it is possible to track the movement of migrants and potential terrorists among them, in terms of whether the migrant has registered when he/she entered the country and whether he/she has left that country. This is not sufficient for establishing security, but it is definitely part of the preventive segment. Destination countries will be facing greater problems because after assimilation, the question is whether it will be feasible to track their movements and whether it will be possible to take some of the safety measures without violating guaranteed human rights as one of the main principles of Europe.

In the very end the question arises whether Europe is a new Troy.

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THE SCANDINAVIAN MODEL OF PRIVATE SECURITY

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Abstract: During my research I tried to analyse the situation of the private security industry in the Nordic countries, and interpret the „Nordic model” (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway) and to compare the situation of the private security in the Nordic countries with the situation in some EU-Member States. My viewpoints were: the training, the private-public task division, the ratio of the active security personnel in the private/public sector, ranking the above mentioned countries on their security involvements, and legislation. It is an interesting question, which public services can be delegated to the private sector and which tasks maintains the state for itself. I was also searching for the reason why the Nordic people- especially the Finnish people- deeply trust in the police.

Keywords: private security industry, Scandinavian model

INTRODUCTION

The European communities increasingly trust in the private security sector. Not only the industry and the enterprises, but the people, authorities, and governmental actors use private security companies. The politicians, protected persons, and the citizens see the role of the private sector as an important complimentary factor of public security. Private security is constantly changing, the risks are increasing, people would like to feel safe and want to live in safety. Due to the four basic freedoms everyday life has become more integrated, the freedom of movement, goods, and services have made the changes faster. In our postmodern, complex society the effects of the factors interfere, and it leads to further changes. The development reaches a level, where it will be obvious for most people. Private security amended with public tasks will serve more and more the public interest and it will be a cause of change of paradigm.

WHAT IS THE SCANDINAVIAN MODEL?

The Nordic model contains a common cultural, legal, social and economic aspect and special regulations concerning public services and public education. The private security acts in this area are dated from nearly the same time, with the exception of Norway.

The Nordic model has welfare-aspect, and this concerns 5 countries (Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland and Iceland). But Iceland isn't part of the Nordic model of private security according to the White Paper. The reforms were very slow in these countries, and this influences the cooperation strategies of the public and private sectors.² It is important to note, that Norway isn't an EU-member state.

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² Magone J. M. (2011) p.254.

The Nordic countries have a high level of economic activities. If we see the investments into the private security sector, the biggest number of companies is micro and small, but there are a lot of middle size companies as well. In general terms this diversity is common in a free market structure. Not every company deals only with security, but the main profile of the biggest ones is security. People trust the biggest multinational companies to be the best, because they know them, their advertisements can be seen everywhere. A good example is G4S which, besides several countries, has also appeared in Hungary.

The economic structure and political model explain why private security in different countries has another character and it is also true in the countries in one region. Security tasks between the private and public sectors in these countries are shared.

THE RATE OF THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE FORCES ACCORDING TO THE WHITE PAPER 3

In the Nordic countries the private security industry is much smaller, than in France for example, maybe due to their traditionally low criminal rates.⁴ Finland is mentioned as an example from the viewpoint of law enforcement, because that country has one of the lowest criminal rates, although it has one of the lowest police force rate among EU-member states.⁵

We shouldn't underestimate the demographical data, as well. Although Finland, Norway and Sweden are among the big European countries, their numbers of population are low.

In Finland the private security forces rate is higher than that of the public security forces (56%-44%). In the other three countries the situation is contrary. In Denmark the police forces are twice as big as the public security forces (14000 capita-5250 capita).⁶ If we examine the four countries of the Nordic model, Denmark has also the most private security companies. The European private security was born here in 1901.⁷ Sweden has invested the most in personnel (42%-private security employees- 58% police personnel.) Norway has fluctuating results and there is the lowest population rate in the region. In 2008 it had more private forces than public personnel (59% to 41%) which changed in 2010 (44% private employees to 56% public police forces).

If we only see the private security companies and the number of their employees at the time of the survey (2010), Hungary had 11,304 security companies, and the private security personnel rate was 1:125. If we want a comparison between the public and private security personnel ranking the European countries, we can discover that ten countries have more private security personnel than public officers. Hungary, Finland and Norway are all among these countries. In a few countries the ratio of the private-public security personnel is almost the same.

The private security industry is heterogeneous and sector specific.⁸ Because of the sector-specific feature we have to interpret the statistical data carefully, although we get knowledge through measurement.⁹

3 www.coess.org

4 Van Steden&Sarre (2007) p.224.

5 Christián László (2013) p.89.

6 www.coess.org

7 Ottens, R., Olschok,H.&Landrock S.(1999) p. 26.

8 Cools, Davidovic, De ClercCDe Raedt (2010). p. 126.

9 Enhus (2006) p.31.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECURITY TASKS, THE „ICEBERG-CHARACTER” OF PRIVATE SECURITY

We should leave the myth of Hobbes and Marx behind, that legal violence is a state monopolium. Hobbes otherwise derives the law from the instinct of self-sustainment. That's why his philosophy of law is one-sided according to Alfred Verdross.¹⁰ Also, according to László Levente Balogh the state should give one part of enforcement-competences to the private sector.¹¹

It is an interesting question, that where the border is, which areas should stay state-run, the public sector and which need more authorisation in the private sector areas have to stay in. Public affairs and private matters have different characters, and they are constantly in interactions. The points of difference are: goals, functions, prestige, financial base, methods. In the private sector the most important factor is cost saving, because it can only operate effectively this way.¹²

The role and significance of private security sector have grown global, because the traditional public security tasks have been outsourced and the number of tasks keeps growing. However the transformation of the tasks is not smooth. For example the G4S private security company at the London Olympic Games in 2012 couldn't employ enough security personnel.¹³ Because of the flaws there is a social debate around the public task-outsourcing. The opponent thinks that the outsourcing process is weakening the sovereignty of the state. Unfortunately we have fewer reliable empirical researches, which could help forecast the changes of the sector in the future, so the scientific ground and academic debate is limited.¹⁴

According to George and Button¹⁵ there is a very suggestive simile: the private sector is an iceberg, it is very various and is evolving in many ways, than it is difficult to categorize into different theoretic and legal definitions.¹⁶ The part above the water surface contains: personal protection, private investigation, maintenance of the public order and security control of authorities. Security protection is now visible, and is getting closer and closer to the security-technology. On the other hand under the surface we find the security experts, security-technology-experts, education, and addition the private military forces. The latter is increasingly responsible for the reforms of the private security, as is the situation in Afghanistan or Iraq.¹⁷ Therefore we can see that the part under the water surface is much bigger, than the visible peak of the iceberg.

LEGISLATION ON THE PRIVATE SECURITY AREA

In most countries the private security regulation appeared in the 1990s. The first was in Italy in 1931. It was followed by the Finnish, which dates from 1944, the Swedish in 1974 and the Danish in 1986. Therefore, these 3 Nordic countries were pioneers in the legislation. Nevertheless, the legislation in Norway came about only in 2001. According to Jorma Hakala the legislation can be adopted slowly to the increasing private security and the new social re-

¹⁰ Verdross (2001)p. 277.

¹¹ Balogh László Levente (2011)

¹² Christián László ed. (2014) p.16.

¹³ Booth, R.&Hopkins, N. (2012)

¹⁴ Manning(2005) p. 23-43

¹⁵ George, Bruce&Button, Mark (2000)

¹⁶ Hakala (2008)

¹⁷ Wilson(2006)

lations.¹⁸ The changes need a lot of time. In the criminal policy of the four Scandinavian states the private security has an important place.¹⁹

Licensing, official vetting, supervision (official inspection of business and their operations)

Every Nordic state has its own basic regulation about the licensing, vetting, supervision, but this is not true for all European countries according to the White Paper in 2009. In some countries licensing is based on volunteering, or totally missing. In Scandinavia there are strict regulations for the licensing process and for the controlling. In Sweden the local governmental authority's competence is to decide whether they give licence to found a private security company. The National Police Board is also a responsible body they decide on training, equipment, uniforms. In Finland the Ministry of Interior gives out the operation-licences. In Denmark the National Security Body can control the companies any time. In Norway the control-organisations are the Ministry of Justice and the local police forces.

The outworking level of the regulations

The nature and quantity of the private security services are also different in the Scandinavian countries. The law of Sweden regulates separately the money-transporting and security alarm-settling, and handling. Moreover there are different interpretations of the public space. For example in Spain the underground stations are reckoned as private area.

Research into the statutory regulations adopted by the EU-states discovers a broad scope of private security activities. We can have a minimum and a maximum scope depending on the covered tasks. Belgium, the United Kingdom and Slovakia all have defined private security activities in great detail. The limited scope includes: surveillance of people and property, personal protection, cash-in-transit, access-control and designing, installing and managing alarm systems. The maximum-scope in some countries is similar to the privatisation. A scholarly example is the above mentioned phenomenon in from Spain. Private security agents in Austria also perform access control and patrol motorways. In Italy private firms are commissioned with handling the CCTV-cameras. In Hungary the public buildings are protected by private security companies and the police stations as well. In Germany the private security industry is entrusted to deal with minor traffic accidents. In Sweden the private sector offers ambulance services, patient transportation, road assistance and firebrigade services. The UK has gone the farthest in outsourcing its public services to the private sector: it even touches the prison services. The private sector companies escort and transport the detainees, fulfil the physical and mental health care, education and reinsertion into the society.

Three types of legislative provisions: most flexible – medium - most restrictive

According to the first White Paper there are three types of legislative provisions: most flexible – medium - the strictest. The strictest legislation is in Belgium. All aspects of the profession are covered down, into the slightest detail. Sweden has also strict regulations, which also means that the security guard has limited acting possibilities. All the Scandinavian countries have regulations, only Finland has mixed strict and medium rules. France has a medium regulation. Hungary also has a strict and detailed regulation and the codification of the new private security act is in process.

In Denmark there is a tighter joint between the private and public security industry, because this country also included this industry in other legal institutions, such as penal code, the administration of justice, public order and privacy, etc. Finland reckons the important

¹⁸ CoESS-ALMEGA(2010) p. 17.

¹⁹ Cools (2009) p. 12.

areas as follows: public order and crowd control, security screening, and checking at airports, court houses, and seaports. In Sweden a special type of guards is allowed to use handcuffs, and arrest people, while waiting for the police to arrive at the scene. Sweden has a separate legislation on maintaining order, the protection of institutions of national interest, and the installation of alarm systems.

MODELLING STEP BY STEP

The survey made by CoESS-ALMEGA pointed that the constructive cooperation between the private and public security sector have several conditions. The Scandinavian countries developed the conditions in similar ways, which are essential to good cooperation. Although they have to make efforts to improve the cooperation further, with the present results one can summarize the present results in a model. The 1st step is the Industry body. In the process of the continuously deepening cooperation security, companies in each country establish a common industry body, with absolutely clear issues, where they should work together, and which issues should not be the subject of cooperation. The 2nd step is Dialogue, the 3rd step is Business plan and goals, the 4th step is Taking the initiative and acting. If the first three steps are up and running, the industry will be in a good position, in partnership with EU organisations, driving forward dialogue with departments and authorities, and dealing with the mass media successfully. However, no industry can simply wait for the realisation these three steps. The work to build them must be done simultaneously with the work to design to promote industry issues.

CORRUPTION-THE FINNISH DRUG SCANDAL AND THE TRUST IN THE POLICE

In international comparison the trust in the police is very high in Finland. The fact is deeply rooted in the Finnish society, and less influenced by factors like effectiveness of the police work or the nearness of police or the quality of police work.²⁰

According to a survey made at the millennium, the social respect of the police in Finland is the highest in the EU states. In Finland 88% of respondents were satisfied with the everyday work of the police. This number was in Denmark 87%, in Norway 81%.²¹

Police Barometer surveys show Finnish public opinion on the role and services of the police, feelings about safety and security, fear of crime, experiences of crime, and trust in the national institutions in crime prevention. According to the Police Barometer 2014, Finnish people assume more and more corruption and unethical behaviour within the police. The proportion was 42% of the respondents who said, that the Finnish police are corrupt. This ratio is far more than the ratio according to the Police Barometer 2012. In the survey of 2012, the proportion of respondents who admitted that corruption in the police was likely accounted to 27 per cent.²²

The survey-makers think that the Jari Aarnio-case is responsible for this record. He used to be the Police Chief of the Helsinki drug unit. "An effective drug cartel", he said, is like a chess game where the pawns protect the king". Aarnio was arrested on November 12, 2013 on

²⁰ Kääriäinen, Juha (2008) pp.141-159

²¹ Christián László (2013) pp.130-142.

²² www.finlandtimes.fi/national/2015/02/12/14173/More-Finns-guess-corruption-in-police

charges of crimes including taking bribes from a private company. The government thought that the bribery suspicions and the subsequent massive media appearance would erode the confidence in the police.

However we can emphasize that indeed this case couldn't erode the confidence in the ability of the police to ensure general safety. The survey respondents also believe that the police are still the most important security body in preventing crime and improvement of security in local communities. Police reliability in fire and rescue services has also grown up. It is obvious that Aarnio's case had an influence on people's perception of the police. Eventually the ex-police officer Aarnio got a sentence of 13 years in prison on 30 charges, including drug-smuggling, forgery and abuse of public office, witness intimidation and obstruction of justice. The case has already spawned changes to improve oversight of law enforcement. The Finnish national police board now requires that every police department in the country have a legal unit with the task of ensuring that police officers themselves cannot breach the law.²³

TRAINING AT THE PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR

In the Scandinavian countries high level education and professionalism are among the requirements. In Denmark the person and property protection personnel study in public schools. In Finland the education is obligatory and it runs in the schools that have a special licence. In Norway the educational centres are in the property of the trade union and employers. In Sweden the bigger part of security personnel is trained at schools which are in the property of private security employers and associations.

In the EU there are different levels of requirements in education. In almost every country, except Germany, the security has to be trained before starting to work. The duration of the training is variable. The longest is in Hungary (320 hours), in Sweden (301 hours), in Denmark it is medium long, in Finland and in Belgium it is shorter (approximately 100-132 hours). The shortest training is in Slovakia, in France and in the U.K. (32-90 hours).

Sirpa Virta, a member of the 15-member-committee wrote about the COPPRA (Community Policing on Preventing Radicalization)-programme, led by Belgium.²⁴ This EU programme from 2009 organized a law enforcement project for the patrols, who do their service in the streets. The goal of this project is the prevention of the radicalisation and extremism. Besides education another good device is the integration and the dialogue between cultures.

COOPERATION BETWEEN THE POLICE AND SECURITY COMPANIES²⁵

Security guards and police officers usually work together in harmony. Many security jobs entail an obvious need to cooperate. Security guards detect and often report crimes. When working in public environments such as shopping centres, it is common for a security company and the police to develop joint strategies to reduce law and order problems and criminality in the area. Cooperation is largely based on the individuals on both sides who are willing to do a bit more. Shopping centre managers are usually also in the cooperation loop and make rooms available for joint meetings. Breakfast seminars are organised in which police officers

²³ www.nytimes.com/2015/08/03/world/europe/finland-police-detective-jari-aarnio-drug-smuggling-charges.html?_r=0 (letöltve:2015.11.15.)

²⁴ Virta, Sirpa (2012) p.12.

²⁵ www.coess.org

and security personnel can provide information to store employees in the shopping centre. Common goals and visions are set.

The Nordic countries differ slightly when it comes to how companies can contract security services. This affects opportunities for cooperation in environments such as shopping centres, locations that require a great deal of cooperation to ensure a safe environment for all visitors.

In Norway, shopping centres can contract police services for assistance. In Sweden, shopping centres can apply to the police to have entrance security and public order control personnel. In Finland, security guards are able to catch anyone causing disturbance in a store if the store owner gives the guard permission to do so.

In other words, the problems associated with ensuring a safe and secure environment in potentially troublesome locations are resolved in different ways in the Nordic countries.

Close cooperation is based on security company clients, the police and security companies having adequate resources. Such cooperation is based on a realistic assessment of what can be achieved well with the resources actually available. The ultimate aim of cooperation must be the safety and security of the public.

Another vital ingredient for cooperation is the existence of a clear dividing line between what police work is and what private security work is. The general public must know how uniformed security personnel can and are permitted to act when an incident occurs irrespective of whether this is a security guard or a police officer.

At a terrorist attack, natural disasters, war or other serious incidents Scandinavian police could involve thousands of security personnel in the rescue. None of the Nordic countries have any kind of organised cooperation between the police and security companies that would enable security guards to offer full support in the event of a grave emergency situation. Irrespective of where or what time of day or night a serious accident or disaster occurs, thousands of security personnel will be at work. Many of whom are equipped with keys, radio systems, mobile phones, vehicles, not to mention local knowledge of their area. No matter what the incident, security personnel would become involved. Emergency planning arrangements are already in place for numerous areas of society and everything that is of social importance. Security personnel can also be firefighters, auxiliary police officers, and members of the armed forces or have some other job that is important for society. Some local emergency planning arrangements are based on calling on the support of security personnel. However, many things can go wrong if they are not coordinated at a national level and sometimes even at an international level. The skills security guards possess must be utilised in the event of a crisis and efforts are made to ensure that security guards can genuinely do what an emergency plan requires them to do.

Finland has taken a step in this direction by requiring all security personnel who work at sites critical for society to have communication systems that enable them to rapidly contact the police and other emergency services in the event of an incident.

Security guards are already in place in many areas of society. They will often be the first on the scene when a serious incident occurs. Cooperation, planning, training and exercises involving security, police and authority personnel can limit the effects of a catastrophe for society.

The 18th paragraph of the Finnish Private Security Services Act regulates the „personnel file” and „work shift file” of employees in detail. The first is important because at an extraordinary event the police can involve the security personnel into the work, by the latter the police and other authorities can control the work of employees.²⁶

26 www.finlex.fi/en/laki/kaannokset/.../en20020282.pdf. Private Security Services Act (282/2002; amendments up to 765/2003 included) Sec.18.

CONCLUSION-EVALUATION OF THE PRIVATE SECURITY MARKET

We can summarize the features of the Scandinavian private security model as follows:

1. The legislation of this sector is nearly the same
2. The sector is under strict control by the authorities
3. Past control, screening (companies and also persons)
4. High-level education
5. Strong trade unions, high level of organisation of workers
6. In European relation good salaries for the security personnel
7. Continuous dialogue with the authorities
8. Good level of social dialogue
9. Collective agreement, as a ruling device recognized by the government

The main lesson the Scandinavian model teaches us is not theoretical, but practical. These countries are not popular, because of their size, but because how they function. A Swede pays taxes more willingly than a Californian, because he gets high quality services. The Scandinavian at the public services area are first of all pragmatic. (For example the Danish and Norwegian hospitals are run by private companies.) The success of the Scandinavian model has its roots in the long tradition of good governing, which means not only honesty and transparency, but also the compromise. Besides this all these four governments have a responsible fiscal policy.²⁷

In the last decade the services of the private security sector carried out new solutions, and variable technologies. Beyond the pure security tasks the private security companies have more and more jobs, e.g. lobbying and real estate-handling. As parts of other areas, these activities mean added values.

Migration roots worldwide run from the peripheral areas towards the center. The higher standards of life, the stronger security environment, and beaging societies are attractive factors for the population of Asia, Latin-America and Africa.²⁸ The role of the private security industry is becoming more and more important in the international security strategies. The Scandinavian countries have gradually invested into the private forms of the public order maintenance, due to the economic and scientific changes of the public administration.

The goal is to establish a safe Europe on a common ground. The available sources must be used to give high-quality services, which we can be reached by an open, honest dialogue between all the participants.

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GUN CULTURE IN THE REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA

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Abstract: This paper questions whether the gun culture is one of the characteristics of the society in Republic of Srpska or not. The first part of the paper deals with theoretical concerns and closer explanation of what is understood by the term gun culture, particularly analysing its terminology through the several main components of the gun culture, system of positive beliefs, social symbols embodied by the gun and bearers of gun culture. The second part of the paper presents results from the survey conducted in Republic of Srpska regarding this issue. The outcomes were analysed and presented within the framework of perception of key problems in society, general perception of security, confidence in security providers and attitudes towards weapons.

Keywords: *gun culture, violence, security providers, attitudes toward guns, small arms and light weapons.*

INTRODUCTION

Weapons is seen as a problem that encourages violence, complicates the process of peaceful settlement of the problem, jeopardizing the socio-economic and general prosperity and the security environment in almost every post-conflict area is extremely sensitive to its presence. The presence of weapons in the Republic of Srpska is the result of several factors. It creates the preconditions for the existence of the state of permanent violence, instability and threats to security of citizens, poses a constant threat and affects sustainable peace within the affected territory or community. Developing ways of resisting and creating a balance between the existence of threats and demands for ownership of firearms is only possible through the process of building confidence in the security providers. Besides this, there are certain socio-cultural aspects of gun ownership that require a change of thinking and developing a new social, security awareness. The evolution of society should put aside until now generally accepted "gun culture" and replace it with a new point of view. This new social, security awareness should be created by raising security to a higher, probably a necessary level. The purpose of this paper is to indicate the presence and place of "gun culture" in the social milieu of the Republic of Srpska and to offer an answer to the hypothetical standpoint that gun culture is not cultural characteristic of the society or that it exists in society in a negative way.

FIREARMS AND THE GUN CULTURE

Firearms could be defined as any lethal conventional individual infantry weapon that can be carried and used by individuals, worn on a lightweight vehicle and does not require special maintenance.² This term is often replaced by the terms: guns, personal weapons, small arms,

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² SEESAC, 2008: 1.

light small arms, small arms and light weapons etc. For the purposes of this paper, the use of these synonyms will refer to the same concept. On the other hand, the term “gun culture” is possible to define as a system of values and beliefs in which the availability and possession of firearms is generally accepted.

The term “gun culture” is often used as a general concept that explains the cultural elements or forms in any way, with a different purpose or reason, favouring and glorifying the possession of weapons in a particular social group. Most commonly is used to describe a positive attitude towards guns. Although there is in use a similar term “culture of violence”, it has nothing in common with a positive attitude toward firearms and the difference between the gun culture and the culture of violence is that in many societies that are characterized as a societies with a culture of weapons, the use of the weapons for a violent purposes is strictly prohibited and strictly regulated by the law. Gun culture could be defined as a widespread and generally accepted availability, possession and use of weapons in a society, although historical and traditional factors may affect this “acceptability” of weapons to a greater or lesser extent. While this definition of culture of weapons is terminologically precise regarding the aspects of the culture of weapons that is active (used) and passive (possession), Faltas’s definition is limited to a passive aspect although defines culture of weapon as a system of values and beliefs.³ In this way, the term gun culture is associated with other aspects of the culture and creates a certain cultural models in which weapons have more or less pronounced role, depending on the society. There is also a different approach to the perception of the problem of a gun culture and refers to the opposite opinion on the possession and control of the weapons. In this respect, there are groups that are “pro-weapons” and groups that are “pro-control”. Their division is sometimes difficult because it is assumed that if someone is “pro-weapon” is against weapons *per se*.⁴

Gun culture is manifested as a special way of presenting history in order to provide historical legitimacy, forming and shaping such cultural values in the context of tradition. This has led to the disintegration of the myth of warrior in everyday urban environment, which created a new paradigm of a “tough guy”, whose integral part of the style and the “image” is the weapon. This myth is present today and the role of weapons in society is one of the aspects of observation of this phenomenon. It could be instrumental or just part of folklore. The South Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SEESAC) describes the culture of weapons as a cultural acceptance of weapons possession in situations where the primary motivation or justification is for the general and economic nature, because society or social group has the values and norms that characterize such behaviour as acceptable.⁵ The cultural complexity does not allow assessment of a gun culture as an independent or self-sufficient set of values and attitudes, but rather as a component within the broader socio-cultural complex. In many societies, the specific cultural elements describe the presence of weapons in a way that connect the major institutions and communities with weapons and strictly forbid it outside this context. This is the case with the military, police, private security entities, etc.

When describing the phenomenon of gun culture, several elements are emerging as specific. First, the discussion about the gun culture should be based on the existing system of beliefs, values and attitudes that describe the availability, possession and use of weapons. The assumption is that the term itself has a positive attitude towards weapons and that, beyond certain limits of use and accessibility, the society or its parts have a positive attitude towards guns. The second is the symbolism that weapons in a society are serving to define the status

3 Saferworld and BICC, 2003:39

4 Utter, True, 2000:67–69.

5 SEESAC, 2006:1.

and the role between the sexes. Finally, there is the existence of differences between individual and collective carriers of weapons. The way the gun culture is institutionalized, formally or informally as part of customs, can have a significant impact in situations of social change or transition process. These three elements, a system of positive beliefs, social symbolism associated with weapons and carriers of weapons represent a basis for discussion of this phenomenon in this paper.

Since the forms of violence vary, it is logical to assume that these transformations happen under various circumstances and the changes will be manifested depending on the political, social and other conditions, sanctioning violent behaviour no matter to whom it is directed, to a member of a group or to individuals from other groups, in situations in which the violence is the behaviour or form of communication within the group. In any case, the transitional situation of society and the lack of experience of individuals is not sufficient reason to conclude that certain political, social and economic situation “produces” individuals ready to nurture aggression and to force it to the stage of violence. According to this standpoint, the existential disorientation, collapse of the value system, social anomalies, subcultural models, collective behaviour or mass psychosis, are at the root of the violence.

As far as the territory of the Republic of Srpska is concerned, there are signs by which the specific culture of violence was promoted by the officials, mostly through the media in order to mobilize and maintain state of mind necessary for the duration of the Civil War. The role of the state is neither inherent nor a patent in the Republic of Srpska’s society.⁶ Since the gun culture has no negative connotations *per se* and may affect the establishment of the strict rules or preventing the use of weapons, it is necessary to consider the circumstances which may give rise to the use of weapons in a destructive way. It could be concluded that the gun culture in the Republic of Srpska is not a problem or a threat if not supported, or does not appear parallel to the culture of violence.

Difficulties in delivering and collecting weapons in the Republic of Srpska are not related to the cultural attitudes of citizens. Surveys conducted by the SEESAC have shown that weapons do not occupy a central position in any custom or ritual, and the occasional use for the celebratory purposes is a question of individual approach. Previous studies have shown that a small number of citizens see guns as a part of the tradition and a relatively large number who would not want it in their homes.⁷ Therefore, marking the society in the Republic of Srpska as particularly interested in weapons does not stand. The existence of certain cultural patterns, according to which “the house is not a house without weapons” affects the overall attitude and perception of weapons. In addition to that, culture as a dynamic category, develops under external pressure and these influences act on the identification of the use of weapons as deviant forms of behaviour in modern civilization. Different factors have influenced the emergence and existence of the problems of weapons, both historical and political, legal and the other. Comprehensive consideration of these factors would create the complete picture of the occurrence of this type of threat to the security of the citizens of the Republic of Srpska.

6 “The state create situation in which it has monopoly over the use of violence so that in case of war there is a programme of socialization which has the role to prepare society for the war as it was the case with Germany during WWII.” Kron, (2001), in Cvetkovic Vladimir: *Српско друштво и култура оружја*, OEEC, Pristina, (2006), p. 46. More about the role of media in socialization for the war in ex-Yugoslavia see in: Thompson, 1999.

7 Around 48%. SEESAC, 2006:32.

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

Looking at the presence of the cultural pattern of the “gun culture” in the territory of the Republic of Srpska, a survey was carried out in late 2014 on the structured sample. A fifth of respondents felt that security in their communities has improved while 40% saw the weapons as a problem in their community. Looking at the sample test, 32% of respondents said that owning a gun increases the personal and family security. Results do not indicate correlation between gun ownership and security but rather they have mixed feelings, while they feel there is too many weapons in the society, they perceive gun ownership as a legitimate in a climate of unstable political situation, the situation of constant fear and threats, real and fictitious, and current crime rates, but also taking into account long established traditions. Male respondents demonstrated less negative attitude towards firearms than females, and young men (under 26) demonstrated an active and increased interest in firearms. A survey has shown that legally, weapons would be purchased by 55% of respondents and the main reason for the purchase of the weapons is alleged protection of themselves and their families in 41% of cases. This relatively high percentage is contradictory to perception of relatively high level of overall security that can be attributed firstly to a failure of the authorities to be sufficiently open to the public, through more efficient policing aimed primarily at the community and secondly to a local government proactivity. According to the results of survey, the police have been reasonably effective in providing security but inefficient in the suppression of serious crime, which undermines the overall confidence and security. Improving of administrative capacity for law enforcement in order to deal with organized crime should be continued and enhanced but significant achievements need to be better explained to the public. This would increase confidence to security providers and will reduce the requirements for the acquisition and possession of firearms.

Although the vast majority of respondents to the survey considered that there are today too many weapons in the Republic of Srpska, results regarding the impact of weapons show that weapons do not overly affect the life of the average citizen of the Republic of Srpska. Respondents do not consider the availability or use of weapons troubling in the places where they live and in scale from never, to just sometimes, they worry that they will be hurt or injured by firearms. The survey also showed that persistent political turbulence and the development of extremism generate the fear that the population in the Republic of Srpska will be forced to defend themselves. This fear is heightened by the feeling that the “state” is negligent in relation to this issue as well as very by low prospects for economic and political development. During the survey it was found that a number of respondents see the problem in changes of the system of values, stating that, for example, breakdown of the traditional family means that parents spend less time with their children, because in a culture where individuals are becoming more important than the community, young people do what they want and do not answer to anyone, especially if the laws are not applied properly. Also, a number of respondents noted that people today are impatient and increasingly violent because they cannot control themselves.

In such circumstances, access to weapons means that there is a greater likelihood of resolving disputes with the use of violence or weapons. This confirms the standpoint that the gun culture does not present a threat unless it is in connected to the culture of violence. Respondents from rural areas choose the basic needs at the expense of improved security. Respondents from the urban areas, however, often considered as important improvement of security on a contrary to the people who live in rural areas. The reason why the security of respondents is in the last place could be explained by the fact that the vast majority of them in essence does not feel threatened.

PERCEPTION OF SECURITY

When looking at the general security situation, the survey has shown that the security situation in most living areas is the same and has not changed significantly in the past five years. This may mean that people are not interested and feel that they do not need to participate in their own security which unfortunately points to the low level of security culture and the potential problems of development of security culture in the new security concept. Besides this, the specificity of the geopolitical position of the Republic of Srpska points to the threats underlined in the comments of respondents who believe that the unstable political situation and experience from the history shows that many citizens possess firearms and that they will not give them away due to the sense of threat from other ethnic groups in BiH. The existence of a latent balance of terror that affects the strengthening of the general atmosphere of tension, generates the risk of the situation in which the possession of firearms is out of control, thus the probability of incidents due to their use would increase significantly. At this point, the experience shows that the presence of weapons within sight stimulates aggressive behaviour and serves as a trigger for violence.

Based on the survey, 68.4% of respondents feel safe in their communities because they believe that security is the same as in other communities, 25.1% believe that the situation is getting worse and only 4.1% believe that their community is safer than others. This general attitude is reflected in the same way when it comes to the younger population, so 64.8% of the younger age respondents believe that security in their communities is the same as in other communities in the Republic of Srpska, and there is no differences when one looks at the attitudes of respondents by place of residence. Generally speaking, it is considered that the security situation has been stable in the last five years, though only slightly less than a quarter of respondents believe that security has improved during this period (see Figure 1).

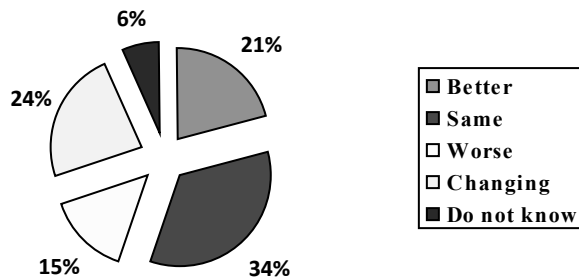


Figure 1: Perception of security in past five years

At the individual level, some 21% of respondents feel that level of personal safety has improved, while 34% think it has stayed the same over the last five years, although in larger living areas the sense of security has markedly increased. Looking at the attitudes towards gender, it is evident that twice as many male respondents considered that the security situation is better (25.7%) compared to the previous five years, contrary to opinion of female respondents (12.9%). On the other hand it is interesting that only 17.7% of respondents employed in the security structures believe that the situation has improved as compared to 25% with the same attitude who are not employees of the security structures. The impression is that people outside the security structures actually have a completely different picture than the members of the security structures, so 35.5% respondents from the security structures believe that the security situation is changing, while only 15.5% of those who are not employed in the security structures observe fluctuation of security conditions. The conclusion is that the security situ-

ation has not changed much in the last five years. According to this, the security is not questionable, so the citizens do not feel insecure, at least not below a reasonable level. This level is defined by each citizen individually, within a personal context, and because of this it is more subjective than objective assessment of observation or indicator. The survey has offered a standpoint that the presence of firearms, legal and illegal, is a problem in areas where respondents live, with 40% of respondents who have confirmed this as completely true, while at the same time 33% of respondents partly agreed with this statement. This means that the problem of firearms is present among the citizens, but it currently does not endanger their security. This suggests that citizens feel safe in their communities, and do not pay a special attention to the problem of firearms, which are apparently present. It is interesting that respondents employed in security sector perceive problem of firearms more (45.2%) than those who are not employed in this sector (38.1%). More detailed analysis reveals that people in urban areas are more often concerned about weapons (43.8%) than people living in rural areas (35.7%).

It is generally considered that most firearms are kept for protection of the family and their properties and that it is used only when there is a valid reason, which means that there is still uncertainty or sense of threat that should not be ignored. The survey results show that a large number of citizens (52%) believe that too many weapons is in their immediate environment, while only 20% think the opposite. Of those who believe that too many weapons are in the area, even 65.2% believe that criminal groups were primarily those that have too many weapons. Respondents believe that only 9% of households have too many weapons and only 5.6% that they were former soldiers. Around a fifth of respondents believe that generally all possess too many weapons. From the perspective of respondents' professional orientation, 58.1% of security sector employees believe that too many weapons are in the region while 46.4% of those who are not employed in the security sector has the same attitude. Identical is the situation in regard to the perception of the urban and rural population on the issue of the possession of weapons.

CONFIDENCE IN SECURITY PROVIDERS

A hypothetical basis that the society in the Republic of Srpska is characterized by a low level of trust in conventional security providers, which manifests itself in the absence of citizens' support to security providers and taking an active role in their security, was encompassed in this survey. As a broader social context, trust in institutions is very important in shaping the evaluation and public attitudes. During the survey, a confidence in the police was examined. The survey has shown that one third of respondents (28%) have the highest confidence in the police of the Republic of Srpska (Figure 2). On a scale of confidence, after the police, citizens have the highest confidence in the neighbours, while the least confidence they have in local government, which is a sort of paradox, because the local government was chosen by those citizens. The issue of trust in the institutions is also reflected in the standpoint that the fear of a lack of anonymity during the amnesty has impact on reducing the number of unregistered firearm owners who have been seeking legalization. In addition, the cost of registering firearms⁸ in the Republic of Srpska is relatively high, which in the current economic situation could deter the person from registration, while the price of weapons on the black market is much smaller.⁹ That is the reason why a number of respondents noted that it is relatively easy

⁸ Tax for the handgun is 100 BAM, tax for ammunition 30 BAM and the weapon license is 30 BAM. Besides, it is necessary to pay medical examination that is on average 30 BAM and there is an annual tax for weapons.

⁹ The average price of some types of weapons on the black market in the region: automatic gun

and convenient to buy illegal weapons. On the other hand, a positive aspect can be seen in the tendency of people returning weapons because they could not be registered, even though many do not know where to buy a gun legally, and the current situation does not seem to act discouraging to legal registration.

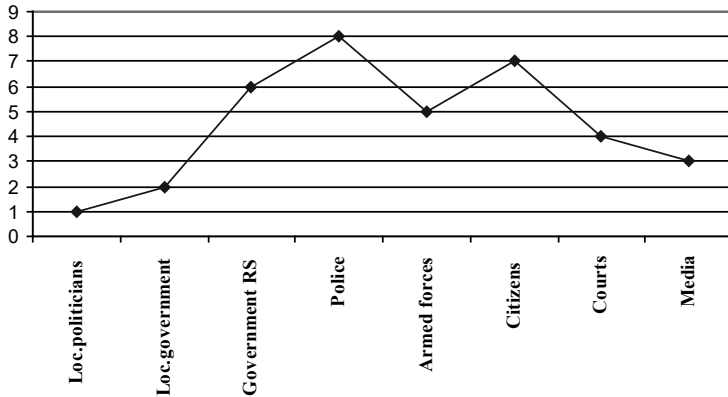


Figure 2: *Institutions confidence rank (8 – the highest, 1 – the lowest)*

The question of trust in the security providers is reflected in the confidence in the case when participants were victims. In case of an attack on their own property, 82% of respondents said they would first go to the police. This is consistent regardless of gender structure, place of residence or professional orientation of the survey sample. In all cases, it is about two-thirds of trust in the police, as a conventional security provider. Respondents believe that the police are primarily responsible for the security and that they are more efficient than other security providers. Many respondents felt that confidence in the police is growing, but corruption, links between the police and criminals and insufficient expertise, were identified as the main reasons why people do not believe the police in a greater extent. The survey has shown that the authority at the state level is barely involved in achieving security, while only about 9% of respondents believe that citizens are responsible for their own security. This means that the security culture of the citizens is not sufficient and that their view of the participation of citizens in the provision of security from “inside” is not recognized as a need and option. The conclusion is that the citizens have the passive attitude and that they left provision of security to conventional security providers, although realization of security in the so-called “new concept” will require raising the level of security culture.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS WEAPONS

During the survey, the attitudes of respondents on possession and ownership of the firearms were explored. Most respondents (41%) declared that the protection of themselves and their families was the dominant reason to acquire a weapon. Despite the reported confidence

“scorpion” – 200 €, TT 7,62mm – 125 €, Glock21 – 650 €, bullet piece – 1 €. Legally, prices of the weapons are between 200 and 2000 €. Prices in Republic of Srpska are 430 BAM for the gun M-57, up to 900 BAM for IJ3 99. Glock is between 1290 to 1800 BAM. The rifle IJ3 is around 1350 BAM, shotgun 575 to 780 BAM, shotgun Browning between 320 and 3940 BAM. The price of ammunition is between 1-2 BAM, hunting rifle bullet 2,2 BAM. Those prices are taken from the “Јаћимовић” store in Banja Luka. Concurrently, the prices in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina are between 450 and 4000 BAM, depending on model.

in the police and widely expressed standpoint that they feel safe in their communities, it is clear that the majority of respondents in fact do not feel so safe. The reasons are several, beside the crime, unstable political situation was identified as well, recidivism of the civil war and mistrust among nations and cultural patterns at the end. Some respondents have clearly indicated that the historical experience in the area in which they live require possession of a firearm. It is necessary to underline that this view is shared by both male and female respondents. Regarding the profession, 47% of respondents employed in the security sector and 37% of those who are not employed in security represented this attitude. The same situation is when the age structure or place of residence of the respondents is concerned. Property protection is in correlation to the dominant demand for firearms. It is also notable that hunting gets an important place among the reasons for the purchase of the weapons while about 10% of male respondents stated this reason for owning a gun, having only 3.8% of female respondents stating this as the reason. The same applies to sports as a reason for owning a gun. It is interesting that more respondents, who are not employed in the security sector, stated hunting as a reason for owning a gun (9%) compared to those who are employed in the security sector (2.4%). In line with the expected is that there is a far greater number of respondents who are employed in the security sector who cited the risk of professions as the dominant reason for arms procurement (13%).

On question of who should legally be allowed to possess a weapon, excluding members of the conventional security providers, different answers were obtained. Overall, the survey results show that most of respondents did not know how to answer this question (34%), and this follows the view that only older men (21%), and then the women and men who meet specific requirements for possession of a firearm, can possess a weapon (18%). As for profession, most employees in the security sector believe that only older men need to possess a firearm (24%), while 18% of respondents in this sector believe that all who meet the requirements can own guns. On the other side, respondents who are not employed in the security sector have partly different views. A similar proportion of respondents (15%) have the attitude that both men and women, and older men and women, in the absence of men, can own a gun. This means that in principle all who meet the particular conditions stipulated by the law can own a gun. In this category, the largest number of respondents is undecided.

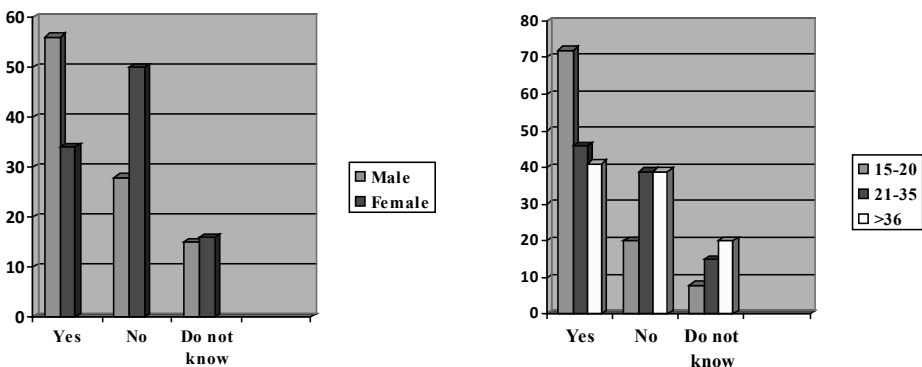


Figure 3: *Would you acquire the weapon according the law, if in position to do that?*

When asked whether they or other members of their household choose to own a firearm if they were permitted by the law, 56% of respondents answered positively to this question. Men are more likely to answer positively than women, as expected (Figure 3). Regarding the profession, two thirds of respondents employees of the security sector (61%) responded

positively to this question, while at the same time half of the respondents who are not employed in the security sector (49%) responded negatively to this question. Employees in the security sector have a lesser aversion to firearms and probably feel more comfortable in their presence. What may be of concern are the survey results obtained from respondents regarding the age structure. Over 70% of younger respondents, teenagers, would acquire a weapon. This raises the question of the impact of firearms on the young population but also the functions of family and school. Special survey on this aspect of the problem have not been performed, although surveys from the neighbouring countries suggest that young people have quite an experience with guns and those who were surveyed, expressed their satisfaction with their use. Possession of weapons is becoming more socially acceptable, due to factors such as increased media coverage of the violence¹⁰, the production and use of toys that stimulate aggressive behaviour in children and increased tolerance of violent behaviour by the state, as well as aggressive video games more and more present on the territory of the Republic of Srpska, as well as the average age of consumers of these games (elementary and secondary schools). Ms Tatjana Mihajlović, a psychologist pedagogue from Banja Luka, says that the weapon is extremely tempting to even small children because: "Already in the eighth and ninth grade there is a curiosity about experimenting. Their curiosity, when it comes to firearms, simply leads them in such situation to take it out, see and taste it. They feel more important than others and so eager to brag to their friends that they have or have been able to handle some of the firearms".

During the survey, possession of firearms by respondents was examined. While it is common that the answer to this question is absent, only 13% of respondents refused to provide an answer. A total of 60% of respondents said they do not possess a weapon, of which, structured by gender, 70% of female respondents and 53% of male respondents. Male respondents were more likely to answer positively to this question and they often possess guns (in 21% of cases), while female respondents were less likely to respond affirmatively to this question. Regarding the profession, 23% of respondents employed in the security sector confirmed having a gun at home while 66% of them said they have no weapons at home. The reason for such a cross-section of responses is probably to a greater representation of members of the military than police or other security entities in the total number of this part of the sample. On the other hand, 13% of respondents who are not employed in the security sector said they would like to have a gun at home, while 62% of them said that they have no weapons in households. A relatively small number of respondents stated that they hold hunting weapons (3.5%) while the number of those who own an old trophy and unusable weapons as well as those who possess explosives and explosive devices is negligible although indicative (below 1%). Here it was interesting to examine the correlation between the attitudes of respondents on whether and which weapons neighbours and citizens possess, and what weapons is held by each citizen personally. Using the correlation coefficient ϕ , the correlation in the case of gender structure and profession was examined. In both cases, the two variables are dichotomous, the first variable is the phenomenon of gender and profession, respectively, which is naturally divided into two categories, while the other variable is the willingness to report possession of a firearm which justifies the use of the coefficient ϕ . The obtained correlation coefficients are $\phi_1 = 0.15$ and $\phi_2 = 0.10$. The significance of this ratio is checked by using the X^2 test, which is assigned to the result of $X^2_1 = 19.95$, and $X^2_2 = 11.90$. Since the calculated X^2 is greater than the reference, it is considered

¹⁰ Many media and magazines give a lot of space in their reports to criminals and promoting indirectly their activities. In situation where there is almost no educational programme and where weapons are the main "means of communication", it is not possible to have a different outcome, especially in young population. It is the same with the violence present in video games, where as a result we have aggressive behaviour expressed through different internet forums and social networks that directly or indirectly promote "culture of violence" and use of weapons.

to be statistically significant which means that the correlation between sex and professional orientation and willingness to report possession of weapons is real and not accidental, resulting from this sample.

Regarding the type of weapons that each respondent personally owns in the household, the results are interesting if one looks at the age structure. Among the respondents, the youngest age group of the sample, up to 20 years, about 22% of them claim they possess a firearm in the household, 33% that they have got no weapons and 16% respondents refused to answer. For the middle age group, between 20 to 35 years of age, only 12% admitted having a gun in the household, 65% that they do not have any weapons and 16% refused to answer. It is similar to respondents of the third age group, older than 35 years, where 27% of them admitted possessing a weapon, 61% that they do not have any weapons and 10% refused to answer. During the research, the reasons why people choose to possess firearms were explored. Although 16% of respondents believe that possessing firearms has nothing to do with personal safety, the same number believes that possession of firearms actually makes a person and his/her family members less safe. The most common answer to all questions why people possess weapons is that they are kept for personal security although the number of those who believe that owning a gun does not increase the security of respondents and their families is almost the same (about 16%). When looking at the results of the survey regarding the professional orientation, there is a greater number of those employed in the security sector who believe that guns increase their security and the security of their families (32% affirmative versus 23% negative). Respondents who are not employed in the security sector have the prevailing view that weapons are not increasing their security (27% affirmative versus 32% negative), while the number of those who believe that owning a gun does not affect the security is about the same (about 16%). This could be explained by the attitude of the members of the security sector towards weapons because they certainly feel freer in their presence. When asked about the reasons why people keep guns in general (see Figure 4), the respondents were able to give multiple answers. The most common reason for holding weapons was hunting (28%), followed by personal protection and surplus remained after the war. Owners of the firearms gave similar answers. Female respondents listed as the most common cause personal protection and protection of the family (30%), which is expected and naturally opposed to the male respondents' standpoint (22%). None of the respondents refused to answer, though about 7% do not know the reasons for owning a gun. Results obtained by posing this question indicated a relationship with the question of why would each individual acquire a weapon. Given that there are two variables that represent a phenomenon, continuously distributed, the Pearson correlation coefficient was used in order to explore this connection. The result was: $r_{xy} = 0.31$, which indicates that the correlation between attitudes towards the reasons for owning a gun in the household and the reasons for the acquisition of weapons is small and citizens generally speculate if and why their neighbours have weapons. This indicates that in the case of any action, the police activities would be limited by poor knowledge of situation and inability of the police to rely on the citizens. This also indicates that this would require the need for intensive community policing.

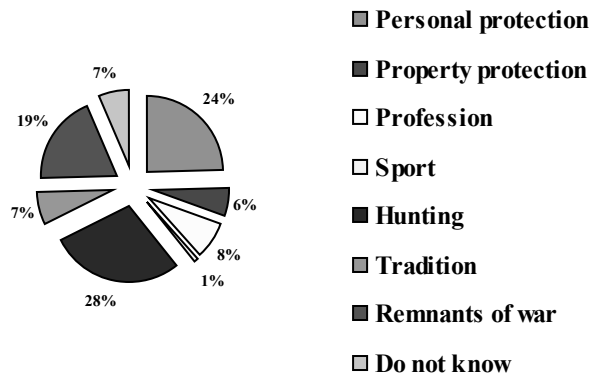


Figure 4: *What would be the main reasons why the households in your communities possess the weapons?*

In order to fully comprehend the aspects of the so-called gun culture in the social milieu of the Republic of Srpska, there were more questions. While many European countries have long traditions of hunting, the fewer have a tradition of using weapons in ceremonies or the special celebrations. It seems that this tradition dates back to before the creation of the nation-state and according to some sources, it is a modern manifestation of an older tradition of knives. Others point to epic Serbian figures and added that “criminals often represent themselves for their heirs”. The result of the survey shows that respondents believe that the use of weapons, although certainly part of the tradition, is unacceptable and should be penalized. It is evident that the greater number of male respondent support the use of weapons for the purpose of celebration, but it is also interesting that most of the respondents outside the security sector support their use for this purpose. Some comments indicated that the weapon symbolizes their “status in society” and as such is “trendy”. Given that and according to respondents, the failure of awareness campaigns and social and economic insecurity are the main reasons for the high rate of weapon ownership. Regarding the use of weapons, which until recently was part of the “folklore” of any festive occasion or celebration, it could be noted that they are not used for that purpose so frequently they used to (59% of urban and 53% rural population respondents). There could be more reasons for this, although it is indicative that the younger generation is more interested in weapons than the older generation. This is reflected in the attitudes of the acquisition and possession, but also in the use of weapons. Unlike the previous period, the weapon is not often seen, except for authorized persons. Of the total sample, 58% of respondents from urban areas were of the standpoint that the weapons, except for authorized persons, are not seen so often while around 13% do not see them ever. On the other hand, 60% of respondents from rural areas do not see a weapon so often, and probably it is more often seen in hunting, than respondents from urban areas. At the same time, respondents from urban areas often see guns among members of the security providers, both private and governmental.

The existence of weapons in the Republic of Srpska is indisputable. The demand for defensive types of firearms, especially handguns and short double-barrelled guns is growing along with increasing public fears (real or imagined) of the occurrence of violence (real or hybrid threats). Respondents revealed that the fear of violent crime is relatively small (behind unemployment, prospects for youth and economic uncertainty), which should support the view that the demand for firearms is stable or is decreasing. However, the data obtained from the Ministry of Interior indicate that the number of issued arms licences is bigger than in previous years. At the same time, the data obtained from the sellers of weapons suggest that there

is no increasing sales of arms but rather the legalization of illegal weapons. It seems that the number of applications for possession and purchase of weapons is growing, although it has to be viewed within a wider range of factors that influence this. The lack of official data and the old way of keeping records do not provide a realistic assessment of the actual state of legal weapons. Such an analysis could be done after the completion of the registration of weapons in the possession of citizens.

CONCLUSION

The survey results indicate that many people possess firearms because they want to protect themselves, their property and families. Most of respondents do not see weapons as the most serious problem in the Republic of Srpska and do not feel that the level of security is directly connected to it, in spite of the opinion that the government cannot guarantee security in an appropriate manner and that there is too many weapons within the society. The thesis that society in the Republic of Srpska is characterized by a low level of trust in conventional security providers is partially true. In spite of this, the public in the Republic of Srpska does not have a particularly high confidence in official institutions, although the trust of respondents in the police as a conventional security provider is still significant.

The existence of the “gun culture” phenomenon in the Republic of Srpska is a source of many controversy and discussion. This is important because, if such a phenomenon exists, it is of crucial importance for the understanding of specific cultural reasons for owning a gun in the Republic of Srpska. On the other hand, if such a phenomenon does not exist, it is still important for the understanding of other social, political and economic reasons why people choose to possess firearms. This survey provides a deeper insight into this problem. Those who are enthusiastic regarding the existence of a “gun culture” in the Republic of Srpska are forming their standpoint on the tradition that binds the possession of weapons of personal security and security of the family.

Although respondents generally believe that there are already too many weapons in the society, the main forms of security threats do not include directly weapons in possession of the citizens, but forms of threats that are indirectly related to it. Its presence is not perceived by the average citizen and on the other hand personal protection, protection of family and property are given as the main reason for owning a gun, so the role of weapons is hypothetically instrumentalized and has no special symbolism. Taking this into account, it cannot be verified that the “gun culture” exists in the Republic of Srpska society, i.e. ordinary citizens cannot be identified as the carriers of that culture. Some subgroups, such as criminals, who can be regarded as a form of subculture, cannot be taken as a cultural model for the Republic of Srpska.

According to this, a firearm does not have a negative connotation in the Republic of Srpska society and the predominant perception of weapons is based on the instrumental function and not on symbolism. For the average citizen, the weapon is nothing more than the subject of the inherent purpose, the protection of family or hunt, for example. Gun culture is cultivated and maintained in the army or in general in communities where the weapons had their own function. In the case of gun culture, the media have an important role and survey has shown what impact they have on the population. If weapons are seen as an inherent element of the community, it will be difficult to convince individuals to surrender them. However, by enacting policies that would break down these stereotypes, people might stop hanging onto the notion that “a house without a weapon is not a home”.

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INFLUENCE OF PARENTHOOD ON CITIZEN PREPAREDNESS FOR RESPONSE TO NATURAL DISASTERS CAUSED BY FLOODS

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Abstract: In this paper that presents the quantitative study, authors examined the influence of parenthood on the citizen preparedness to respond to natural disasters caused by floods in the Republic of Serbia. Taking into account all municipalities in Serbia in which there are risks of flooding, 19 of these were randomly selected. The research in selected municipalities was undertaken in those areas and households that have been or are potentially the most vulnerable in relation to the level of high water with the use of a multi-stage random sample. The test method based on the technique of interviewing was applied in the research.

The research results indicate that heavy rains encourage parents in higher percents to think about preparedness for responding in relation to citizens who are not parents. Parents to a greater extent as the reasons for not taking preventive measures point out that their assistance in this matter would not mean much, that they expect the citizens from flood-affected areas to be primarily engaged in actions of protection and rescue, then they know the safety procedures for response and they would be to a greater extent evacuated in friends' places, etc.

In domestic theory on disasters, there have been insufficient experimental researches, while at the same there are no papers on the relationship between parenting and the preparedness of citizens to respond. Thus, the practical aim of the research was to contribute to the improvement of citizens' preparedness to respond to natural disasters caused by floods. Namely, the research indicates the way how parents in order to raise preparedness for response to a higher level should be influenced.

Keywords: safety, natural disasters, floods, citizens, parenthood, preparedness for response, Serbia.

INTRODUCTION

Many physical aspects of natural disasters are out of control of people and severely threaten them. This does not mean that people behave passively facing them, but they design and implement measures to mitigate effects of natural disasters.² Attention of social sciences directed to disasters is a relative novelty. Drabek suggests that the research of disasters is located

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² Jakovljević et. al. (2015). *Prirodne katastrofe i obrazovanje (Natural disaster and education)*. Beograd: Univerzitet u Beogradu, Fakultet bezbednosti, 2015., p. 19

at a strategic crossroads between legal, economic, political and environmental dimensions,³ as well as technical and technological, safety, managerial and geo-informational dimensions.⁴ Community members can respond to disasters in different ways. They simply can absorb impacts of disaster with little or no pre-designed action and rely on improvisation to meet the immediate and long term needs. However, as awareness of potential natural disasters within a given social unit grows, the ability of planned and formally directed “adjustments” (i.e. efforts to distribute risk, modify effects, or prevent the occurrence of natural disasters) also increases.

Research conducted over the past thirty years have been greatly highlighted and explained the demographic, socio-economic, psychological and other factors that affect the preparedness of citizens to respond to natural disasters.⁵ Preparedness as a concept in the theory of disasters includes activities undertaken before natural disasters in order to improve the response and recovery from resulting consequences.⁶ Thereby, preparedness for defence against floods involves knowledge and skills related to response (knowledge of local flood risks, warning systems and ways of reacting), and possession of supplies of material and technical resources and plans for emergency response (hereinafter referred to as supplies).

Bearing in mind the frequency and consequences of the catastrophic floods in the last ten years in the national geographic space, as well as the possibility of their re-emergence, there is among other things, a need for constant research of factors that influence the level of preparedness of citizens from vulnerable and potentially vulnerable municipalities (hereinafter: local communities) for response in such situations. Therefore, the aim of this study was to explore parenthood as one of the factors influencing the level of preparedness of citizens to respond to natural disasters caused by flooding.

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK IN RESEARCH

The sample

For research purposes, communities in the Republic of Serbia with high and low risk of flooding were stratified by statistical method and empirical generalization. In this way stratum was obtained, or population consisted of all adult residents of local communities in which it

3 Drabek, T. E.: *Human system responses to disaster: An inventory of sociological findings*. New York, Springer, 1986. p. 14.

4 Milojković, B. (2014). Geotopografsko obezbeđenje upotrebe jedinica policije u akcijama zaštite i spasavanja od poplava u maju 2014. godine (Geotopographic security use police units in the actions of protection and rescue from floods in may 2014). *Bezbednost*, 56(3), p. 6.

5 Cvetković, et al. (2015). Uticaj statusa regulisane vojne obaveze na spremnost građana za reagovanje na prirodnu katastrofu izazvanu poplavom u Republici Srbiji (Impact of the status of military obligations on preparedness for flood disaster in serbia). *Ecologica*, 22(80), p. 584; Cvetković, V., & Stanišić, J. (2015). Relationship between demographic and environmental factors with knowledge of secondary school students on natural disasters., *SASA, Journal of the Geographical Institute Jovan Cvijic*, 65(3), p. 324; Cvetković, V., (2015). Faktori uticaja na znanje i percepciju učenika srednjih škola u Beogradu o prirodnim katastrofama izazvanim klizištima ((Factors of influence to the knowledge and perception of secondary school students in Belgrade about natural disasters caused by landslides)). *Bezbednost*, LVII(1/2015), p. 32; Cvetković, et al. (2015). Knowledge and perception of secondary school students in Belgrade about earthquakes as natural disasters. *Polish journal of environmental studies*, 24(4), p. 1553

6 Cvetković, V. (2015). Spremnost za reagovanje na prirodnu katastrofu - pregled literature (Preparedness for natural disaster – review of the literature). *Bezbednost, policija i građani*, XI (1-2), p. 165; Gillespie, D. E., & Streeter, C. L. (1987). Conceptualizing and measuring disaster preparedness. *International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters*, 5(2), p. 155. Cvetković, V. (2015). Spremnost građana za reagovanje na prirodnu katastrofu izazvanu poplavom u Republici Srbiji (The preparedness of citizens to respond to natural disaster caused by floods in Serbia). (*Doktorska disertacija – Doctoral thesis*), Univerzitet u Beogradu, Fakultet bezbednosti.

occurred or there is a risk of flood occurrence. From this stratum, 19 from a total of 154 communities where there was the threat or potential threat of flooding were randomly selected.⁷ The research included the following communities: Obrenovac, Šabac, Kruševac, Kragujevac, Sremska Mitrovica, Priboj, Batočina, Svilajnac, Lapovo, Paraćin, Smederevska Palanka, Jaša Tomić, Loznica, Bajina Bašta, Smederevo, Novi Sad, Kraljevo, Užice and Rekovac (Figure 1).

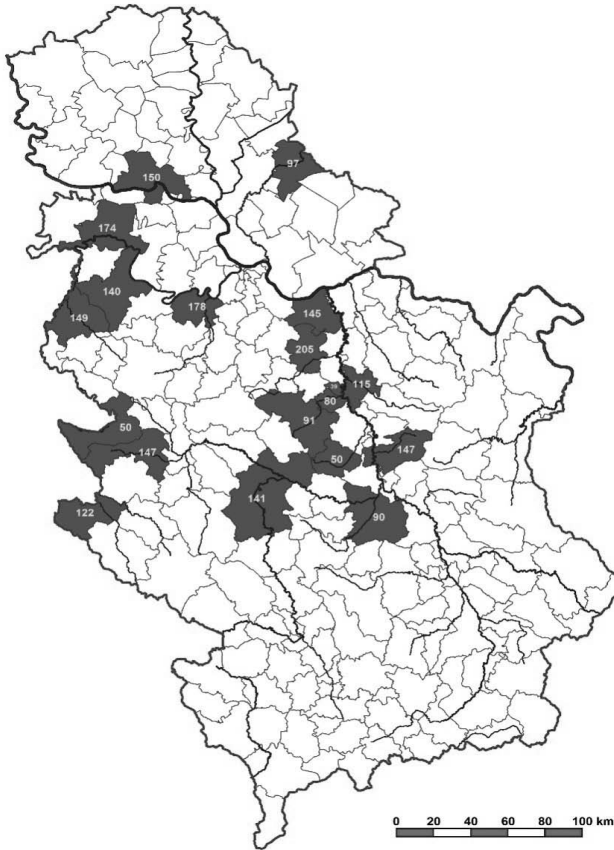


Figure 1: *Map of geospatial distribution of respondents by local communities in the Republic of Serbia*

Further sampling procedure used multistage random sampling. The first stage determined parts in administrative headquarters of local communities that were threatened by flood waves or potential risk of high water. The second stage determined streets or parts of streets, and the third stage defined households in which the survey would be conducted. The number of households is harmonized with the population of the community. The fourth stage of sampling referred to the selection procedure of respondents within predefined household. The selection of respondents was conducted randomly selecting adult household members who were present at the time of the survey. The study surveyed a total of 2500 persons (Table 1).

⁷ According to statistical data for 2014, the Republic of Serbia without Kosovo and Metohija has 168 municipalities.

Table 1: *Characteristics of local communities where citizen survey was conducted*

Local community	Total square area	Localities	Population	Number of households	Number of respondents	Percentages (%)
Obrenovac	410	29	72682	7752	178	7.71
Šabac	797	52	114548	19585	140	6.06
Kruševac	854	101	131368	19342	90	3.90
Kregujevac	835	5	179417	49969	91	3.94
Sremska Mitrovica	762	26	78776	14213	174	7.53
Priboj	553	33	26386	6199	122	5.28
Batočina	136	11	11525	1678	80	3.46
Svilajnac	336	22	22940	3141	115	4.98
Lapovo	55	2	7650	2300	39	1.69
Paraćin	542	35	53327	8565	147	6.36
Smederevska Palanka	421	18	49185	8700	205	8.87
Sečanj – Jaša Tomić	82	1	2373	1111	97	4.20
Loznica	612	54	78136	6666	149	6.45
Bajina Bašta	673	36	7432	3014	50	2.16
Smederevo	484	28	107048	20948	145	6.28
Novi Sad	699	16	346163	72513	150	6.49
Kraljevo	1530	92	123724	19360	141	6.10
Rekovac	336	32	10525	710	50	2.16
Užice	667	41	76886	17836	147	6.36
Total - 19	10784	634	1500091	283602	2500	100

Table 2 gives a detailed overview of the structure of the sample of surveyed citizens.

Table 2: *Structure of the sample of surveyed citizens*

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Gender	Male	1244	49.8
	Female	1256	50.2
Age	18-28	711	28.4
	28-38	554	22.2
	38-48	521	20.8
	48-58	492	19.7
	58-68	169	6.8
	Over 68	53	2.2

Education	Primary	180	7.2
	Secondary/3 years	520	20.8
	Secondary/4 years	1032	41.3
	Higher	245	9.8
	High	439	17.6
	Master	73	2.9
Marital status	Doctorate	11	0.4
	Single	470	18.8
	In relationship	423	16.9
	Engaged	67	2.7
	Married	1366	54.6
	Divorced	99	4.0
Distance between household and river (km)	Widow / widower	75	3.0
	Up to 2 km	1479	59.2
	From 2 to 5	744	29.8
	From 5 to 10	231	9.2
Number of household members	Over 10	46	1.8
	Up to 2	63	2.5
	From 2 to 4	1223	48.9
	From 4 to 6	639	25.6
Employment status	Over 6	575	23.0
	Yes	1519	60.8
Size of apartment / house (m²)	No	883	35.3
	Up to 35	128	3.9
	35-60	237	7.2
	60-80	279	8.5
	80-100	126	3.9
Income level - montly	Over 100	45	1.4
	Up to 25.000 RSD	727	29.1
	Up to 50.000 RSD	935	37.4
	U to 75.000 RSD	475	19.0
	Over 90.0000 RSD	191	7.6

The implementation of the sampling techniques provided a solid representation of the sample, while sample size gave reliability of reasoning on basic set - population.

Sample of variables

Operationalization of theoretical concept of preparedness to respond identified three dimensions of impact on predictor variable that were studied in such a way that for each variable a number of criterion variables is determined (Figure 2). The sample of criterion variables consisted of three groups: the first, dimension related to the perception of preparedness for response and includes variables on preparedness at different levels, barriers to raise level of preparedness, variables on expectation of help from various categories of people and organizations and evaluation of effectiveness of response of first respondents; the second group of dimensions relating to knowledge, was studied through the variables in relation to the level of knowledge, flood risk mapping; knowledge of where shelters are, as well as technical means for protection and rescue and methods of handling, desire for training, desire for modes of education and knowledge of how to access information on floods; the third group of dimensions refers to supplies, i.e. to variables such as holding of oral/written response plans, keeping supplies of food and water, radio-transistors, flashlights, hack, shovel, hoe, spade, first-aid kit and insurance policies of persons and property.

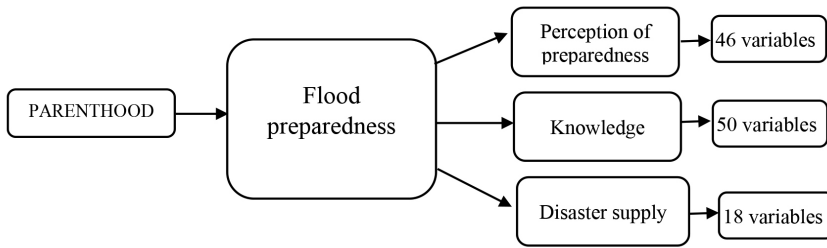


Figure 2: Design of research variables

Instrument

The design of valid and reliable instrument included three steps. The first step identified relevant research which used scales for measuring preparedness of citizens to respond to disasters. The second step took an adapted or a specially designed question in the questionnaire for each variable (perception of preparedness to respond - 46 variables; knowledge - 50 and supplies - 18). In the third step, a preliminary (pilot) study was carried out in Batočina on a sample of 50 respondents with the aim of checking metric characteristics of the constructed instrument.

Data analysis

Statistical analysis of collected data was done in *Statistical Package for Social Sciences*. Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) was used for testing the correlation of gender and categorical variables on perception, knowledge and possession of supplies and plans for a natural disaster caused by flood. On this occasion additional assumptions were filled which related to minimal expected frequency in all cells, which amounted to five or more. In assessment of size of the impact ratio phi coefficient that represents the correlation coefficient ranging from 0 to 1 was used, where a higher number indicates a stronger relationship between the two variables. Cohen's criteria were used: 0.10 for small, 0.30 for medium and 0.50 for a large impact (Cohen, 1988). For tables larger than 2 x 2, to assess the size of the impact, Cramer's V indicator which takes into account the number of degrees of freedom was used. Accordingly, it is for the R-1 or K-1 equals to 1, the following criteria of impact size were used: small = 0.01, medium = 0.30 and large = 0.50 (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2004). To test the statistical significance of differences between mean values of continuous variables on the perception, knowledge and possession of supplies and plans of the citizens who are parents and those who are not, *independent samples t-test* was elected.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) examined the correlation between parenthood and categorical variables on the perception of preparedness to respond to a natural disaster caused by flood (hereinafter - natural disasters). The results of Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) (with continuity correction by Yeats, referring to tables 2 x 2) has shown that there is a statistically significant relationship between parenthood and the following variables (Table 4): the engaged in field work ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = - 0.091$ – small impact); the engaged in shelters ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = - 0.106$ – small impact); heavy rains ($p = 0.001 < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.070$ – small impact). On the other hand, there was no statistically significant relationship with the

following variables: preventive measures ($p = 0.10 > 0.05$); financial resources ($p = 0.80 > 0.05$); visiting flood-hit areas ($p = 0.10 > 0.05$); river level rise ($p = 0.47 > 0.05$); media reports ($p = 0.54 > 0.05$); level of preparedness ($p = 0.18 > 0.05$) (Table 3).

Based on the results, parents compared to those who are not:

- A higher percentage of them think on preparedness to respond encourage due to heavy rains (parents - 42.4%, non-parents - 35.5%);
- A lower percentage of them would engage in field work to help victims (parents - 14.4%, non-parents - 21.4%); would engage in one of shelters for flood victims (parents - 3.0%, non-parents - 7.7%).

Table 3: *Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) of parenthood and variables on the perception of preparedness to respond*

	value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2 - sided)	Phi coefficient
Preventive measures	4,508	2	,105	,045**
Funds	,064	1	,800	,006
The engaged in field work	19,050	1	,000*	-,091
The engaged in shelters	25,574	1	,000*	-,106
Visiting flood-hit areas	2,669	1	,102	-,035
Heavy rains	11,154	1	,001*	,070
River level rise	,511	1	,475	,016
Media reports	,361	1	,548	,013
Level of preparedness	7,511	5	,185	,057**

* statistically significant correlation - $p \leq 0.05$

** Cramer's V coefficient for tables larger than 2 x 2

Independent samples T - test examined statistically significant difference between the mean values of continuous variables on the perception of citizens who are parents and those who are not. Statistically, significant differences of results with citizens who are and are not parents were in the following continuous variables: individual preparedness (parents: $M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.07$; non-parents: $M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.01$; $t(2469) = -2.805$, $p = 0.005$, eta squared = 0.0031 - little influence); household preparedness (parents: $M = 2.98$, $SD = 0.991$; non-parents: $M = 3.10$, $SD = 0.964$; $t(2185.9) = -2.95$, $p = .003$, eta squared = 0.0039 - little influence); I am not threatened (parents: $M = 2.85$, $SD = 1.44$; non-parents: $M = 3.04$, $SD = 1.44$; $t(2445) = -3.18$, $p = 0.001$, eta squared = 0,0041 - little influence); I have no support (parents: $M = 2.69$, $SD = 1.28$; non-parents: $M = 2.84$, $SD = 1.34$; $t(2423) = -2.63$, $p = .008$, eta squared = 0,0028 - little influence); NHO (parents: $M = 2.41$, $SD = 1.19$; non-parents: $M = 2.59$, $SD = 1.14$; $t(2420) = -3.89$, $p = .000$, eta squared = 0.0062 - little influence); help would not mean much (parents: $M = 2.67$, $SD = 1.29$; non-parents: $M = 2.53$, $SD = 1.17$; $t(2321) = 2.606$, $p = 0.009$, eta squared = 0.0029 - little influence); citizens from flooded areas (parents: $M = 2.85$, $SD = 1.23$; non-parents: $M = 2.70$, $SD = 1.21$; $t(2297) = 2.97$, $p = 0.003$, eta squared = 0.0038 - little influence) (Table 4).

Table 4: T - test of comparison of mean values of variables on the perception of preparedness in relation to parenthood

Dependent variables	Levene's test for equality of variances		t - test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 - tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Individual preparedness	,670	,413	- 2,805	2469	,005*	-,121	,043	-,205	-,036
Household preparedness	6,352	,012	- 2,959	2185,962	,003*	-,118	,040	-,196	-,040
Preparednes of loc. community	,537	,464	,579	2467	,562	,028	,047	-,066	,121
National preparedness	3,019	,082	-,088	2098,760	,930	-,004	,046	-,094	,086
Sop. abilities	,438	,508	- 1,279	2454	,201	-,055	,043	-,138	,029
Importance of prev.measures	1,274	,259	-,638	2463	,524	-,030	,047	-,121	,062
First responders	,996	,318	-,440	2430	,660	-,024	,055	-,132	,084
I am not threatened	,140	,708	- 3,187	2445	,001*	-,190	,060	-,307	-,073
I do not have time for that	4,443	,035	-,414	2422	,679	-,023	,056	-,132	,086
It is very expensive	,080	,777	- 1,588	2412	,112	-,087	,055	-,194	,020
I will not influence on safety	1,060	,303	,511	2417	,610	,028	,054	-,079	,134
I am not capable	11,924	,001	-,952	1998,440	,341	-,053	,056	-,162	,056
I have no support	1,038	,308	- 2,634	2423	,008*	-,143	,054	-,249	-,036
I cannot prevent	,116	,733	1,177	2408	,239	,066	,056	-,044	,177
Household members	,008	,927	-,734	2435	,463	-,037	,051	-,137	,063
Neighbours	,001	,978	-,559	2436	,576	-,029	,052	-,130	,073
National hum. organisation	7,182	,007	- 3,890	2420	,000*	-,189	,048	-,284	-,093
International hum. organisation	9,154	,003	-,628	2419	,530	-,030	,048	-,123	,063
Religious community	9,594	,002	-,464	2187,536	,643	-,023	,050	-,122	,075
Police	,072	,789	- 1,557	2433	,120	-,085	,054	-,191	,022
First responders	6,421	,011	-,815	2152,615	,415	-,041	,051	-,140	,058
Emergency service	,925	,336	,485	2435	,628	,025	,051	-,076	,125
Army	2,828	,093	- 1,537	2437	,125	-,085	,055	-,193	,023
Self-organized individuals	4,972	,026	- 1,646	2100,962	,100	-,091	,055	-,200	,017
Awareness	4,115	,043	- 1,693	2195,454	,091	-,086	,051	-,186	,014
Help would not mean much	3,122	,077	2,606	2321	,009*	,138	,053	,034	,241
Others helped	1,245	,265	-,185	2320	,854	-,010	,052	-,111	,092
Duty of state authorities	1,716	,190	,800	2315	,424	,042	,053	-,061	,146
Citizens from flooded areas	2,396	,122	2,976	2297	,003*	,155	,052	,053	,257
Lack of time	3,003	,083	1,573	2307	,116	,086	,055	-,021	,194
It is too expensive	,177	,674	-,202	2305	,840	-,010	,051	-,110	,089
Police efficiency	2,396	,122	,100	2412	,920	,005	,053	-,099	,109
Efficiency of first responders	,423	,516	,853	2413	,394	,046	,053	-,059	,151
Efficiency of emergency service	,423	,515	1,462	2412	,144	,074	,051	-,025	,174
Efficiency of army	2,121	,145	,173	2399	,862	,010	,055	-,099	,118
Efficiency of staff for emergencies	4,140	,042	-	2168,455	,080	-,098	,056	-,208	,012

* Statistically significant difference of test results - $p \leq 0.05$

With parents, there is a higher level of specifying the following reasons for not taking measures of preparedness to respond: my help would not mean much and I expected citizens from flood-affected areas to be primarily engaged. On the other hand, there was a lower level of assessment of individual preparedness and preparedness of households to respond to natural

disasters caused by flood; specifying the following reasons for not taking preventive measures at the personal level that would help in the event of flooding: I do not consider myself or my household at risk of flooding and have no support from the local community; expecting help from non-governmental humanitarian organizations in the first 72 hours after occurrence of floods.

The results of Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) showed a statistically significant correlation between parenthood and the following variables on knowledge of natural disasters caused by floods (Table 5): familiarity with safety procedures ($p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $v = 0.093$ - little influence); evacuation ($p = 0.001 < 0.05$, $v = 0.089$ - little influence); training at work ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.153$ - little influence); elders, disabled ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.086$ - little influence); help - elders, disabled ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.162$ - little influence); neighbors - individually ($p = 0.008 < 0.05$, $v = 0.064$ - little influence); official warning ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.144$ - small impact); potential infections ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.173$ - small impact); water valve ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.237$ - little influence); gas valve ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.169$ - little influence); electricity switch ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.182$ - little influence); handling water valve ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.227$ - little influence); handling gas valve ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.176$ - little influence); handling electricity switch ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.159$ - little influence); information from household members ($p = 0.001 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.068$ - little influence); information from a friend ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.098$ - little influence); information at school ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.080$ - little influence); information in collage ($p = 0.004 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.062$ - little influence); information through an informal system ($p = 0.011 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.055$ - little influence); information at work ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.086$ - little influence); information on the radio ($p = 0.024 < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.048$ - little influence); information via the Internet ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.087$ - little influence); education through television ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.076$ - little influence); education via video - games ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.085$ - little influence); education via the Internet ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = -0.122$ - little influence). On the other hand, there was no statistically significant relationship with variables: education at school ($p = 0.12 > 0.05$); education within family ($p = 0.79 > 0.05$); apparatus for firefighting ($p = 0.71 > 0.05$), restocking ($p = 0.60 > 0.05$); first aid kit in the home ($p = 0.16 > 0.05$), and discussions and plan ($p = 0.16 > 0.05$) (Table 5).

Based on the results, it is noticed that the parents compared to non-parents:

- in a higher percentage: know the safety procedures for floods (parents - 26.9%, non-parents - 19.7%); would evacuate to a friend's place (parents - 37.9%, non-parents - 33.3%); say that someone at work told them about the floods (parents - 38.4%, non-parents - 23.8%); know where in the community live elders, handicapped and infants (parents - 26.9%, non-parents - 19.7%); know what assistance is needed by elders, disabled and infants during floods (parents - 59.9%, non-parents - 43.5%); know what should do after official warnings about approach of flood wave (parents - 33.9%, non-parents - 21.1%); aware of viruses and infections that accompany period after the floods (parents - 52.5%, non-parents - 35.5%); they know where the water valve is (parents - 87% non-parents - 67.6%), gas valve (parents - 61% non-parents - 44.3%), electricity switch (parents - 84.5%, non-parents - 70.7%); know how to handle the water valve (parents - 82.5%, non-parents - 62.4%), gas valve (parents - 58.7%, non-parents - 41%), electricity switch (parents - 77, 9% non-parents - 63.7%); say they got information about floods at work (parents - 16.8%, non-parents - 10.6%), the radio (parents - 17.2%, non-parents - 13.6%); would like to be educated about the floods on television (parents - 65.4%, non-parents - 57.9%);

- in a lower percentage: they would evacuate to shelters during floods (parents - 2.3%, non-parents - 15.4%) and rented apartments (parents - 26.9%, non-parents - 4.8%); say they think that their neighbors can independently save themselves in case of flooding (parents -

38.2%, non-parents - 38.7%); point out they got information about floods from household members (parents - 16.9%, non-parents - 14.7%), from friends (parents - 8.4%, non-parents - 14.6%) at school (parents - 11.8%, non-parents - 17.5%), at college (parents - 4.5%, non-parents - 7.4%), through informal system of education (parents - 7.2%, non-parents - 10.3%) over the Internet (parents - 25.4%, non-parents - 33.4%); would like to be educated through the video - games (parents - 0.9%, non-parents - 3.2%).

Table 5: Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) of parenthood and knowledge

	value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2 - sided)	Cramers v
Knowledge on floods	5,522	2	,063	,048
Familiarity with safety procedures	19,785	2	,000*	,093
Evacuation	17,761	4	,001*	,089
Education at school	4,239	2	,120	,042
Education within family	,449	2	,799	,014
Education at work	54,026	2	,000*	,153
Elders, disabled	17,412	2	,000*	,086
Consent to evacuate	1,989	1	,158	,030
Help - elders, disabled	63,842	2	,000*	,162
Neighbors - individually	9,689	2	,008*	,064
Flood risk map	3,157	2	,206	,036
Official warning	47,972	2	,000*	,144
Potential infections	70,263	2	,000*	,173
Water valve	134,937	2	,000*	,237
Gas valve	54,541	2	,000*	,169
Electricity switch	76,327	2	,000*	,182
Handling water valve	124,109	2	,000*	,227
Handling gas valve	60,449	2	,000*	,176
Handling electricity switch	58,625	2	,000*	,159
Information from family members	10,635	1	,001*	-,068**
Information from neighbors	1,857	1	,173	,029**
Information from friends	21,926	1	,000*	-,098**
Information from relatives	,930	1	,335	-,021**
Information at school	14,568	1	,000*	-,080**
Information at college	8,391	1	,004*	-,062**
Information through an informal system	6,509	1	,011*	-,055**
Information at work	16,934	1	,000*	,086**
Information in religious community	,000	1	1,000	-,002**
Information on television	,446	1	,504	,015**
Information on the radio	5,059	1	,024*	,048**
Information from the press	2,528	1	,112	,034**
Information via the Internet	17,564	1	,000*	-,087**
Trained	1,773	1	,183	,029
Desire for training	5,742	2	,057	,050
Education via television	13,205	1	,000*	,076**
Education on the radio	1,857	1	,173	-,030**
Education through video - game	15,239	1	,000*	-,085**
Education via the Internet	34,173	1	,000*	-,122**
Education through lectures	,032	1	,859	,005**
Informal system	,349	1	,554	,013

* Statistically significant correlation - $p \leq 0.05$

** Phi coefficient for tables bigger than 2 x 2

For the examination of relationship between parenthood and continuous dependent variables on knowledge, independent samples t - test was elected. Statistically significant differences of the results about citizens who have and those who do not have children existed in the following continuous variables on knowledge: risk of flooding. - 1 year (parents: $M = 2.65$, $SD = 1.42$; unemployed: $M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.23$; $t(2322.6) = 4.29$, $p = .000$, eta squared = 0.0078 - little influence); risk of flooding. - 5 years. (parents: $M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.42$; unemployed: $M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.31$ $t(2216) = 2.55$, $p = .011$, eta squared = 0.0029 - little influence); first responders (parents: $M = 2.82$, $SD = 1.35$; unemployed: $M = 2.72$, $SD = 1.18$; $t(2279) = 2.03$, $p = 0.042$, eta squared = 0.0018 - little influence); nearby shelters (parents: $M = 2.24$, $SD = 1.27$; unemployed: $M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.16$; $t(2221) = -2.35$, $p = 0.018$, eta squared = 0.0024 - little influence) (Table 6). For parents, there was a higher level of assessment of risk of flooding local community in the next one and next five years and better familiarity with responsibilities of first responders in natural disasters caused by flooding. On the other hand, a lower level of familiarity with nearby shelters was found.

Table 6: *T - test of comparison of the mean values of variables on knowledge in relation to parenthood*

Dependent variables	Levene's test for equality of variances		t - test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 - tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Level of knowledge	,547	,460	1,020	2370	,308	,044	,043	-,040	,128
Risk of flooding – 1 year	36,647	,000	4,292	2322,609	,000*	,231	,054	,126	,337
Risk of flooding – 5 years	4,343	,037	2,553	2216,956	,011*	,144	,056	,033	,255
Warning systems	3,372	,066	1,543	2416	,123	,076	,049	-,021	,173
Insurance	10,343	,001	,798	2217,146	,425	,041	,051	-,060	,141
First responders	31,250	,000	2,038	2279,225	,042*	,106	,052	,004	,208
Stuff for Emergency Situations	14,476	,000	1,368	2225,515	,172	,071	,052	-,031	,173
Fire routes	10,072	,002	,156	2187,742	,876	,008	,052	-,095	,111
Nearby shelters	7,762	,005	-2,359	2221,093	,018*	-,118	,050	-,217	-,020
Vulnerability assessment and plans	4,706	,030	-1,448	2179,079	,148	-,072	,049	-,169	,025

* Statistically significant difference of test results - $p \leq 0.05$

Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) examined the relationship between parenthood status and categorical variables on supplies and plans for response to a natural disaster caused by flood. The results of Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) (with continuity correction by Yeats, referring to tables 2 x 2) have shown that there is a statistically significant relationship

between parenthood and the following variables: supplies at home ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.090$ – little influence); food supply ($p = 0.004 < 0.05$, $v = 0.120$ – little influence); water supply ($p = 0.002 < 0.05$, $v = 0.135$ – little influence); restocking ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.116$ – little influence); copies of documents ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.131$ – little influence); insurance ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$, $v = 0.191$ – little influence) (Table 7).

Based on results, it is noticed that parents compared to non-parents:

- in a higher percentage have: food supplies for four days (parents - 66.2%, non-parents - 56.9%); water supplies for four days (parents - 51.8%, non-parents - 38.9%); never replenish supplies (parents - 49.5%, non-parents - 38.1%); copies of important financial, personal and other documents (parents - 28.4%, non-parents - 26.9%); home insurance in case of flood (parents - 9.3%, non-parents - 7.1%);

- in a lower percentage have: supplies at home in case of a natural disaster caused by flood (parents - 24.7%, non-parents - 26.6%); food supplies for two days (parents - 13.8%, non-parents - 22.8%); water supply for one day (parents - 22%, non-parents - 24.6%), for two days (parents - 26.2%, non-parents - 36.4%); replenish supplies once a month (parents - 32% non-parents - 37%), once a year (parents - 18.5%, non-parents - 24.9%).

Table 7: Chi-square test of independence (χ^2) between parenthood, having supplies and response plans

	value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2 - sided)	Cramers, v
Supplies at home	19,435	2	,000*	,090
Food supplies	10,843	2	,004*	,120
Water supplies	12,834	2	,002*	,135
Radio - transistor	,002	1	,969	-,003**
Flashlight	,010	1	,921	-,004**
Shovel	3,595	1	,058	,055**
Hack	3,313	1	,069	,053**
Hoe and spade	1,248	1	,264	,033**
Apparatus for firefighting	,872	1	,350	,030**
Restocking	17,416	2	,000*	,116**
Supplies in the car	5,564	3	,135	,050
First aid kit in the home	34,111	2	,000*	,123
First aid kit in the vehicle	7,931	2	,019	,065
First aid kit - easily accessible	14,843	2	,001*	,086
Response plan	22,220	3	,000*	,097
Discussion of the plan	17,599	2	,000*	,088
Copies of documents	37,592	2	,000*	,131
Insurance	86,223	2	,000*	,191

* Statistically significant correlation - $p \leq 0.05$

** Phi coefficient, table 2 x 2

The results obtained in similar surveys do not differ significantly. For example, the research results of preparedness of citizens to respond to natural disasters conducted in the United States, indicate that 30% of respondents are familiar with the warning systems and informing on natural disasters, 31% know the way how they can get important information during natural disasters, 47 % know how to evacuate, 48% are familiar with local risks from natural disasters, 54% of respondents know where the nearest shelters are, and 58% are familiar with evacuation routes.⁸

8 FEMA (2009) Personal Preparedness in America: Findings from the Citizen Corps National Survey [online]. <http://www.citizen corps.gov/ready/research.shtm> [accessed 24. December 2015].

Then, the results of the research conducted in Scotland showed that 38.1% of respondents are informed through neighbors and friends, 28.6% over the radio, 27.2% in the press, 28.5% over the national television, 36.7% over the relevant state authorities and 12.8% in other ways.⁹

CONCLUSION

Parents in higher percentage/greater extent in relation to non-parents think about preparedness to respond due to heavy rains. They point out the following reasons for not taking action of preparedness: "My help would not mean much" and "I expected the citizens from flood-affected areas would be primarily engaged". Then, they are familiar with safety procedures, they would evacuate to a friend's place, they point out that someone at work talked about the floods; they know where elders, disabled and infants live in the community; they know what help is needed by elders, disabled and infants; they know what they should do after official warnings about the approach of the flood; they are familiar with viruses and infections that accompany the period after the flood; they know where the water valve, gas valve and electricity switch are; they know how to handle the water and gas valve, electricity switch; they say that they got the information about the floods at work, on the radio; they would like to be educated about the floods on television; they scored a level of assessment of risk from flooding local community in the next year and five years and higher familiarity with the responsibilities of first responders in natural disasters caused by flooding; they have food and water supplies for four days; they never replenish supplies they have; they have copies of important financial, personal and other documents and they have home insurance in case of flood.

On the other hand, the respondents who are not parents in higher percentage/greater extent: would engage in assisting the victims in the field and in shelters, scored a rating level of individual preparedness and preparedness of households to respond. They point out the following reasons for not taking preventive measures on personal plan: "I do not consider myself or my household at risk of flooding" and "I have no support from the local community"; they expect help from non-governmental humanitarian organizations in the first 72 hours after the occurrence of flood; they would evacuate to shelters during the floods and rented apartments; they believe their neighbors can rescue themselves in the event of floods; they say they got the information on floods from family members, friends, at school, at college, through informal education system, through the Internet; they would like to be educated through video - games, scored a level of familiarity with the nearby shelters; they possess: supplies at home, food supplies for two days, water supply for one day and two days; they replenish supplies once a month and once a year.

RECOMMENDATION

Based on the results, parents should be influenced to get involved in providing assistance in shelters; to evacuate to shelters; to be educated by television. On the other hand, citizens who are not parents should be influenced to learn about safety procedures for viruses and infections that accompany a period after the flood; to be informed about the positions of the water valve, gas valve and electricity switch. They should be educated about how to handle the water valve, gas valve and electricity switch. They should be directed to possess supplies at home, food supplies for two days, water supplies for one day, to replenish supplies once a month and once a year.

⁹ Werritty et al. (2007). *Exploring the social impacts of flood risk and flooding in Scotland: Scottish Executive*, Edinburgh, p. 122

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INTERORGANIZATIONAL COLLABORATION IN COUNTERING HYBRID WARFARE

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Abstract: The connection between politics and warfare is well known and well expressed by famous von Clausewitz's statement that war is a continuation of politics by other means. International and intranational conflicts in modern age have become very complex and fuzzy with breaking all kind of boundaries. Traditional state organizational structures dealing with security issues still follow the traditional scheme of division of labor, organizational shapes and hierarchies, missions and relationships. Unlike the state organizations, security threats show much greater development dynamic and generated new forms of appearance. New shapes of conflicts have been given a new name: hybrid warfare. While the term itself is good as a singular label for a rich set of very different kinds of activities and issues including armed conflicts, it is questionable to declare hybrid warfare a new kind of warfare, or to go one step forward: „hybrid peacefare“. However, this paper does not deal with terminological issues and scholarly dilemmas about novelties of hybrid warfare per se. Instead, this paper tends to point out a phenomenon from the field of organizational and management sciences known as Inter-organizational cooperation and its potential that could be useful in considering security issues. In short, hybrid warfare generate new and enlarged demands on the side of the response. Single organization, ministry, department or agency, faced with hybrid warfare challenges, usually recognize shortages of its resources, knowledge or mandate to successfully respond to the hybrid challenge. Because of that, single organizations are oriented to each other to make burden sharing, information and knowledge dissemination, and create synergism in order to be successful in countering hybrid warfare.

Keywords: Inter-organizational, collaboration, hybrid warfare, defence, security

INTRODUCTION

Defence and security community and researchers particularly are trying to understand modern warfare² and conflicts in general³. There are many indicators about fundamental changes in many aspects of the physiognomy of modern warfare. Classical descriptors of war seem confusing: there are problems in opponents identification (who makes war against who; state or non-state actors); real reasons for starting a war (and who was initiator); (official)

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² Arquilla, John, Ronfeldt, David, "Swarming and the Future of Conflict", Rand Corporation, National Defense Research Institute, (1999).

³ Bousquet Antoine "The Scientific Way of Warfare", Columbia University Press, New York, 2009.

declaration of war and (official) ending of war; determination of war zone; and so on. Many determinants become fuzzy, messy and unclear. To understand „Hybrid warfare“, it is useful to start from classical definition of the war in general. The connection between politics and warfare is well known and well expressed by famous von Clausewitz's statement that war is a continuation of politics by other means. In that sense war and peace could be considered as a continuum. In moder world of networked and mutually dependent states, there are many levers of power (not only political, but economic, social, financial, media related, etc) that could be applicable in order to achieve goals of such importance and kind that for such many states entered the war in the past. International and intranational conficts in the modern age have become very complex and fuzzy with breaking all kind of boundaries. However, traditional state organizational structures dedicated to security issues still follow traditional scheme of division of labor, organizational shapes and hierarchies, missions and relations. On the other side, security threats show a greater development dynamics and generate new forms of appearance.

Different shapes of conflict and attempts to understand modern conflicts, generate an new term: hybrid warfare⁴. While the term itself is good as an all encompassing label for a rich set of very different kinds of activities and issues including armed conflicts, it is questionable to declare hybrid warfare as a new kind of warfare. Following the perception of peace-war continuum, there could be also a discussion about the term: „hybrid peacefare“ generated on a similar logic of thinking. Actually, it could be justified because, as we will see in this study, hybrid warfare in its broader perception contains activities during peace time.

However, this paper is not dedicated to the terminological issues and scholarly dilemas about novelties of hybrid warfare per se. Instead, this paper tends to point out a phenomenon from the field of organizational and management sciences known as *inter-organizational cooperation* and its potential that could be useful in considering security issues. Also, some basic information related to the hybrid warfare are presented in order to understand this phenomenon better.

So, what are the connections between the two concepts that are brought together in this study: interorganizational collaboration on the one side and hybrid warfare on the other. In short, hybrid warfare generates new and enlarged demands on the side of the response. Single organization, ministry, department or agency, faced with hybrid warfare challenges, usually recognizes a shortage of its resources, knowledge or mandate to succesfully respond to the hybrid challenge. Because of that, single organizations are dirrected to each other to make burden sharing, information and knowledge dissemination, and synergism generation in order to be succesful in countering hybrid warfare.

SPECTRUM OF HYBRID WARFARE

Physiognomy of contemporary conflicts has dynamic character with growing trend of expanding forms. Term „Hybrid Warfare“ is relatively new one. It is a result of attempts to understand and mark the specific nature of contemporary conflicts in todays world. It is considered that the term „Hybrid Warfare“, in its current dominant perception was initially used by a Marine Corps general (General James Mattis) at the Defense Forum organised by Naval Institute and Marine Corps Association on September 8, 2005. The general developed the main idea of hybrid warfare together with the researcher Frank Hoffman⁵.

4 Hoffman, Frank, „Conflicts in the 21st Century: The Rise of Hybrid Wars“, Potomac Institute for Policy Studies, Arlington, Virginia, December 2007.

5 Hoffman, 2007.

However, there was an earlier⁶ promotion of terms: „hybrid war“, „hybrid force“ and „hybrid operations“. It was done in a more narrow context of realtions among some military services (branches) in the USA military. Namely, hybrid warfare was seen as an intersection zone between special operations and conventional operations. The base statement in this early work is that the US Marine Corps always has been a hybrid force able (trained, equipped, developed, managed) to perform both: conventional and special operations. This „double capacity“ of the US Marine Corps is considered to be the main difference from other US military services and their special operations units. The next interesting momentum in this paper is the perception of continuity of hybrid warfare („hybrid warfare occurs across a continuum^{7c}) containing conventional and unconventional attributes. Today, we can add some other aspects of „continuum“ like: time dimension (time border between war and peace is blurred); terrain determinants (frontlines become fuzzy, area of operation spreads up across communication zone and a whole theater of operations and reaches even global level); even the warring parties issues become dynamic (their alliances become variable, as well as actions intensity, goals, etc.); nature and content of hybrid wars spreads up from a pure armed conflict to almost all other fields (economy, transportation, trade, financial market, sport events, social events, media, etc).

In spite of the actuality of the term, it is recognized that there is no unique definition of hybrid warfare. In its essence, as well as by logical deduction of the term itself, it could be supposed that hybrid warfare is a mixture or blend of something traditional (already existing), known (regular) and some additional, different or new (irregular) entities, factors and characteristics related to war.

One of the definitions of hybrid warfare is as follows: „Hybrid warfare is a conflict executed by either state and/or non-state threats that employs multiple modes of warfare to include conventional capabilities, irregular tactics, and criminal disorder^{8c}. Hybrid warfare is considered to be the intersection of irregular and conventional warfare, plus domain of full spectrum of criminal activities and a whole set of cyber warfare. In simple words, hybrid warfare contains all possible activities across the entire spectrum of human activities, that are undertaken by one adversary against their opponent in order to achieve their objectives.

Hybrid warfare as a term became very popular in defence community in a period after Israel-Hesbollah war in 2006, due to some specific characteristics that became evident during and after the war. That conflict lasted from July 12 to August 14, 2006, when a ceasefire was supported by the UN Security Council Resolution 1701. This war was fought between one state (Israel) and one non-state actor (nongovernment political movement Hesbollah). The character of the armed conflict during the war and its immediate consequences at the battlefield confirmed that the non-state actor entered the war well prepared and well equipped for applying deadly force against regular armed forces of the state actor but also to project its power far from border line. The following facts⁹ are good indicators for the respective level of military power developed by this non-state actor: near 4000 war head rockets were launched in the northern Israel that resulted in more than 4300 casualties (killed and wounded) among civilian population and evacuation of about 350,000 people from threatend area; 48 out of 400 Israeli tanks engaged in the war were hit including a number of the well-known high-tech Merkava tanks; broad engagement of medium and long-range (up to 5000 meters) anti-tank missiles (even

6 Walker, Robert, „Spec Fi: The United States Marine Corps and Special operations“, Master of Science thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, CA, USA, December 1998.

7 Walker, R. 1998.

8 D'Agostino, Davi M., „Hybrid warfare“, report GAO-10-1036R Hybrid Warfare, US Government Accountability office, Washington DC 20548, (September 10, 2010).

9 Cordesman, Anthony, „Lessons of the 2006 Israeli-Hezbollah War“, Center for Strategic and International Studies, Washington, DC, 2007.

46 tanks and 14 other armored vehicles were hit by anti-tank missiles); one aircraft and a few helicopters were also lost; and even one warship of Israeli Navy was damaged (corvette „Hanit“ was hit ten nautical miles (about 18,5 kilometers) from coastline near Beirut, by an antiship missile, probably Chinese C-802 missile that has the range of up to 120km). Additionally, the way of conducting battles, coordination of actions, synhronization of fire, defence lines organization, communication procedures and equipment used by Hezbollah, showed that Israeli Defence Forces (IDF) met an adequate adversary at the conventional battlefield. And that was a surprise – a non-state actor succeeded to produce military force capable of taking conventional military actions that are inherent to the state actors.

A new wave of popularity of the term „hybrid warfare“ comes with the development of crisis in Ukraine. A number of articles¹⁰, studies¹¹ and books¹² appears in literature and points to this crises as an example of hybrid warfare. Particularly interesting is a new approach to studying the phenomenon of hybrid warfare where the purpose of hybrid warfare is reduced to the regime change¹³. This up-to-date book offers a comprehensive overview of many terms and approaches related to the problem of complex nature of modern warfare and conflicts, always taking in consideration the main or final purpose of different actions (a regime change from the current state towards a desired state). Besides the attempt to make a complete coverage and overview of different approaches to modern warfare, this book casts a light on the phenomenon known as „colored revolutions“ as a form of hybrid warfare and a prelude in conflict expansion.

Taking into account different approaches in considering hybrid warfare, it could be said that there are evolutive and revolute aspect of hybrid warfare. The evolutive aspect takes much more time (and not necessarily more resources) to reach the main goal (regime change, or more precisely: change of regime behavior; or more generally and in the spirit of Sun Tzu philosophy: doing so that the adversary does what you want without war). Evoulutive aspect is related to: promotion of desired values, discouraging undesired behavior, negotiations, guided stimulus, trade-offs, obstruction, sanctions, making desired contracts, norms, people, etc.). On the other hand, revolute aspect of hybrid warfare is related to: ultimative demands, stimulation of civil disobedience, assassinations, unrest support, sabotage, covert armed actions, military intervention, forced regime change, etc.

EMERGENCE OF NEED FOR INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL COLLABORATION

Interorganizational collaboration is a method of coping with uncommon tasks and problems, when regular capacities, mandates, resources or knowledge of the considered organizational entity are not enough and when developing own capacities or obtaining own resources is not possible or not efficient in a given time or other conditions. Interorganizational collaborations appears in different fields of business, industry, education, public services, etc. Various aspects of collaboration and relationships in general among different and mutually independent organizations in any field are subject of legitimate research interest¹⁴. Inter-organizational

10 Maigre Merle, „Nothing New in Hybrid Warfare: The Estonian Experience and Recommendations for NATO“ *Policy Brief. Foreign Policy Program. GMF – The German Marshall Fund* (February 2015).

11 Miller, Michael, „Hybrid Warfare: Preparing for Future Conflict“, Air War College, Air University, research report, 17 February 2015.

12 Korybko, Andrew, „Hybrid Wars: The Indirect Adaptive Approach to Regime Change“, Institute for Strategic Studies and Predictions PFUR, 2015

13 Korybko, A. 2015.

14 Petkovic, M., Lazarevic, S. (2012). Managing Interorganizational Relations: Design of Shared Services Centre. *Management Journal for Theory and Practice Management*, 64, 55-67.

collaboration is of particular importance in the public sector in its widest aspect. Lack of resources, knowledge, mandates, time, and so on, generate inovationess and rational behavior among influenced security subjects. Almost obvious solution for a public sector top manager faced with security threat and many „-lacks“, is to look around (starting from „sisters departments“), find and ask for help. Interorganizational collaboration in defence related issues is recognized in the literature, including context of hybrid warfare¹⁵ the use of diferent terms (comprehensive government approach, whole-of-government-approach, etc) notwithstanding.

Interorganizational cooperation is one kind of interorganizational relationships. Interorganizational relationships have been the subject of research in the field of Management Science for a long time. Some earlier results¹⁶ suggest considering the six types of relations through six types of characteristics of interorganizational relations. Those characteristics are: necessity, asymmetry, reciprocity, efficiency, stability, legitimacy. While the types of interorganizational relations are: trade associations, voluntary agency federations, joint ventures, joint programs, corporate-financial interlocs, and agency-sponsor linkages¹⁷.

Interorganizational colaboration appears in a state of need (necesity), when at least one organization is interested to start building communication and relations with other organizations. Organizations join to each other voluntarily, on the bases of their interest, expecting mutual benefits from that exchange. When levels of necessity for cooperation of each organization are of the same order and kind then there are good prospects for reciprocal exchange and symetrical colaboration followed by good will and stable relations. However, there are cases when asymmetry appears and one side attempts to establish power and control over the other organization and its resources. Asymmetry is related to interests but is usually supported by other aspects (size, mandate, hierarchical position, preferences of the higher authority, etc). For the weaker partner, asymmetry usually brings organizational concerns, feeling of loss of autonomy, injustice, exploitation, manipulation and in the end errosion of capabilities and ceasing of existence. In the oposite case of assymetrical interorganizational relations, when the stronger partner has good will and no hidden agenda, the smaller organization can gain a proportional benefit promotion.

Cooperative interorganizational relationships¹⁸ assume a three-component cyclic process composed of negotiations, commitments (formal and informal-psychological contracts) and executions, in paralel with constant assessments based on two main charactersitics: efficiency and equity. The main point here is highlighting that interorganizational cooperation and relations in general are a process rather then a single step. Reaching a high quality relations among diferent organizations is long-term proces that demands determination, perseverance, tolerance, flexibility, adaptibility, patience, skilfulness, creativity, information awareness, empathy and so on. Once reached, a good level of interorganizational relations has to be sustained and further developed in a longer period.

Interorganizational groups is one of the possible modes of interorganizational colaboration, also known in the Management Science for a long time¹⁹. Usually formed on a temporary basis, task-oriented, these groups are dedicated to realizing interorganizational cooperation in practice. Once formed and put in operation those groups develop their own dynamic, structure and capacity to produce some results, as well as some specific internal problems and questions.

15 Freirer, Nathan, "The Defense Identity Crisis: It's a Hybrid World", *Parameters*, 81-94, Autumn 2009.

16 Oliver, Christine, "Determinants of Interorganizational Relationships: Integration and Future Directions", *Academy of Management Review*, 15(2), 241-265, (1990).

17 Oliver, 1990.

18 Ring Peter, Van den Ven Andrew, "Developmental Processes of Cooperative Interorganizational Relationship", *Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 90-118, (1994).

19 Schopler, Janice, "Interorganizational Groups: Origins, Structure, and Outcomes", *Academy of Management Review*, 12(4), 702-713, (1987).

In considering the issues related to hybrid warfare, one specific and easy to use methodological concept from the field of organizational sciences is very useful. It is the PESTLE method, where this acronym stands for factors as follows: P-political, E-economical, S-social, T-technological, L-legislative, and E-environmental. The idea of PESTLE method application in considerations of hybrid warfare phenomenon is to systematic analyse and develop all possible options of threatening security, as well as to identify appropriate organizations, agencies or departments that are most suitable for developing interorganizational cooperation.

In a hybrid warfare situation things became more and more complex because of a large number of influential factors from different domains (PESTLE), and even more because of mutual influences and interfering of different issues from different domains. For example, a benign international agreement related to some environmental issues may be adopted thanks to lobbying, interest trading, political or personal pressures and blackmails, effective media campaign, data generated from extensive use of high-end technology, and so on (factors from other domains). However, once adopted, such international environmental agreement may have a strong influence on the national economy and consequently on the population and society. It may cause reduction of industrial production, which will result in job downsizing, which may result in social unrest and political instability with good prospects for the regime change.

SOME OBSTACLES TO INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL COLLABORATION

Interorganizational collaboration is not immune to some internal problems. It could be the case even in the military organization among different departments, agencies or services²⁰. Problems arise for different reasons: organizational barriers, differences in organizational cultures, shortage of tolerance, lack of information, bad communication, poor organizational and working procedures, stereotypes, bureaucratic rivalries, overspecialization, oversecracy, parochial mentality and disagreements, top managers personally anonymity, etc. It is a task for supreme managers, departments chiefs and agency leaders to find, create and sustain, or allow and enable channels for cooperation and make their organizations complementary to each other rather than rival and competitive. Tremendous importance for achieving success in interdepartmental cooperation lay on top leaders of that organizations. Top leaders' behavior, competences, management style, intellectual capacity and personal character may produce decisive influence over interdepartmental cooperation. Bad leadership behavior is known also as destructive or toxic leadership²¹, and following indicators of bad leadership may directly violate interorganizational cooperation:

- poor organizational vision and professional information awareness (lack of capacity to create good organizational vision, lack of fairness to differentiate and separate organizational goals from personal interest; inability to perform permanent professional observing, gathering, selection, and interpretation of appropriate information relevant for organization and its system's environment);
- poor decision making (making decisions without enough information, inability to structure problem, inability to perceive possible set of options for problem situation development, inability to understand long term view; reluctance towards involvement of advanced methods, tools and technologies; reluctance towards change, innovative thinking

²⁰ Walker, R. 1998.

²¹ Erickson Anthony, Shaw Ben, Murray Jane, Branch Sara. "Destructive Leadership: Causes, consequences and countermeasures", *Organizational Dynamics*, 44, 266-272, (2015).

and multidisciplinary; reluctance towards delegation of power on subordinate; propensity to takeover a prescribed piece of autonomy and rights of subordinate; affinity towards closing into own backyard and parochialism; affinity towards hiding behind higher authorities and secrecy; etc);

- ineffective communication, negotiation, coordination, managing and leading (lack of skills, qualifications and professional experience; weakness to deal with new technology and change; over-control and micro-manage; inability to motivate subordinates; inability to lead on the basis of personal example; favoritism; double-standards; tribalism; parochialism; depreciation; envy; politeness; etc);

It is not possible to have any kind of interorganizational cooperation without at least a formal consent of the chiefs of the organizations at stake. Strong will and readiness of top managers for enabling and stimulating collaboration are irreplaceable.

Problems in cooperation may arise even in cases of cooperation among "similar" entities (armed forces, police, security agencies), due to differences in internal organizational issues (working procedures, rules, organizational culture, etc). There are enough space and need for development and elaborating procedures for cooperation and experience exchange. For example, some research²² explained in detail close cooperation in the field, among military and other organizations that were tasked to secure one high level international political meeting (such events could be potential worthy goal for security violation of the highest political leadership, which is certainly one of the forms of hybrid threats). In the mentioned research it was found out that forms of similar interorganizational and task-based temporary cooperation could be seen in the future as almost normal mode of interagency cooperative engagement.

CONCLUSION

Up-to-date examples that are considered in literature in the context of hybrid warfare are crisis in Ukraine and civil war in Syria. Following the concept and any definition of hybrid warfare the list could be expanded to Libya, Georgia, Iraq, Former Yugoslavia (The Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Federal Republic of Yugoslavia). In all cases there was a mix of external threats (political, economical, military) arranged and applied in a longer period against the mentioned states in parallel with a combination of internal antagonisms (social, economical, religious, political, tribal, national, etc) that are additionally stimulated by different factors (either internal or external) in order to bring those states and societies at the point of open escalation, violence and conflicts. However, the situation of „controlled chaos“ has a tendency to grow into uncontrolled chaos producing many undesired effects, additional engagement and cost and usually leads to enduring or at least long-term crises.

Destructive potential that lies in diversity of possible forms and activities of hybrid warfare, makes any single organization or agency quite inferior, and forced „sole players“ to collaborate with others on permanent basis. Almost all contemporary conflicts that are describable as hybrid ones, demand complex response that is possible only through engagement of capabilities, resources, mandate and knowledge of many different organizations, departments and agencies at national level and international level as well.

²² Barr, D. (2003-2004, Winter). The Kananskis G8 Summit: A Case Study in Interagency Cooperation. *Canadian Military Journal*, 39-46.

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THE CURRENT SITUATION IN VEHICLE SAFETY SYSTEM

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Abstract: Vehicle safety is ensured by professionals. Its aim is to produce the cars that are less likely to be involved in the car accident. The main vehicle safety aim is to minimise the risk of accident and consequences for its all participants (driver, other occupants in the car, pedestrians, cyclists, other cars) if the accident occurs. To reach this aim, all these safety features have to be applied in the automotive manufacturing process.

The author discusses in details the vehicle safety system, car security system and new ecological driving that has become a much discussed topic at present. The paper provides information about new Euro NCAP testing and its assessment testing. Moreover, it provides information about new eSafety systems which combine technology in order to ensure car safety. Finally, the author discusses results in order to formulate the questions for further discussion.

Keywords: safety system, security system, active safety system, passive safety system, ecological driving, vehicle.

INTRODUCTION

Safety is one of the most important features of a car. Driving safety has taken a new dimension in recent centuries. It has become a more complex system. Sometimes, it is the place where some people take their last breath. There are widely discussed topics between men and machines; among them especially accident simulation tests, design of vehicle interior and body, as well as occupant and pedestrian protection, accident avoidance scenarios, injury mitigation, legislation and technology changes.

According to the subject of threats, there is a general classification divided into following systems²:

- active safety system;
- passive safety system;
- car security system;
- and ecological safety system.

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² MARCINEK, M. - DWORZECKI, J. Technical Aspects of Use of Selected Specialist Equipment Intended for Road-Side Rescuing, 1st Edition. - New York: Iglobal Writer Inc., Pro Pomerania Foundation Poland, 2015. - 175 s. - ISBN 978-83-63680-77-0.

ACTIVE SAFETY SYSTEM

The term of *active safety* can be used in two distinct ways. Firstly, it refers to safety systems that help avoid accidents, such as good steering and brakes. In this context, it describes the features that help reduce the effects of an accident, such as seat belts, air-bags and strong body structures. It refers to safety systems that are active prior to an accident. It is increasingly being used to describe systems that use an understanding of the state of the vehicle to both avoid and minimise the effects of a crash³.

The active safety systems are systems activated in response to a safety problem or an abnormal event. Such systems may be activated by a human operator, automatically by a computer driven system, or even mechanically. There are as many definitions of active safety as car manufactures. The entire set of active safety elements as the core of primary elements includes following⁴:

- Anti-lock braking system (ABS);
- Electronic Stability Program (ESP);
- good visibility from driver's seat;
- low noise level in interior;
- legibility of instrumentation and warning symbols;
- head up displays;
- high performance tyres;
- intelligent speed adaptation;
- brake assistance;
- Dynamic steering response (DSR);
- collision avoidance;
- and turn signals.

The safety systems can be classified according to their focus on active safety car in the following areas⁵:

1. Area of safe handling and ergonomics:
 - location of the controls within easy reach of the driver (their shape, surface action against any confusion);
 - the appropriate allocation of control and signaling elements without the possibility of the driver's distraction;
 - the amount of force necessary to control elements (brake and steer);
 - to ensure the car while driving (doors, bonnet, boot);
 - and strike note signalization of the elements.
2. Area relieving safety:
 - stimulation of psychological comfort (shape, colour and aesthetics of interior);
 - convenience and comfort of seats (their shape, setting, suspension, heating);
 - climatic conditions (ventilation, heating, air conditioning);
 - and the amount of noise in the cabin (quality soundproofing engines).

3 THOMAS, C., PERRON, T., LE COZ, J.-Y., AGUADÉ, V., What Happens on the Road before Fatal Car Crashes?, 40th AAAM Conference, October 7-9 1996, Vancouver.

4 DAY, A. Braking of Road Vehicles, Butterworth-Heinemann 1st edition, 2014, 488 p. ISBN 978-0-12-397314-6.

5 PERRON, T. Active safety experiments with common drivers for the specification of active safety systems. Laboratory of Accidentology, Biomechanics and Human Behavior - PSA Peugeot Citroën - RENAULT (LAB).

3. Field safe observational skills:

- Active visibility:
 - quality of the road illumination;
 - view from the car (the size of the lenses and their transparency, the size of the mirrors).
- Passive visibility:
 - car lighting;
 - quality and number of alert signalling elements;
 - car colour.

4. The area of safe driving:

- aerodynamic stability of cars;
- the improvement of quality and driving characteristics of cars;
- sufficiently flexible and powerful engine.

The active safety systems must be capable of avoiding a crash. They must be triggered when drivers actually need assistance. They must enhance insufficient reactions and limit unsuitable ones without being in conflict with drivers' natural behaviour. There were experiments conducted on driving by The Laboratory of Accidentology, Biomechanics and Human Behavior, PSA Peugeot Citroën – Renault (LAB)⁶.

These experiments simulated and analyzed a driver's behaviour in emergency situations. The representative unit for each experiment involved 100 common drivers. The first study was carried out on a simulator with an adverse vehicle stopped or driving slowly at the top of a hill, a vehicle coming into the driver's lane from a parking area, or a vehicle driving in front of the subject then suddenly braking. The second study was carried out on a test track. The subjects were following a vehicle pulling a trailer that suddenly broke away and strongly braked. The drivers' reactions and the vehicle dynamics, as their hands, faces and feet, were recorded from the scene.

The results pointed out that:

- 50 % of drivers did not activate the ABS, which shows that drivers do not step strong enough on the brake pedal;
- 85 % of drivers stepped on the brake pedal with a plateau phase, which means that the maximum deceleration is delayed;
- an emergency brake assist could have avoided up to 30 % of crashes;
- all drivers who swerve partially release the brake pedal during their swerving maneuver.

ABS has been acclaimed as a significant improvement since its introduction in vehicle safety. By prevention of wheel lock-up, it enables the driver to maintain steering control during emergency braking and can also reduce stopping distances on some slippery surfaces. There is also general perception that vehicles equipped with ABS are safer than those without it⁷.

Nevertheless, there were several studies which pointed out the negative side of ABS safety. Herz (1998) found significant differences in the effects of ABS fitment in different conditions. ABS reduced the risk of pedestrian crashes by 30% in unfavourable conditions (e.g. wet, icy or snowy) and only 10% in favourable conditions (e.g. dry and free of debris). About 42% frontal crashes occurred with ABS in unfavourable conditions and 18 % in favourable condi-

⁶ RACV Research report paper Effectiveness of ABS and Vehicle Stability Control Systems, 2004.

⁷ PERRON, T. Active safety experiments with common drivers for the specification of active safety systems. Laboratory of Accidentology, Biomechanics and Human Behavior - PSA Peugeot Citroën - RENAULT (LAB).

tions. The conditions did not have a significant effect on the occurrence of fatal side impact. In favourable conditions, a 61% increased risk due to ABS was present, and similarly in unfavourable conditions this risk was 69%. The results showed that the existence of unfavourable conditions tended to magnify the extent of the change in crash distribution. The direction of change in crash distribution was generally the same for both conditions no matter whether ABS was a benefit to it or not.⁸

In an overview of the NHTSA (National Highway Safety Administration) ABS research program, Garrot and Mazzae (1999) describe the typical findings of ABS studies. ABS is associated with:

1. a statistically significant decrease in multi-vehicle crashes
2. a statistically significant decrease in fatal pedestrian strikes
3. a statistically significant increase in single-vehicle road departure crashes

Farmer (2001) updated fatal crash data and presented important findings. The data showed that the risk of being involved in a crash differed depending upon the age of the vehicle. The study involved ABS-fitted models of 1992 and ABS non-fitted models of 1991. The data were divided into three-year blocks: 1993-1995 and 1995-1998 and 1993-1998. The results are summarized in the table below⁹.

CRASH INVOLVEMENT WITH AND WITHOUT ABS IN FATALITY		
CRASH TYPE	DATA YEARS	CHANGE IN RISK ABS (%)
All Crashes	1993-1995	+3
Multi-vehicle	1993-1995	-6
Single-vehicle	1993-1995	+18
All Crashes	1995-1998	-4
Multi-vehicle	1995-1998	-8
Single-vehicle	1995-1998	+4
All Crashes	1993-1998	-1
Multi-vehicle	1993-1998	-7
Single-vehicle	1993-1998	+10

Nowadays, electronics plays a major role in accident and avoidance technologies. ESP system maintains the stability of vehicles during their critical manoeuvres and corrects potential under- or oversteering. It uses sensors to determine the course the driver desires and the actual course the vehicle is taking. When these are different, the system acts on the vehicle braking and engine management system to correct the actual course and make it coincide with the driver's desired course.¹⁰

Despite severe safety standards in the last decade, 2.9 million people were injured and 42 643 died as a result of 6.3 million reported traffic crashes in 2003 in the U.S. There are studies which point out that crashes could have been prevented if the vehicles had been equipped with ESC. In 2004, the American Insurance Institute for Highway Safety determined that if all vehicles on U.S. roads had ESC, as many as 800 000 of the 2 million vehicle crashes that occur each year might be avoided.¹¹

8 LIE, A., TINGVALL, C., KRAFFT, M. and KULLGREN, A., The effectiveness of esc (electronic stability control) in reducing real life crashes and injuries., 2005 <http://www-nrd.nhtsa.dot.gov/pdf/esv/esv19/05-0135-O.pdf>

9 BURTON, D., DELANEY, A., NEWSTEAD, S., LOGAN, D. and FILDES, B., Development of Active Safety Systems to Improve Vehicle Safety, 2004, 56 p. ISBN 187-5963-39-1.

10 FENNEL, H. and DING, E. L., A Model-Based Failsafe System for the Continental TEVES Electronic-Stability-Program (ESP), SAE Technical Paper 2000-01-1635, 2000.

11 BEYER, C., SCHRAMM, H. and WREDE, J., Electronic Braking System EBS – Status and Advanced Functions, SAE Technical Paper 982781, 1998.

PASSIVE SAFETY SYSTEM

Passive safety (or secondary safety) systems are all systems that react in situations with increased risk for the driver to help overcome them. They are active during an accident. Passive safety system comprises of an occupant restraint system crash (seat belts) and cushions (airbags) inflatable which increase surface contact and reduces shock. Body structure and bumpers have to be designed and constructed that the central cell, in which the vehicle occupants remain, keeps intact.

Passive safety system includes following:

- seat belts;
- air-bags;
- passenger safety cell;
- crumple zones;
- load space barrier nets;
- laminated glass;
- correctly positioned fuel tanks;
- fuel pump shut-off devices.

Several studies have been conducted on the limits of secondary safety. They have proved that approximately half of car occupants fatally injured in car accidents could not be saved only by means of passive safety despite the significant improvements made in the field of occupant protection both on car crashworthiness and restraint systems.¹² It is stated that app. 1.2 million people die each year in road crashes worldwide, with up to 50 million more injured. Over 95% of these deaths and injuries occur in the low- and middle-income countries of Africa, Asia, Latin America, the Caribbean and Eastern Europe¹³.

Several projects have been devoted to the study and analysis of accidents, both statistically and in terms of passive safety system. There are several projects which aim to harmonise data in the accidents and produce a genuine European database, e.g. recently completed Stairs project or the Pendant project with 14 partners in eight countries¹⁴.

Although the global trends in road traffic fatalities over the past 20–30 years have shown an overall increase, the situation varies considerably between different regions of the world. In the high-income countries of North America, Western Europe and Module 1: The need for seat-belts and child restraints 4 Japan, road deaths fell by approximately 20% between 1980 and 2000. In contrast, over the same period road deaths increased in low- and middle-income countries by between 50% and 100%. The data suggest that these trends will continue and that by 2020 road traffic deaths will increase by 83% in low- and middle-income countries, and decrease by 27% in high-income countries. These figures amount to a predicted global increase of 67% by 2020¹⁵.

Since the 1960s, there have been studies researching seat-belts effectiveness. A review of research on the effectiveness of seat-belts found that their use reduces the probability of being killed by 40–50% for drivers and front seat passengers and by about 25% for passengers in rear seats. The impact on serious injuries is almost as great, while the effect on slight injuries is smaller at rate from 20 to 30%. More detailed analyses indicate that seat-belts are most effec-

12 SHOENEUBURG, R. and BREITLING, T., Enhancement of Active and Passive Safety by Future Pre-safe Systems. DaimlerChrysler AG and Mercedes Car Group (MCG), Germany, Paper Number 05-0080, 2010

13 PEDEN, M. et al., eds. World report on road traffic injury prevention. Geneva, World Health Organization, 2004

14 Source: http://ec.europa.eu/transport/road_safety/specialist/projects/sorted-by-domains/index_en.htm

15 SHOENEUBURG, R. and BREITLING, T., Enhancement of Active and Passive Safety by Future Pre-safe Systems. DaimlerChrysler AG and Mercedes Car Group (MCG), Germany, Paper Number 05-0080, 2010

tive in frontal impacts and in run-off-the-road crashes, where the probability of being ejected is high if seat-belts are not worn¹⁶.

Furthermore, several studies have questioned air bags effectiveness. Since 1991 the air bags have been required in most vehicles. They are now mandatory in every new automobile sold in the U.S. NHTSA regulations require air bags only for front passengers; however, there were calls for the installation of advanced air bags to protect all passengers. Advanced air bags include the air bags and front and rear side air bags that provide greater protection than regular air bags for all passengers in the event of an accident. From the time that air bags were introduced through early 2000, 152 deaths have been attributed to air bag deployment in low-severity crashes, and 58 decedents were drivers.

CAR SECURITY SYSTEMS

The bellow stated list of the term belongs to some of existing highly demanded car security systems that are used at present:

- *Alarm Systems* are practically effective. The noise influences on thieves quickly. It also lets people know about illegal entry into a vehicle. That is the reason for a wide range of alarm system sensors from impact, motion, to dooropen, etc. Most alarm systems ensure that their alarm noise is loud enough so that people pay attention to them. Nowadays, theft is a general problem. To solve this problem, most of the owners have started to use the theft protection systems. The most popular existing car security system is car alarm, but it has a lot disadvantages. They are especially:

- distance,
- false alarm,
- the same sound for other cars,
- not 100% reliability,
- impossibility to hear it in buildings.

- *Remote Keyless Entry System* refers to a lock that uses an electronic remote control as a key which is activated by a handheld device or automatically by proximity. It is a system which locks and unlocks vehicles remotely and controls access without using a traditional mechanical key. The term keyless entry system originally meant a lock controlled by a keypad located at or near the driver's door that required pressing a predetermined (or self-programmed) numeric code for entry. Advanced mechanism uses encrypted pulse transmissions that ensure higher safety. A remote keyless system can include both a remote keyless entry system (RKE), which unlocks the doors, and a remote keyless ignition system (RKI), which starts the engine. This is achieved by sending pulses on a particular frequency. Widely used in automobiles, the system performs the functions of a standard car key without physical contact. When within a few meters of a car, pressing a button on the remote key can lock or unlock the doors, and may perform other functions¹⁷.

- *Steering Wheel Locks* is the very effective system for unprofessional thieves. This is achieved since the steering wheel gets firmly fitted that makes theft to be practically impossible.

- *Immobilizer* is a special type of security cuts off of the fuel or the ignition to stop the car from being started. However, a thief can break into a car, but stealing remains quite impossible

¹⁶ EVANS, L., Safety belt effectiveness: The Influence of Crash Severity and Selective Recruitment. Accident Analysis and Prevention, 1996, 28: 423-433

¹⁷ BREITLING, T., BREUER, J. and PETERSEN, U. Enhancing Traffic Safety by Active Safety Innovations, 30th SAE Convergence, 18-20 October, 2004, USA.

as long as the immobilizer is hidden from the thief. As long as the immobilizer is not disabled by the thief, we still have our car.

- *Vehicle Identification Number* (VIN) is etched onto many parts of a car. This specifically serves the security purpose of prevention of stealing cars with an intention to sell its parts. This means, even if a vehicle is stolen, the presence of VIN on various important parts of the car will make its identification easy. The VIN is usually located on the dashboard where it is visible through the car's windshield. Covering the VIN to hide it from outside eyes is one way for car thieves to hide a vehicle's identity.

- *Central Locking System* is the main security. Its idea is simple. Through this, locking or unlocking of only the driver's door will act as a similar action to the other doors of the car.

- Car security has become a matter of concern in the last decades. An efficient automotive security system uses the system integrated with *Global Positioning System* (GPS) and *Global System for Mobile Communication* (GSM). GPS Vehicle Tracking system gives the owners knowledge of the location of their cars. From the first moment a car has been stolen, the owner can say the authority where the car is and they can instantly check it. GPS system only tracks the current location of vehicle and receives location information from satellites. There are two types of tracking that are used, one is online tracking and the other is offline tracking. On the other hand, GSM system is installed in a vehicle in order to send information to the owner of the vehicle. This type of security system is an advanced security system. When the car vibrates, the system produces an alarm signal and immediately sends a SMS to the car owner's mobile phone. The user could easily supervise, protect and control their car anywhere at any time¹⁸.

- *Automatic driver recognition* (ADR) system forms a link between your car and a card. If the card is outside the car, the ADR system is armed and instantly alerts the centre if the car is moved. This is a highly pricey security system for the car owners who live in Europe.

Modern security systems are often more than a comprehensive service system. Sensor pressure can respond to lighter occurrences with an alarm chirp rather than a sound of the siren system. Anyone who happens to lean against your car on the street is treated to a light warning instead of a disturbing alarm.

ECOLOGICAL SAFETY SYSTEM

A triple total amount of the cars is expected to be driving on roads by 2050. Ecological driving is a way of driving intended to enable energy conservation, cut air and noise pollution, reduce emissions of carbon dioxide, and contribute to the effort to reduce global warming. Energy consumption and emission in a vehicle depend on various physical factors relating to road-traffic-vehicle conditions, including engine size and efficiency, road conditions, load on the vehicle, and many others. Besides these physical factors, driving styles have also a great influence on energy consumption for the same physical conditions. Driving style influences substantially the fuel consumption. It is very important to foresee driving situations and have timely and right reactions. We are advised to drive fluently with traffic flow without excessive braking and acceleration. We should drive as if our brakes were damaged. Every braking means an extra work of the engine during successive acceleration. We had better use the engine as a brake. Smooth use of the accelerator, steering, transmission and brakes also decreases scrubbing of tires. The accelerator should be released quickly in case we see a red signal, a

¹⁸ FACH, M. Evaluation Methods for the Effectiveness of Active Safety Systems with Respect to Real World Accident Analysis. 2009

stop signal or also while driving downhill. If the accelerator is released when driving at a high speed, the fuel supply to the engine will be halted automatically. The vehicle is slowing down because of braking force of the engine. There is no fuel consumption in this mode and brake pads are saved. Driving in good weather is more economical than driving while it rains or driving in snowy weather. Water, snow or slush on the road surface can dramatically increase rolling resistance leading to fuel consumption increase. In winter, if it is possible, wait for the snow plow. Driving at a constant speed within a flow of traffic (in the same direction) is more efficient than going the same speed in isolation. The reason is that there is lower aerodynamic drag when driving behind a vehicle. But we have to be careful of keeping safe distance considering current speed you are driving and other circumstances on the road¹⁹.

EUROPEAN NEW CAR ASSESMENT PROGRAM

The European New Car Assessment Program (Euro NCAP) is the premier league of car safety testing groups. NCAP credentials are extremely influential when it comes to either the commercial success or lack of success of cars. When the car has been nominated for testing, Euro NCAP asks the manufacturer for information about the best selling variant and the fitment of safety equipment across Europe. From this information the test variant is derived. There are several tests cars have to obey when ranking the car²⁰.

Frontal Impact tests when the vehicle hits an offset deformable barrier at 40 km/h, and readings are taken from dummies that have sensors in all major limb regions, including the upper and lower arms, abdomen, chest, neck, hands, feet, thighs, shins and head.

Car to Car Side Impact uses a deformable barrier as a thrust into the side of the vehicle at 50 km/h. The same sensor-equipped dummies as in the Frontal Impact test are used. One of the inventions coming out of this test is the side airbag – something that is now standard on the majority of NCAP-tested vehicles.

Pole Side Impact model vehicle collision with a narrow rigid object. A 25.4 cm wide pole is thrust through the driver's door of the vehicle.

Child Protection – this test mirrors the previous three approaches, but involves the restraint of a weighted child dummy in the manner suggested by the vehicle manufacturer.

Pedestrian Protection covers pedestrians who are involved in collisions with the vehicle directly. A dummy is split into several sections. Pedestrian Protection remains the lowest average score in the overall test figures.

Whiplash is a new test. During the first three tests, particular attention is paid to sensors in the dummy backs, necks and head sections, and at the joints of these. Measurements from these hypersensitive sensors provide an overall Whiplash score.

Electronic Stability Control models sudden lane changes in vehicles. Testing the ESC is mandatory for manufacturers to include in road vehicles sold in the EU from 2012. The tests are carried out at high speed up to 80 km/h and with wide variations in steering wheel position (up to 270 degrees, or three-quarters of a turn).

Intelligent Vehicle Safety Systems or the so-called *eSafety systems* are new automotive systems combining mechanical, micro electric, communication and information technology. Established in April 2002 as a public-private partnership of the European Commission

¹⁹ Source: http://europa.eu.int/comm/transport/road/roadsafety/rsap_index

²⁰ MARCINEK. M.: Simulation of crisis situations of the national and international crisis management as a support for crisis managers' education. In: Nehody s hromadným postihnutím osôb, 2011 Žilina, International Congress, ISBN 978-80-969219-8-0

and industries, it has interest in information-based road safety systems. These systems create superior safety through active technology and contribute to safety on roads by preventing vehicle collisions and consequently helping to reduce injuries and deaths on the roads²¹.

Safety should be a top priority consideration when looking for a new vehicle. It is not possible for Euro NCAP to test every new car that comes onto the market, nor can it test all variants of each car offered by the manufacturer. To provide the broadest range of consumer information, each year a selection is made of the most popular and interesting models. In most cases, these are new cars that just enter the market; however, Euro NCAP can also test cars that are already on sale.

A new threat for automobile industry has emerged. Car hacking has become a serious problem. An increasing number of cars are at risk from computer hackers because of the advanced Internet systems they offer. We may assume that the problem could be life-threatening. This warning appeared from technology firm Harman at the 2014 Consumer Electronics Show (CES).

The number of ECUs in modern cars ranges from 20 to 100, which in effect means 100 different points of access for potential car hackers. The units do not only control services but also the operation of the engine, transmission and safety features such as stability control and anti-lock brakes. If someone hacks this system, they then have access to the whole ECUs of a car as there is currently no barrier between them. Harman is working on developing a software barrier that will not prevent hackers from accessing in-car connectivity features but will stop them from being able to attack the vital ECUs. We may lose navigation or audio, but not the car operating and safety systems.

Since 1995 EU legislation has been demanding that all new cars come standard with an electronic immobiliser. This device only allows the vehicle to start when it is provided with the right credentials. However, thieves can wirelessly steal all of the information from a car key in seconds. They are then able to fool the car into thinking the key is present and drive away as if they had the key.

A new car hacking study by Roel Verdult, Flavio Garcia and Baris Ege shows that thieves can disable immobilisers and drive off without a key in models from Volvo, VW, Audi and Fiat. It has been found that electronic immobilisers used by 26 car manufacturers are vulnerable to hacking, putting many motorists at risk. Currently four out of ten car thefts in major cities like London involve some form of car hacking.²²

It is also worth pointing out that each manufacturer has its own data and computer systems in its vehicles that the hackers will need to overcome. Just because one car has been compromised by hackers, it does not mean that all models are vulnerable to the same attack. To account for this difference in computer systems across the car industry, Miller and Valasek tested 21 cars and found some of the most popular makes and models in the UK differ significantly in their cyber security. In 2014 difficult cars to hack were Audi A8, Honda Accord and Range Rover Sport. On the other side, Jeep Cherokee, Toyota Prius and Infiniti Q50 were easy to hack.

21 MARCINEK, M.: Simulation of crisis situations of the national and international crisis management as a support for crisis managers' education. In: *Nehody s hromadným postihnutím osôb*, 2011 Žilina, International Congress, ISBN 978-80-969219-8-0.

22 BAUMANN, K.-H., JUSTEN, R. and SHOENEBURG, R. The Next Step in the Enhancement of Vehicle Safety, Paper No. 410, ESV Conference, 2003 Japan.

CONCLUSION

The blink of an eye takes about a fifth of a second (200 milliseconds). The bit of a car crash that can kill you is all over in about 40-80 milliseconds, two-and-a-half to five times faster than the blink of an eye. With this in mind, car manufacturers have been developing technology to help prevent accidents or significantly reduce the risk of injury and death in case you are involved in a collision. It is important that your vehicle can provide you with maximum protection in an accident. How safe a car is can be determined by a number of factors.

Following the measures foreseen in the Transport White Paper 2001, the situation of road safety has improved. Road fatalities have declined by more than 19% since 2013 in the EU. However, with thousands of deaths and millions injured, road traffic remains the least safe mode of transport. Therefore, a need for the intelligent vehicle safety systems that enable to raise the level of road safety is much higher than ever before.

Safety has become a top interest for both new car manufacturers and customers. Fortunately, present modern cars offer more occupant protection and accident avoidance technologies than the traditional car models. However, not all cars are equal. There are models that perform better in dynamic tests, as well as crash tests conducted by the government and insurance industry. Moreover, they are maintained with more safety components described in detail in the article.

New vehicle technology offers potential benefits but the driver is a critical factor, especially among teenage and older drivers. Considering the increasing demands on vehicle safety, research has become more intensive and new innovative solutions appear. We cannot distinguish the traditional automobiles from the latest models as vehicle safety features have become a part of almost any car model. The systems are beneficial for occupant protection, yet they can cause serious problems in an accident. These can occur while extrication of the trapped persons from a crashed vehicle.

Car manufacturers integrate different security system units in one single unit with some improvisations. It becomes impossible for the thieves to disable these systems. These features provide flexibility to the users and are more reliable for protection against car theft. Moreover, they offer a costly effective solution to users than buying the different security devices individually.

New visions plan new technologies that would reduce deaths and injuries caused by road accidents. One of the goals is to integrate advanced technology into cars to prevent driving accidents caused by alcohol. Sensors that car seats are equipped with and gearshift will detect alcohol through the driver's perspiration and prevent the vehicle from being driven. Additionally, a camera will watch the driver's eyes. If it detects signs of drowsiness or drunkenness, the car will issue a voice alert to the driver and tighten the seat belt as a wake-up call. While this futuristic concept car may not be hitting the highways just yet, it is interesting to wait what future brings in car security systems in order to prevent outside threat on roads.

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ETHNIC AND RELIGIOUS CONTRADICTIONS AS SECURITY FACTOR OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

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Abstract: Multiconfessionality of the Republic of Serbia integrates various contradictions which have direct implications on its security. Because of internal contradictions and cultural and historical heritage in the Republic of Serbia, various problems can be indentified in the area of politics, religion, culture, etc, whose actions could have influence on the internal security of the Republic of Serbia. Overcoming these contradictions will contribute to internal security of the Republic of Serbia.

This paper emphasises the contradictions between churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia, and they are reflection of cultural and historical differences of ethnic and religious groups. The paper has resulted as poart of the research conducted for the purpose of a doctoral dissertation defended on the Military Academy of the University of Defence in Belgrade.

Keywords: security, churches and religious communities, ethnic and religious groups, social contradictions.

INTRODUCTION

Contradictions have a long tradition and can be observed since the formation of the Vojna krajina (Military Frontier). Serbian population from the area regulated its collective (ethnic and social or professional) status by dedicating itself to the military profession. That is, even today, manifold problem reflecting on the everyday life in this region. Ethnic identity and ethnic awareness in Serbia were formed during the last centuries, strongly influenced by the administration of their military status. This impact was so great that virtually there was equalizing of the military and the ethnicequalizing.²

Interethnic and inter-confessional distrust stemmed from the numerous conflicts in the past in this region and especially in the second half of the eighties and in particular the nine-

¹ E-mail: hajradin.radonic@gmail.com.

² Miladinović, S.: Etničko-religijske protivurečnosti kao faktor (dez)integracije Srbije u evropsku tokove, Proceedings - Social Changes Cultural and Ethnic Relations and Euro-Integration Processes in the Balkans, Faculty of Philosophy - University of Belgrade, Institute of Sociology, Niš, 2004 . p. 111. Ref. , Simić, N.: Neki društveni aspekti oblikovanja etničkog identiteta Srba Krajišnika na hrvatskoj granici od 16. do 18. veka, Sociology 4/1999.

ties are just tragic “finals” of centuries of strife of different religious and ethnic groups in this region. This distrust is becoming a permanent feature and as implication may have impact on the internal security of the Republic of Serbia especially when regarding the period of disintegration of SFRY which was finalized with interethnic war (with significant religious components).

In the context of national security, in the southwestern part of the Republic of Serbia, interethnic and inter-confessional distrust have central role. It is particularly important to isolate substantial socio-demographic factors that affect the formation, maintenance and changing the status of the national security of the Republic of Serbia.³ The diversity of ethnic and religious contradictions is especially important as a factor of security of the Republic of Serbia.

The issue is significant, especially considering that this is a social problem that can have direct implications on the security of the Republic of Serbia and impinge on the essential elements of national affiliation on the territory of the Republic of Serbia. Gaining knowledge of the state of ethnic and religious contradictions in the Republic of Serbia can be used to solve problems that burden the Republic of Serbia.

DEFINITION OF SECURITY

Defining security, generally in the contemporary social and political context, means and includes answers to a number of non-military security issues, such as demographic changes or endangerment of living environment. The importance of safety depends on the way in which the security practice of people’s daily lives is shaped. Unlike traditional understanding of security in terms of military power by which countries protected themselves from the threat of war in the early nineties, security studies are now turning to a wide range of political issues. This is influenced by a change of behavior of the states at the end of the Cold War, which were omitting from the political agenda issues of conventional weapons, nuclear deterrence and association into military alliances.⁴

Security is a social phenomenon that includes organizational, social and historical context, bearing in mind that it is one of the basic life functions and precondition for the survival and functioning of an individual, the state, society and the international community in general.

In the broadest sense, the term security means freedom from fear, threats and any form of physical violence. The United Nations defines the term country security: as “... a state in which the countries consider that there is no threat of military attack, political coercion or economic coercion, so that they can feel free to develop”.⁵

Security should be understood as a state and as a process. Everything that is solved and exceeded and leads to improvement of human existence, harmonization of relations in society and improvement of security, is a process. In this regard, the said definitions are one-sided and from the point of understanding simplified.

The definition of security and the security system of the Republic of Serbia

The terms “national security” and “national security system” passed through various stages of interpretation and theoretical studies, i.e. from their traditional beliefs to modern explanations.

3 Of course, by this we do not diminish the importance of other factors in the ethnology of Serbian national security, but only conditionally isolate them from the research subject.

4 Keković, Z.: *Sistem bezbednosti*, Faculty of Security, Belgrade, 2009, p. 82

5 Tadić, B.: *Bezbednost i odbrana nesvrstanih zemalja*, Centre of the Armed Forces for Strategic Research and Studies, Belgrade, 1989, p. 234

According to the traditional understanding of national security, it is inextricably linked to the concepts of state and nation, or the notion of the nation state. The notion “national security” is derived from the state sovereignty as the ability of the state to exercise sovereign authority, in which it has unlimited power to regulate and govern internal affairs and external relations.⁶

According to the contemporary understanding of national security, the standard security unit is sovereign territorial state. It is known that the basic functions of the state are: to protect citizens from each other, collective defence against external attacks and threats and to help the poorest and the most vulnerable. According to Tatalović, “national security means, on one hand, the state of security of the nation state and the society, as well as conscious and organized actions of the state and the society directed to ensure survival, development and existence of the individual, the state and the society”⁷.

Taking into account the above conclusions, we can draw the common characteristic which is manifested, that security includes certain functions of the state aimed at the maintenance of the development of its existence and is a process that takes place continuously.

These definitions have shortcomings in terms of access to the definition in terms of the condition, rather than the process, as in the present case it is not a reflection of reality. It is a process, after all, because all activities carried out in this sphere are processes and the security system must be thus regarded.

National security is closely following content related to the state as an organization, on the one hand, and the society as a resource by which this system is organized, on the other side. Science, therefore, separates the notion of national security from the notion of society security, noting that the main security criterion of a state represents the sovereignty while of the society security it represents national identity, i.e. awareness of belonging to the community. However, for the country the loss of sovereignty means ceasing its existence, and for the society when it loses the identity it ceases to exist as a sovereign entity.⁸

National security is an objective condition of the nation and the state, as well as the measures and the activities of state bodies and institutions which are undertaken to protect the basic national interests in the field of foreign and domestic policy, economics, defence, education, scientific research, culture and other areas of social life.⁹

The security system of the Republic of Serbia represents a normative, structural and functional system of security elements, whose activities achieve the protection of its national interests. National interests include a wide range of needs and values such as independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity, freedom, equality, peace and security, rule of law, democracy, social justice, human rights and freedoms, national and religious equality and gender equality, the inviolability of property, environmental protection and so on.¹⁰ Therefore, national interests represent a baseline for creation of policy and national security system.

In other words, in contemporary analysis of the security system it is possible to spot the key elements that can serve as the basis for the current issue of the Serbian state and its further security orientation. In this sense, national security can be defined as a cyclic process that includes all resources (natural, human, material, technical, regulatory, political and institutional resources) in maintaining and achieving the national interests of the Republic of Serbia.

6 Keković, Z. : Sistem bezbednosti, Faculty of Security, Belgrade, 2009, p. 109–110

7 Tatalović, S. : Nacionalna i međunarodna sigurnost, Political Culture (monograph), Zagreb, 2006, p. 146

8 Ibid., 29-31

9 Kovač, M.: Strategijska i doktrinarna dokumenta nacionalne bezbednosti – teorijske osnove, Svet knjige, Beograd, 2003, p. 29–31

10 The National Security Strategy of the Republic of Serbia (Official Gazette of RS, no. 88/09), Belgrade, 2009

DEFINITION OF THE COMMUNITY AND MULTINATIONAL COMMUNITY

In the context of understanding the concept of community, it is important to emphasize the notion of Talcott Parsons, who says: "The community is a complex network of interconnected cross-cutting collectivities and collective loyalties, a system to which are inherent both functional differentiation and segmentation. Hence, mutually differ kinship family units, companies, churches, government bodies, educational collectives and the like. In addition, there are a number of individual forms within each type of collective units, for example, each of the large number of households consists of only few individuals and multitude of local communities".¹¹

As pointed out by Ljubomir Tadic, community represents: "... a state of relations between people in which strong interpersonal connections are established, a condition in which the multitude acts as unity 'all for one and one for all'..."¹². This concept Ferdinand Tennis used to express: "... the natural connection of the entire private life of the people".¹³

In accordance with these theoretical items on the concept of "community", the conceptual definition of 'multinational community' (multinational community and the nationally heterogenous¹⁴ community which are practically synonymous) of the Islamic Community is derived. Multinational community is generally treated as a specific form of the society which is characterized by the existence of several different national characteristics. According to one of the many definitions "multi-ethnic community is the community of people living on a compact territory, which provides real opportunities to meet the needs and interests of mutual life (in this case the municipality), which in its social structure has more than two national groups that regard themselves as nationally different from other national communities with whom they live directly and where one of the national specificities (preventive national minority) exceeds 15% of the total population of the community".¹⁵

In addition to the term 'multinational community' and 'society with several nations and nationalities', the term 'multicultural society' is used as a technical term by which the community is not evaluated, but only described. The justification for the use of the term the authors found in the current inadequacy of the term 'multi-ethnic community', due to its burden by historical context. The use of the term 'multinational communities' is consistent, bearing in mind that it is difficult to find a community that is not to a greater or lesser extent multi-ethnic and multicultural even if it was not about ethnic cultures, or ethnocultural communities.

In this context the term community can direct towards different institutions, non-profit organizations or agencies. From all of this it follows that it is important to note which real community it is meant when the term is used. Consequently, it applies to the Islamic Community.

Relying on the given elements of the stated definitions in the context of the research, the community is determined by the content and scope in an appropriate manner and *is a part of society, people with common characteristics, living in a certain area and having common history or common social, cultural, economic and other interests as well as religious affiliation. Therefore, it implies bounding characteristics between those people who are members of the community. The linking factor can be space and religious identity.*

¹¹Parsons, T., "Moderna društva", Gradina, Niš, 1992, p. 23

¹²Тадич, Љ.: Наука о политици, друго допуњено издање, БИГЗ, Београд, 1996, p. 41

¹³Тенис, Ф.: Заједница и друштво, Београд, 1912, p. 9–47

¹⁴ The term 'heterogenous' (Gr. Heterogenês) etymologically means diversity, multiplicity, inequality.

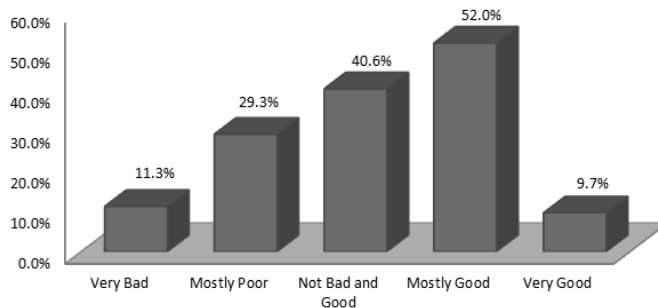
¹⁵ Парсонс, Т., "Модерна друштва", Градина, Ниш, 1992, стр. 23

FACTORS IMPORTANT FOR THE SECURITY OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

For a starting point in analyzing the security of the Republic of Serbia, it was necessary to identify the ethnic and religious contradictions as a security factor of the Republic of Serbia. Through the survey the relationship between churches and religious communities and the quality of interethnic relations were observed as factors that in certain conditions can have an impact on the security of the Republic of Serbia.

The relationship between churches and religious communities

Considering the aspect of the relations between churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia, which may have an impact on the security situation, especially in the domain of stability of certain areas in the Republic of Serbia, the results obtained in this research¹⁶ are presented in Graph 1.



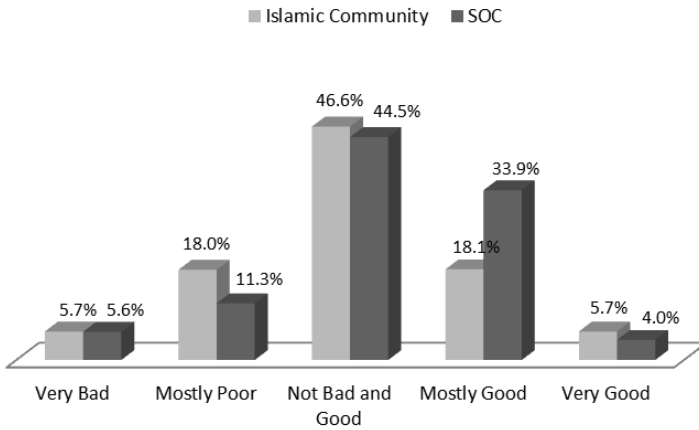
Graph 1: *The quality of the relationship between the churches and religious communities*

Graph 1 shows the attitudes of respondents dominated by estimates that the relations between churches and religious communities are generally good (52%) or are perceived as neither good nor bad (40.6%), more neutral. This attitude is acceptable from the point of religion, primarily as an observed segment of the quality of relations between churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia and such results are as expected.

To better comprehend the relations between churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia, it was necessary to carry out a comparative analysis of the relationships between churches and religious communities which is shown on graph 2.

Analyzing the comparative attitudes of respondents of the Serbian Orthodox Church and the Islamic Community, as shown in Graph 2, we can see the similarity of the results, except that in both communities prevailing opinion is that these relationships are neither good nor bad (46.6 and 44.5%). In addition, it is noticeable that respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church to a greater extent than those of the Islamic Community believe that the relations between churches and religious communities are generally good (33.9%).

¹⁶ The Research was carried out for the needs of the doctoral thesis entitled "The Impact of The Islamic Community on the Security and Defence of the Republic of Serbia" that was defended at the Military Academy of the University of Defence in 2013.



Graph 2: *The relationship between churches and religious communities*

For comparative graphics display of the given results, observing the distribution of the given responses, it is reasonable to assume that the compared groups (sample of the Islamic Community and the Serbian Orthodox Church) differ significantly.

In order to test the reasonableness of the assumptions we applied a statistical procedure for testing the significance of differences of arithmetic means, the so-called *t-test*.¹⁷

Table 1: *Comparison of churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia*

Value categories	Serbian Orthodox Church	Islamic Community
Mean value	3.17	2.88
Standard deviation	0.933	1.028
t ratio ¹⁸	5.373	
The significance level ¹⁹	0.01	

Table 1 shows that within the respondents from the Islamic Community the mean value is 2.88 and standard deviation is 1.028 while within the respondents of the Serbian Orthodox Church the mean value is 3.17 and standard deviation is 0.933. Based on the obtained t-value, which in this case is 5.373, one can conclude that the differences between the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church and the Islamic Community in terms of their assessment of the quality of relations between churches and religious communities in Serbia are statistically significant at $p = 0.01$. In other words, this means that respondents from the Orthodox Church more positively assess mutual relations than the respondents of the Islamic Community and vice versa. This is certainly, in our opinion, one of the key results of the research, because it is presented in the answers to the more important questions in this survey.

The quality of interethnic relations

In order to investigate the attitudes of respondents from the Islamic Community on the state of interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia, the survey was conducted at universities and in the municipalities (cities) in which the respondents from the Islamic communities

¹⁷ For mutual comparison of the results *Two independent samples test* of the software package SPSS 19 was used
¹⁸ Border value t at a given number of degrees of freedom amounts $t \geq 2,58$ and statistically is significant at $p = 0.01$; and $p \geq 1,96$ to $p < 2,58$ and statistically is significant at the level $p = 0.05$; Petz, B.: *Fundamentals of statistical methods for non-mathematicians*, SNL, Zagreb, 1985, p. 341
¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 341

make up a sizeable population. The research results are shown in graphical and tabular form. The results show that the state of interethnic relations differences is statistically significant.

It is characteristic to note that in relation to the total number of respondents, the beliefs that interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia are not bad, nor good dominate, which is consistent with the above findings on this point. If one regards certain municipalities (cities), then Belgrade is particularly interesting from the aspect of the thesis that attitudes within the interethnic communities are neither good nor bad, while respondents from Bujanovac are primarily oriented to the conclusion that relations are generally poor.

The values of arithmetic means show more critical perception of interethnic relations in Bujanovac ($M = 1.73$), Sjenica ($M = 2.11$), Novi Sad ($M = 2.29$), Novi Pazar ($M = 2.41$), and Preševo ($M = 2.52$) and less critical in Belgrade ($M = 3.06$) and Tutin ($M = 3.03$)²⁰. The most mutual consent among respondents was obtained when evaluating the status of national relations in municipalities (cities) Bujanovac ($\sigma = 0.761$), Sjenica ($\sigma = 0.820$), Novi Pazar ($\sigma = 0.885$) and Belgrade ($\sigma = 0.974$). A lesser degree of consent is achieved when such respondents gave a rating in municipalities (cities) Tutin ($\sigma = 1.045$), Preševo ($\sigma = 1.285$) and Novi Sad ($\sigma = 1.338$).

To obtain a complete picture of these relations, it was necessary to collect the views of the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church in the mentioned municipalities and to compare the results obtained with the attitudes of respondents from the Islamic Community.

The tabular display presents the attitudes of the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church and those of respondents from the Islamic Community (Table 2), where the point of view can be observed according to which the relations in terms of interethnic relations are identical to the views of the respondents from the Islamic Community in the areas of Novi Pazar and Belgrade.

In assessing the quality of interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia within respondents who live in the city of Belgrade it has been established that there is no statistically significant difference. The corresponding t-ratio is 0.450 and is not significant.

Table 2: *Basic statistical indicators of the quality of interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia*

Municipality (city)	Serbian Orthodox Church		Islamic Community		t-relation	Significance level
	(M)	(σ)	(M)	(σ)		
Bujanovac	3.00	0.730	1.73	0.761	6.817	p=0.01
Novi Sad	3.33	0.892	2.29	1.338	4.646	p=0.01
Novi Pazar	2.50	1.009	2.41	0.885	0.850	not significant
Belgrade	3.00	0.974	3.06	0.974	-0.450	not significant
Tutin	1.67	0.606	3.03	1.045	-6.882	p=0.01
Preševo	3.00	0.730	2.52	1.285	2.336	p=0.05

Within respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church who live in the city of Novi Pazar, it was also found, that there is no statistically significant difference in the quality of interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia. The corresponding t-ratio is 0.850 and is not significant.

In the city of Novi Sad it is determined that there are statistically significant differences among the respondents from the Islamic Community-evaluation mean value is 2.29 and a standard deviation of 1.338, and among the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church estimated mean value is 3.33 and standard deviation of 0.892. Matching t-ratio is 4.646 and is significant at $p = 0.01$.

²⁰ A lesser score means worse relations

According to the attitudes of the respondents who live in the municipality of Tutin, it was found that there is a statistically significant difference. Within the respondents from the Islamic Community, the mean value estimate is 3.03 and standard deviation is 1.045 while within the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church the mean value estimate is 1.67 and the standard deviation is 0.606. Matching t-ratio is 6.882, it is significant at $p = 0.01$.

In the municipality of Bujanovac, the survey was conducted among respondents from the Islamic Community. The comparison was conducted with respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church on the territory of Vranje.²¹ A statistically significant difference in attitudes relating to the quality of interethnic relations was determined. It is particularly interesting to note the scalar value in respondents from the Islamic Community, where the mean value estimate is 1.73 and standard deviation is 0.763 while within the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church the mean value estimate is 3.00 and standard deviation 0.730. Matching t-ratio is 6.817 and is significant at $p = 0.01$. The illustrated data indicate a generally poor interethnic relations.

In the municipality of Preševo, the survey was conducted among respondents from the Islamic Community. The comparison was conducted with respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church on the territory of Vranje. There is a statistically significant difference. Within the respondents from the Islamic Community mean value estimate is 2.52 and standard deviation of 1.285. Within the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church the mean value estimate is 3.00 and standard deviation of 0.730. The corresponding t-ratio is 2.336 and is important at the level of $p = 0.05$. Comparing the data with respondents from the Islamic Community from Bujanovac, the data is different and indicate that the interethnic relations are evaluated better by the respondents from the Islamic Community in the municipality of Preševo than those of the respondents from the Islamic Community in the municipality of Bujanovac, but statistically speaking, interethnic relations in general are bad.

It can be concluded that the attitudes of the respondents from the Islamic Community and the Serbian Orthodox Church respondents partially vary in terms of intensity of these relationships. The respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church were more exclusive compared to the relation of interethnic relations, primarily in the statement that they are generally poor. Such attitudes are also shared by the respondents from the Islamic Community, but in somewhat milder form. This is especially expressed through the scalar values of certain attitudes and their mean value. The results indicate that these attitudes are homogeneous in both samples on the quality assessment of interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia.

VALUE SYSTEM AND BALANCE EVALUATION OF INTERETHNIC RELATIONS

The value system of the state of interethnic relations is expressed through features that represent interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia.

According to the data in Table 3, it was concluded that there is a significant correlation between the value system of the respondents and their assessment of the state of the interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia. This applies particularly to the respondents of the Islamic Community. On the basis of values and presigns of the obtained correlation coeffi-

²¹ On the territory of the municipalities of Preševo and Bujanovac, the members of the Islamic Community were surveyed, while in the municipality of Vranje the members of the Serbian Orthodox Church were surveyed as residents of the nearest municipality with Orthodox population. The results of the surveyed members of the SPC from Vranje municipality were used as a sample for the municipalities of Preševo and Bujanovac.

cients, it can be concluded that those respondents who attach greater importance to values such as honour, nation, tradition, courage, peace in the world, religion, and future – assess the state of interethnic relations as more unfavourable. Thus, the most pronounced correlation between the valuation of courage and assessment of interethnic relations is with a correlation coefficient $r = -0.134$ ($p < 0.01$). Unlike the respondents of the Islamic Community, within the respondents from the Serbian Orthodox Church only one statistically significant correlation is received and with a positive note with a correlation coefficient $r = 0.097$ ($p < 0,5$) which indicates the relationship between valuing the equality of people and the perception of inter-ethnic relations.

Table 3: *Link between the interethnic relations in Serbia and the system of values*

No.	Categories	Islamic Community	Serbian Orthodox Church
		r	r
1.	Freedom	-0.008	0.016
2.	Patriotism	-0.029	0.010
3.	Pride	-0.070	-0.007
4.	Honour	-0.088 [*]	-0.012
5.	Nation	-0.114 ^{**}	0.019
6.	Tradition	-0.108 [*]	0.020
7.	Country	-0.015	0.013
8.	Courage	-0.134 ^{**}	0.012
9.	State Security	-0.043	0.000
10.	Peace in the world	-0.094 [*]	0.052
11.	Equality between people	-0.069	0.097 [*]
12.	Religion	-0.089 [*]	0.020
13.	Future	-0.108 [*]	0.002
14.	Fairness	-0.0099	0.002
15.	Honesty	-0.077	-0.016
16.	Camaraderie	-0.054	0.004
17.	Truth	-0.048	0.042

** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Based on these results we can conclude that when it comes to the respondents of the Islamic Community, there is interdependence between their values and assessment of the state of interethnic relations. Given that all the correlations obtained for this sample are with a negative sign, the respondents attach greater importance to specified values, estimating that interethnic relations are getting worse and vice versa. Accordingly, if we would like to get approximate profile of the respondents of the Islamic Community who believe that inter-ethnic relations are getting worse, it could be said that they are those in whose value system ‘courage’, ‘nation’, ‘tradition’, ‘religion’, ‘future’ and ‘honour’ are highly-rated. A more thorough explanation of these attitudes cannot be performed without additional research in relation to the above conclusions. In this regard, it would be necessary to construct new instruments.

The vast majority of correlations obtained on a sample from the Serbian Orthodox Church with a positive sign indicates a different direction of the correlation of the observed phenomenon in relation to the pattern of the Islamic Community. However, the fact that these correlations are not statistically significant does not provide the ability to perform more daring conclusions without further research of this occurrences.

**The link between certain factors of importance for the security
of the Republic of Serbia and the assessment of the situation by selected variables²²**

To identify the correlation between the evaluations of the importance of factors impact on the security of the Republic of Serbia, and after a concrete assessment of the identified properties, the respondents evaluated the association assessment of the situation in Serbia following the offered elements. Relevant features to the security of the Republic of Serbia were primarily considered and manifested by the multinational composition of the population of the Republic of Serbia.

The values of correlation coefficients, listed in Table 4 show that within the subjects of the Islamic Community there is a significant relationship between the size of the impact assessment of the multinational composition of the population of the Republic of Serbia on the security of the Republic of Serbia, on the one hand, and the assessment of relations between churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia, on the other ($p < 0.01$). Those respondents who think that the multinational composition of Serbia has a greater impact on its security and defence have estimated favourable relationship between churches and religious communities in Serbia.

*Table 4: Correlation of the impact of multi ethnic composition
of the population of the Republic of Serbia and the selected variables*

Influencing factors	Respondents of the IC	Respondents of the SOC
	r	r
Relations between churches and religious communities in Serbia	0.119**	-0.025
The state of interethnic relations in Serbia	0.043	-0.006

** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

When it comes to the respondents of the Serbian Orthodox Church, there is no significant relationship between the size of the impact assessment of the multinational composition of the population of the Republic of Serbia, on the one hand, and the assessment of relations between churches and religious communities and the state of interethnic relations in Serbia, on the other hand, as a factor that affects the security of the Republic Serbia. However, the fact that these connections are not statistically significant does not provide the ability to perform more daring conclusions without further research on the occurrences.

CONCLUSION

Security elements or security as a state and process are perceived through different definitions and approaches. At the same time the elements of the national security related to the Republic of Serbia from the perspective of doctrinal documents and practical applications are discussed.

The paper discusses the key factors that may have an impact on the security of the Republic of Serbia and bring into close connection the relations between churches and religious communities in Serbia. The relationship between the churches and the religious communities included certain variables expressed through attributive features of the relations between the churches and the religious communities.

²² The selected variables include: the relationship between churches and religious communities; the state of interethnic relations in Serbia.

Based on these results, it was concluded that the relationship between the churches and the religious communities is a key issue and a contradiction in terms of their assessment of the quality of relations between the churches and the religious communities in Serbia.

In addition to the said contradictions in both sub-samples, it is characteristic to note that in relation to the total respondents, the view that the interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia are relatively good dominate and that they as such reflect the favourable security situation in the Republic of Serbia.

It was established that among the respondents of the Islamic Community and the Serbian Orthodox Church, there are contradictions in attitudes as evidenced of the existence of significant correlation in terms of value systems. When it comes to the respondents of the Islamic Community, it is estimated that international relations are worse than those of the respondents of the Serbian Orthodox Church. However, the fact that correlation among the respondents of the Serbian Orthodox Church were not statistically significant and do not provide the ability to perform more daring conclusions without further research of the occurrences.

It was confirmed that the values of correlation coefficients show that within the respondents of the Islamic Community there is a significant relationship between the size of the impact assessment of the multinational composition of the population of the Republic of Serbia on the security of the Republic of Serbia, on the one hand, and the assessment of relations between churches and religious communities in the Republic of Serbia, on the other hand. Those respondents who think that the multinational composition of Serbia has a greater impact on its security predict favourable relationship between churches and religious communities in Serbia.

The relationship between churches and religious communities, as one of the major factors of security of the Republic of Serbia, based on the displayed results are neither bad nor good. In the above findings, the non-homogeneity of attitudes of the respondents members of the Islamic Community in the evaluation of the quality of interethnic relations in the Republic of Serbia has been taken into account. This indicates that these elements do not have a significant impact on the security of the Republic of Serbia.

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CONTRIBUTION OF ARCHIBALD REISS TO CONDUCTING INFORMATION OPERATIONS DURING WORLD WAR I

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Abstract: In the light of the latest attempts to rewrite history and derogate contribution of prominent persons to victory in the Great War, purpose of the paper is to point to one of the aspects of contribution to that victory given by a proven and great friend of the Serbian people – Archibald Reiss, PhD. Based on analysis of the events from the beginning of the 20th century, “the Customs War” and “Diplomatic Strike”, the Balkan wars and the Great War, a conclusion can be made that the state leadership of the Kingdom of Serbia recognized importance of the principal instruments of state power such as: army, economy, diplomacy and information. Information management in the process of decision making on all levels in certain period of time was as important in the past as it is today. Information has been and still is powerful means for exerting influence in information environment on certain target group in order to achieve certain effects and final targeted state without applying “hard” force. Being aware of the danger coming from Austro-Hungary in the beginning of the 20th century, Government and military leaders of the Kingdom of Serbia timely prepared the war plan and defined their war goal. After the first Ally victory - the Cer battle, Government of the Kingdom of Serbia used the momentum to establish and emphasize uniting of Serbs, Croats and Slovenians into a common state to the international community as its war goal. They were also aware of the fact that a war goal could not be achieved only by means of military operations, but that it was necessary to provide unity of efforts and involvement of military and civil elite of that time society with support of the Allies and friendly countries in the world. During the war Archibald Reiss, PhD gave enormous contribution to collecting, processing and spreading information, i.e. information operations conducting. He was dealing with various activities – he was investigator of war crimes committed by Austro-Hungarian army, a volunteer in the Kingdom of Serbia Army, member of Intelligence Department of the Supreme Command and untried war reporter from the Salonika Front. It is a fact that the term information operations was not used and considered in that period of time, but it is obvious that the measures and activities taken by the state and military leadership of the Kingdom of Serbia are forerunners of contemporary information operations.

Keywords: instruments of state power, information, information management, information environment, unity of efforts, information operation.

INTRODUCTION

Friendships must be cherished and that is something that Serbs often forget and If only we had had more friends of that kind in the challenging and other difficult situations in the last century are the statements of academician Dragan Nedeljković said during the promotion of book of Dr Archibald Reiss *War Reports from Serbia and from the Salonika Front.*² It is not accidental

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² <http://www.presscentar.uns.org.rs/announcements/766/dr-arcibald-rajs-ratni-izvestaj-iz-srbije-i-sa-solunskog-fronta-neobjavljeni-tekstovi-na-srpskom-jeziku.html>.

that this paper begins with the abovementioned statements of our prominent academician, because it is an undeniable fact that, in spite of all attempts of underestimation and changing of the historical facts, Dr Archibald Reiss was and would always be a great friend of the Serbian people. Friends, partners and Allies are necessary when the issue of information operations is considered. During World War I Dr Reiss had a very important role in objective informing of the European public, spreading of true information, as well as in forming the public opinion in sense of changing the negative perception and stereotypes created about the Serbian people just before the start of the war. Information as properly true data or a group of true data with certain meaning³ was, has been and will stay the key element in the process of decision making by an individual, organization and institution. Besides possessing, this paper will deal with spreading of the information with the aim of influencing upon certain target groups, as well as opposing information to disinformation as part of psychological and propaganda activities. From the aspect of information management, it is necessary to emphasize vision and contribution of Nikola Pašić, the Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Serbia (KS) who was also the Minister of Foreign Affairs during the war, and his closest associate Stojan Protić, the Minister of Internal Affairs. Although the information operations did not exist as a separate kind in the period of the time considered here, the fact that representatives of civilian administration and the Army of KS were dealing with the measures and activities that cannot be neglected. Putting together theoretical knowledge from the area of Doctrine of the Serbian Army from 2010 and Doctrine of Operations of Serbian Army from 2012, it can be said that information operations are a kind of non-combat operations and that they are a group of coordinated activities with the aim of influencing upon process of the enemy's decision making. They are performed at all commanding levels, either as an integral part of other operations or as an independent activity.⁴ They are performed in order to reach military and political goals by acting on the information, information processes and systems of the enemy and other parties, simultaneously protecting one's own and friendly information, information processes and systems. They include implementation of various military (psychological measures and activities, electronic activities, security measures and misleading) and non-military (political and diplomatic actions, informing of the public and cooperation with the civilian structures) measures and activities.⁵ Since attention of the readers should be concentrated on significance of decision making process, it can be useful to give definition of an information operation according to the USA Doctrine. Information operation is an integrated use of information capabilities during military operations, together with other operation lines in order to exert influence, obstruction, discrediting and usurping of the enemy decision making process as well as to protect one's own decision making process.⁶ It is important to emphasize that these operations are the ones which are constantly performed before, during and after completion of the conflict and that the key activities are gathering, processing, storing, transfer and protection of information. Their essence is influence upon the cognitive dimension of information environment and the effect to be achieved is bringing of an individual, organization or system in a state which will significantly influence the decision making process. Unfortunately, in spite of the fact that information inferiority in the period from 1914 to 1918 and in 1999 did not prevent us from defeating the enemy in the area of information operations, Serbian Army still does not have elaborated information operations doctrine. Contemporary approach to unity of efforts at strategic level in the current state of security challenges, risks and threats means providing of a synchronized, coordinated and united approach of the government institutions and non-governmental organizations in support of military operations, along with getting support from international organizations, friendly, partner and allied countries.

3 Kalauzović, G: *Informacione operacije i iskustva iz njihove primene [Information Operations and Experiences Based on their Use]*, Media Centre "Odbrana", 2012, p.11

4 *Doktrina operacija Vojske Srbije [Doctrine of Operation of the Serbian Army]*, 2012, p.22

5 *Doktrina Vojske Srbije [Doctrine of the Serbian Army]*, 2010, p.43-44

6 *Joint Publication 3-13 Information Operations, Joint Staffs*, Armed Forces of the United States, 2014, p.11

This paper will pay special attention to significance and contribution of the intellectual elite of the people and their friends from abroad in order to provide unity of efforts to achieve already defined war aim.

EVENTS IN THE KINGDOM OF SERBIA IN LATE 19TH AND EARLY 20TH CENTURY AND IMPORTANCE OF INFORMATION AS AN INSTRUMENT OF STATE POWER

In late 19th and early 20th century the Kingdom of Serbia was exposed to various challenges starting from its wish to be independent, to keep its sovereignty, to develop its own economy, to unite all the South Slavs in one state to open pressures, threats and war conflicts. As far as foreign policy, economy and military are concerned, the Kingdom of Serbia, from recognition of its independence at Berlin Congress in 1878, and particularly in the period of reign of King Milan Obrenović, was oriented to Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. When King Aleksandar Obrenović came to power in 1893, his foreign policy was characterized by slight turning towards Russia. Together with Russia, the French started intensive cooperation with Serbia, especially in the area of economy, finance and culture.

Important shift in relations between the Kingdom of Serbia and its strategic partners was the murder of the Royal couple – King Aleksandar and his wife Draga as well as change of the ruler on the throne in May 1903. Obrenović Dynasty whose principal economic and political partner till 1903 was Austro-Hungary, was replaced by Karađorđević Dynasty which, as far as political and military cooperation was concerned, turned towards Russia as its key ally. This shift relating selection of the strategic partner was the reason for starting a strong pressure exerted on Serbia by all Austro-Hungarian forces and means. This pressure could be seen in information-propaganda war, diplomatic and economic blockage, in permanent security threats, especially after annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and finally in open war threat. Austro-Hungary used the murder of the Obrenović Royal couple to coordinate diplomatic strike against Serbia through their Ambassador in Belgrade as well as through their Minister of Foreign Affairs Goluhovski. They were very successful in that activity because they managed to isolate Serbia from other international community members for certain period of time, even from its ally Russia. Besides diplomatic, Austro-Hungary also managed to establish economic blockade, i.e. it imposed the Customs War on Serbia from 1905 to 1911, trying to disable its industrial development, economy growth and generally its strengthening as a state and all that because of the fear of awakening of national consciousness of the people living within the Monarchy. The crisis between Austro-Hungary and Serbia which started in 1908 because of annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina was overcome by Berlin Agreement in 1909, but it is the fact that both countries formulated their war plans. During the Balkan Wars in 1912 and 1913 Austro-Hungary, supported by Bulgaria and newly created Albania, continued to constantly threaten already territorially expanded Serbia. The final act of demonization of an entire nation and state⁷ was accusing of the country of assassination in Sarajevo and murder of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophia on 28 June 1914, as well as setting of the unacceptable ultimatum on 23 July 1914, for which it had been assumed that it would not be accepted.

The aforementioned facts were supported by Dr Reiss's attitude in his first letter to *Gazete de Lusanne* on 15 October 1914, in which he said: *For many years German and Austrian news-*

⁷ The conclusion made by Slobodan G. Marković in the text *Kriza u odnosima Kraljevine Srbije i Velike Britanije [The Crisis in Relations between the Kingdom of Serbia and Great Britain]* published in journal NIN on 27 March 2003 supports the author's opinion.

*papers have been trying to diminish reputation of the Serbian people in the eyes of the world.*⁸ It is easy to recognize the model applied in that time in order to “discipline” a small country by a powerful monarchy and its Allies. Similar model also appeared in the conflicts in recent past and it is the model in which the countries are exposed to strong psychological and propaganda activity, diplomatic and economic pressures, demonization with the public opinion of the wider international community and all that before launching some concrete military actions. Hence, a classical information operation was conducted against Serbia in which newspapers were used as the most powerful media means and diplomacy as well. Activities of the state leadership led by Nikola Pašić, the KS Prime Minister, the prominent representatives of the military leaders such as Voivoda Radomir Putnik and Voivoda Živojin Mišić immediately before and after the Austro-Hungarian aggression clearly show that they were aware of the complexity of the danger overcasting Serbia. Immediately before and after the Austro-Hungarian aggression they recognized significance of the basic instruments of a state power such as: military, economy, diplomacy and information in particular. Having in mind the fact that Serbia had been in the war since 1912, the only serious shift could be made only in the field of diplomacy and information.

During the Great War information management was a very demanding and responsible task of civilian and military representatives in the state institutions. Having in mind the level of technical and technological development, it was especially challenging to gather and transfer the information in reasonable time as well as to protect the information, i.e. the intellectual products. Information management is a science about implementation of the procedures and information systems with the aim of gathering, processing, keeping, showing, exchange and protection of the knowledge products, data and information.⁹ Information management synchronized with the intelligence activities and information operations is the basis for gaining the information advantage. Only the key actors and examples of information management in the above-defined period of time will be considered in this paper.

After the first Allies’ victory in the Great War and support provided by the Entente Allies, the Government of the KS used the moment to set unification of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes into one state as its war goal in front of the Allies and the international community. The state and military leadership of Serbia was aware of the fact that the set war goal could not be achieved only by military force. It was clear that, in order to reach the goal, unity of efforts of military and civilian intellectual elite and stronger support of the Allies and friendly countries all around the world had to be provided. A statement given by the Prime Minister Pašić confirmed that: *Yugoslav propaganda activities should be carried out by professors instead of till now merchants who are unusable.*¹⁰ His words clearly show his attitude and his relation towards the intellectual elite of Serbian, Croatian and Slovene people to whom he himself belonged. Prominent representatives of Serbian intellectual elite and emigration who, everybody in their own way, contributed to information operations were: a lawyer and historian Slobodan Jovanović, the Head of the Serbian Army Supreme Command Press Bureau; a mathematician Mihajlo Petrović – Mika Alas, in the Intelligence Section of the Supreme Command he invented the code for information protection; a writer Branislav Nušić, in the Intelligence Section of Supreme Command he supported with sharp words the photos of “painting” department; a geographer Jovan Cvijić, an adviser in the Government in the beginning of the war, and later he was spreading the truth in Switzerland and Great Britain; an Orthodox Bishop Nikolaj Velimirović, better known as “the third army in combat for the Serbian matter” who affirmed the war goal in the USA and Great Britain; a scientist Mihajlo Pupin, the USA

8 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji iz Srbije i sa Solunskog fronta [War Reports from Serbia and from Salonika Front]*, Geopolitika, 2014, p.13

9 Department of the USA Army, *FM 3-0 Operations*, Washington, DC, 22 February 2011, p.153.

10 Stanković, Đ. Đ: *Nikola Pašić i jugoslovensko pitanje 2[Nikola Pašić and Yugoslav Issue 2]*, Beogradski izdavačko-grafički zavod, 1985, p.78

President Wilson's adviser in the process of defining eastern boundaries of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes after the war; a writer Jovan Dučić, an attaché in Italy and Greece, etc. Trying to unite their efforts, especially when appearing in front of the international public, the Government of KS gave the instruction on 27 October 1914, about forming of the *Yugoslav Board* in London. This attitude of the state and military leadership towards its own intellectual elite clearly shows that there was nothing accidental in engagement of Dr Reiss, a teacher of criminology and judicial expert, with the aim of spreading truth and justice.

Serbian missions and consulates and military diplomatic missions within them had an important role in the process of gathering and spreading of information, establishing and development of military cooperation, as well as in support of psychological and propaganda activities with the aim of achieving political and military goals. Missions and consulates of Serbia abroad, especially the ones in France, Great Britain, Switzerland, Italy, Russia and Greece had a significant role in affirmation of Serbian war goal, in spreading of the truth, in support of unity of the actions of the *Yugoslav Board* members and other prominent representatives of emigration, in gathering of the volunteers, material and financial help. Serbian military diplomacy started its development by opening the first military mission in Vienna in 1878, when the Principality of Serbia got its independence. In accordance with development of the situation and the needs, military missions were open in Istanbul in 1881, in Germany in 1895, in Bulgaria in 1898, and in Montenegro in 1903. In the critical moments for Serbia in 1911, before the beginning of the Balkans Wars, the Serbian leadership decided to appoint the military attaché in Bulgaria to do the same duty in Bucharest as well, and to accredit the one from Istanbul to do the same duty in Athens. As for spreading the network of the military diplomatic missions, the last changes before the beginning of World War I included opening of the military mission in Romania in 1913 and Italy in 1914. Unfortunately, military missions of Serbia were open in France and Great Britain - Entente Allies, only during 1915.¹¹ Parallel analysis of the course of the events in the region and wider can help us to make conclusion that Serbia was in some cases too late in establishing its military missions and that definitely did affect the level of development of its relations with the Allies, as well as the war situation on the territory of the Balkans. Irrespectively of this critical attitude, it will be remembered in history that missions, consulates and military diplomatic missions of Serbia as well as all other actors provided conditions for achieving the war goal. They had key role in the period when the leadership and the KS Army had to leave the country in order to avoid destruction and provide conditions for a victorious return. Along with the abovementioned persons, the consulate of Serbia in Geneva and Consul Nikola Petrović, who was Dr Reiss's close friend, was meritorious for his engagement on investigation of the war crimes committed by Austro-Hungarian Army.

The Supreme Command of Serbian Army contributed a lot to recognition of importance of information as a significant factor of armed combat as well as a factor of operations. Having learnt the lectures from the First Balkan War and after the beginning of the Great War, the Supreme Command created *The Instruction for Engagement of the War Painters*. "Painting" departments were formed and they consisted of the military photographers, painters and writers who had an important task to use the pictures and words to directly show to the widest possible domestic and foreign public what was happening on the battlefield. After their establishment, the "painting" departments were connected to the Intelligence Department of the Supreme Command, and they were later formed in the commands of all Serbian Army divisions. The best-known painters engaged in the "painting" departments were: Dragomir Glišić, Borivoje Vučković, Vladimir Becić, Miloš Golubović, Kosta Miličević, Živorad Nastasijević, Dragoljub Pavlović, Branko Jevtović¹² and others whose contribution to spreading of

11 Group of authors, *Vojnoobavestajna služba u Srbiji [Military Intelligence Service in Serbia]*, Media centre Odbrana, Belgrade, 2012

12 Petković, V. M: *Srpski obavestajci [Serbian Intelligence Officers]*, Gutenbergova galaksija, 2003, p.533

truth, justice and freedom was immeasurable. Rista Marjanović and Samson Černov (Russian citizen) were two photographers whose work was especially appreciated and emphasized by Dr Reiss.¹³ Samson Černov perpetuated presence of King Petar I at the positions Garevica by Darosava in 1914 during the critical moments of the famous Kolubara battle. That picture was put on the post stamp which had to be used when sending letters till the end of the war. The painter Becić was taking photos, and our famous writer Nušić wrote a text about King Petar I who was sharing the sufferings with his soldiers during their retreat across Albania. The picture and the text were first published in Parisian *Illustration*, and later in other newspapers in France, Great Britain and the USA. The war painters followed the Army from the beginning of the war, during the famous successes during the first war year, but also in the difficult moments during their retreat across Albania and recovery in Corfu, during the brave actions on Salonika front, till the victorious return to homeland. The artists who were members of the “painting” departments provided documenting of the classic examples of disrespect of the war customs by Austro-Hungarian soldiers during and after the Cer battle, Drina battle, Kolubara battle and during the rest of World War I. Thanks to such professionalism and devotion, to support given by the Propaganda department formed in 1917 within the Ministry of Education as well as to successful cooperation with foreign correspondents during the war, the truth and objective picture of the situation were being spread all around the world through the magazines *Le Petit Parisien*, *Illustration*, *Gazete de Lusanne*, *Journal de Genève*, *The Times*, *The New York Herald*, *Новое Время*, *России прощание*. There was the Press Bureau in composition of the Supreme Command and the final product made by the people working with it was the newspaper *Ратни Дневник [War Diary]*. In elucidation of the war crimes committed by Austro-Hungarians, Dr Reiss was strongly supported by the SC Press Bureau and his excellent friend S. Jovanović, as well as by Professor Brane Petronijević. Conducting of psychological and propaganda war became constitutional part of SC Intelligence Department.



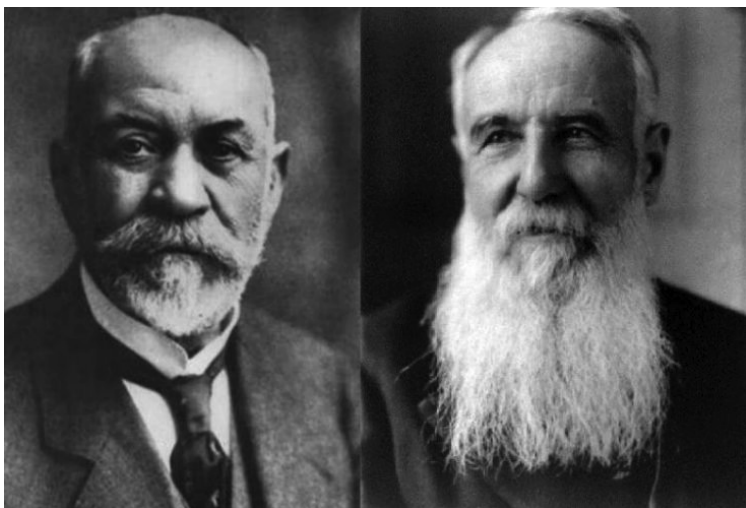
*Archibald Reiss, Slobodan Jovanović and Captain Milan Đorđević,
Press Bureau, SC Serbian Armed Forces¹⁴*

Complexity of the situation in the Balkans and the position of Serbia in relation to the

¹³ <http://www.pasaz.rs/samson-cernov-slikar-i-fotograf-koji-je-zaduzio-srbiju/>

¹⁴ <http://www.rtvbn.com/353962/Sjecanje-na-srpskog-prijatelja-Arcibalda-Rajsa> [*Memory to Serbian friend Archibald Reiss, the photo probably taken in early 1917 when the Press Bureau Head, Slobodan Jovanović, was replaced by Captain Milan Đorđević*]

international public during the Balkan Wars confirmed the opinion of Stojan Protić, the Minister of Internal Affairs, on necessity of a radically new approach to looking for possible solutions. He made a conclusion that, in order to spread the truth, develop the sense of justice and create an objective picture of certain matters, it was necessary to influence the international public opinion. The perfect means in that time were newspapers. He was conducting a real small “newspaper war” by writing the articles in Latin and in the Latin language under pseudonym *Balkanicus*.¹⁵ His articles were often taken over from the newspaper *Samouprava* [Self-government] by foreign correspondents, but they were at the same time published in German, Russian, Italian, Bulgarian and other foreign newspapers. That was the way in which he continued the activities which had been started in 1863 by Prince Mihajlo Obrenović when he sent Senator Hristić and Princess Julija to London to spread positive influence relating Serbia upon public opinion of the most powerful world empire. The visionary relating necessity of influence upon public opinion in his own country but also in the world was continued by Stojan Protić, Nikola Pašić – the Prime Minister, and Consul Nikola Petrović. Based on good cooperation regarding training of the police personnel from Serbia in Geneva before the Great War, Protić suggested engagement of Dr Reiss for investigation, documenting and presenting the evidence of the atrocities committed by Austro-Hungarian Army against innocent Serbian citizens to the international public.



Stojan Protić and Nikola Pašić were credited for successful conducting of IO¹⁶

These are just some of numerous positive examples of information management by civilian and military leadership of Serbia which must be emphasized before giving comments on Dr Reiss's contribution to conducting of information operations. This great friend of Serbia had a very important role in the team which was not too visible and whose results were not immediately measureable, but the final result proved that they influenced upon significantly different perception of the international public about Serbia compared to the one before beginning of World War I.

¹⁵ Petković, V. M: *op.cit.* p.490-491

¹⁶ <http://www.diaspora.gov.rs/dostojanstven-odgovor-srpske-vlade-na-julski-utimatum/>

ENGAGEMENT OF DR ARCHIBALD REISS DURING CONDUCTING OF INFORMATION OPERATIONS IN WORLD WAR I

Dr Reiss accepted the invitation sent by the KS Government and, after travelling through Italy and Greece, he arrived to Serbia in 27 September 1914. The Prime Minister himself explained the task to him in Niš – *We need a sincere friend who knows how to observe. Go to the front. Open your eyes and ears and then tell the world all that you have seen and heard.*¹⁷ From that moment till the end of the war in 1918, Dr Reiss accepted to share destiny of the Serbian people and the army; as he personally emphasized, even in the period when he went back to Switzerland he did not stop spreading the truth, justice and freedom. Most of his articles were published in Swiss, French and Dutch newspapers, but due to the fact that his articles were very interesting and taken by other newspapers, his words reached other countries, even the Triple Alliance members. Besides the newspaper articles, he also made appropriate brochures. Especially important was the book titled *The Atrocities Committed by Austro-Hungarian Army* written in English and published in London in 1916.

Dr Reiss' activities related to conducting the information operations during the First World War can be divided into several stages. The first period from September 1914 to April 1915 was the period in which he focused his attention on investigation, proving and informing of the public all around the world about the crimes committed by the Austro-Hungarian Army on the territory of Pocer, Jadar and Mačva counties. The second period from April 1915 to September 1916 was the period when Dr Reiss focused on informing the public about sufferings of the Serbian people with the aim of keeping the alliance, humanitarian activities, affirming of Serbian war goal with simultaneous opposing German and Austro-Hungarian propaganda. The third period of his activities was from October 1916 to the end of the war when he supported the Serbian Army in expert training of counterintelligence, provided advisory 'informative' service to the political and military leaders of the KS, opposed the enemy propaganda and Allies' critics; finally, he was the one who documented and informed the world about war crimes committed by the Bulgarian Army on the territory of Vardar Macedonia, as well as the atrocities committed by German and Austro-Hungarian Armies during their retreat from Serbia.

Many things have been written and many facts are well-known about the period of the first engagement of Dr Reiss in Serbia. There is sometimes an impression that, when his name is mentioned, people know about him only because of the investigating, documenting and reporting about the atrocities committed by Austro-Hungarians on the territory of Mačva and Podrinje. Less attention has been paid to studying of his activities related to informing of the international public about sacrifices of the Serbian people, in affirming the KS war goal, in opposing the anti-Serbian propaganda and providing advisory and expert assistance to the state and military leadership of the KS. Although all his activities in the first period must be equally appreciated, this paper will primarily deal with the details relating his contribution to information operations. In the beginning, Dr Reiss surprised the readers of *Gazete de Lusanne* with significantly different picture of the Serbian people compared to the picture created by German-Austro-Hungarian propaganda, and he especially surprised them when he first visited Austro-Hungarian soldier captured after the first victory of Allies in Serbia. Describing correct treatment and humane attitude of Serbian authorities towards the captured Austro-Hungarian soldiers, especially towards Bosnians, Croats, Slovenians, Czechs, Romanians he sent a message to other soldiers on the front who were fighting reluctantly on

¹⁷ Reiss, A: *Šta sam video i proživio u velikim danima [What I saw and Experienced during the Great days]*, Talija, Belgrade 1997, p.22

Austro-Hungarian side to surrender. His first addressing to the public was also very important as well as his appeal to the doctors and nurses from abroad to come to Serbia and support their Serbian fellows. After coming back to Serbia in April 1915, Dr Reiss stated with pleasure that the Entente Allies provided help in ammunition, medical missions, armament and equipment. Only France sent about a hundred physicians¹⁸ who, together with their fellows from other countries, managed to repress epidemic of typhus because of which many innocent people died in the early war year 1915. Dr Reiss spent the end of September, October and November of 1915 in detailed and systematic investigation and documenting of violations of The Hague Conventions from 1907 by Austro-Hungary which was one of its signatories. He visited the key places where violation of war customs had been registered and took the statements from the witnesses: population, survived victims, captured Austro-Hungarian soldiers, non-commissioned officers and officers, as well as from representatives of Serbian Army. He collected the evidential material and, strictly obeying the police procedures, he made the notes based on which he would make a detailed report. He was aware of all the possible consequences which could be caused by publishing of his report and that was why he did his job conscientiously, rightfully, independently and without any outside influence. The following cases of violation of war customs and The Hague Convention were registered during his engagement: 1) Austro-Hungarian Army's use of explosive ammunition – the wounds it caused were mostly either lethal or required amputation of an arm or a leg, 2) shelling of open towns, civilians in them and civilian facilities such as hospitals, educational institutions, cultural institutions and historic monuments with flammable concussion projectiles or shrapnel shells with the aim of causing as many civilian victims as possible, 3) massacre of the wounded and captured Serbian soldiers, 4) massacre and atrocities against civilians, and 5) destruction and burning of the houses, looting of property belonging to population and institutions.¹⁹ It is important to stress up that all the investigations Dr Reiss was performing were done in extremely adverse conditions while Serbian Army was fighting the battle on the Drina and the famous Kolubara battle. Although aware of the risk, along with investigating the crimes and making the reports, he was publishing newspaper articles in *Gazete de Lusanne* from September 1914 to April 1915, thus spreading the truth about war crimes and violation of The Hague Convention by Austro-Hungarian soldiers. In April 1915, after completion of his report on the atrocities committed by Austro-Hungarian Army, Dr Reiss publicly presented the investigation results at the Sorbonne where he said: *There is no possible neutrality in case of a crime.*²⁰ It will remain recorded in history that he, like no one else until then, exposed the truth about the behaviour of Austro-Hungarian soldiers during war operations in Serbia and generated condemnation of their acts in Europe and all around the world as well. His reports disturbed the masses in the very Monarchy and triggered reactions with the civilian and military leadership of Austro-Hungary. Although their first reactions after revealing the truth were directed towards negating of the crimes and denying of the report, the situation after 6 October 1915 and the new united attack of the Central powers on Serbia also showed some obvious changes in the behaviour of Austro-Hungarian soldiers.²¹ It is sure that the credit for that also belonged to Dr Reiss.

After return to Serbia in April 1915, Dr Reiss went to Kragujevac with his Serbian friends where he could see and understand difficult situation after three years of war waging and ty-

18 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji, op.cit., A letter From Serbia, p.68*

19 Reiss, A: *Austro-Hungarian Atrocities Report*, London, 1916

20 Reiss, A: *Šta sam video i proživio u velikim danima, [What I saw and Experienced during the Great Days]*, Talija, Belgrade, 1997, p.76

21 In the articles In Serbia published on 18 February 1916 and 7 March 1916 in *Gazete de Lusanne* Dr Reiss emphasized the obvious difference between behavior of Austro-Hungarian and German soldiers towards the civilians in occupied Serbia. This time, German soldiers were more uncivilized and inhumane in their actions and because of that they even had conflicts with Austro-Hungarian soldiers.

phus epidemic. The situation in Serbia was difficult, but the situation on other battlefields in Europe was not much different. It was the period of strong propaganda spread by the Triple Alliance members as opposed to the Entente Allies. Neutral countries were their target, as well as the countries for which it was estimated that could withdraw from the war because of the suffered destruction. Dr Reiss made his capabilities available to Serbia in propaganda spreading as well as in protection against propaganda activities. The article *The Dalmatian Issue*²² was written in Kragujevac on 10 May 1915; it was based on the knowledge he had already had and the information he got using certain statistic data about the abovementioned region. Unfortunately, Dalmatia was promised to Italy by the Entente members in accordance with London Agreement from 26 April 1915, in order to be attracted to their side. The state leadership of Serbia, burdened with difficult situation in the country, reacted too late to Italian territory aspirations, but the fact which still remains is that Serbia has never recognized the abovementioned agreement concluded by the Allies. The KS Government made a note of protest to the Entente Allies on 9 May 1915, which had strong positive effect, both among Serbs, Croats and Slovenes in emigration and the ones living in Dalmatia. The abovementioned article written by Dr Reiss was his contribution to spreading of truth and justice by means of informing the world about the real and objective situation in a part of territory which was at that moment under the reign of Austro-Hungary and which was mostly populated by Serbs and Croats. Level of success of the joint action undertaken by the KS Government and Dr Reiss towards public opinion of the international community during “the challenging spring” – relating attitude of Italy and “the deceptive summer” – relating the attitude of Bulgaria in 1915, will be clear only after completion of the war and creation of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Spring of 1915 was extremely unfavourable for the Entente Allies because of breakthrough of the Russian front near Gorlice, failure of the Allies in Dardanelles operation and Italian offensive at the Soča. On 29 May 1915, the Allies, without the knowledge of Serbia, promised the Vardar Macedonia to Bulgaria in order to attract it to the Entente Agreement. Pašić decisively refused the agreement because he did not believe in honesty of Bulgarian King Ferdinand and his Government. Due to the above described situation, Regent Aleksandar informed Dr Reiss on 11 June 1915, about then the third offer of Austro-Hungary to make the separate peace with Serbia and, in return, to get Bosnia and Herzegovina and concessions in Albania. In spite of well-known attitude of the Entente Allies towards Serbia, it did not accept their separate peace conditions. Dr Reiss published this information in *Gazete de Lusanne* on 25 December 1915, when Serbia was already in a difficult position caused by united aggression performed by Germany, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. However, it is interesting that Dr Reiss published a telegram interview with Nikola Pašić about this topic on 24 July 1915, in *Le Petit Parisien*. It is obvious that the information published in July, particularly in France, was a kind of warning to the Allies to correct their attitude towards Serbia, and possible aim of the information published in December was to discredit Austro-Hungary with its Allies and to warn once again the Entente Allies who did not sufficiently help Serbia and its army in the difficult moments of its survival.

In August 1915, after the Entente Allies' crisis, they again offered the concessions promised in May to Bulgaria, with additional expansions by getting Aegean Macedonian, Thrace and Dobruja. In early September 1915, Serbia, under pressure and blackmailed from all sides and left without financial help of the Allies, reluctantly agreed to give up a part of its territory for which it would get the promised concessions on the Adriatic Sea and support of the Allies to the idea of unification of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes after completion of the war. However, Bulgaria signed an agreement with the Central Powers on 5 September 1915, and

²² Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji, op.cit., Dalmatinsko pitanje [The Dalmatian Issue]*, p.71-75

on 22 September it announced mobilization of its army. Dr Reiss used his absence from the front in Serbia, which was activated with full force from 6 October due to the Central Powers attack, to join all the patriotic forces in the world in their protest against their own governments because of leaving the Serbian people and Army at the mercy of brutal aggressor.²³ The content of his articles published in November and December 1915, in *Gazete de Lusanne* was about that matter. Seriousness of the abovementioned protests was confirmed by fall of the President Vivian's Government, as well as by certain changes in the commands of the armed forces of Russia and Great Britain. In spite of the abovementioned changes, the conference of the Allied HQ representatives from 5 to 7 December 1915, proved that there were no serious changes in the Allies' attitude towards the Balkan battlefield. It was only after separated conferences of French and English representatives on 9 December 1915, and 21 January 1916, that the decision on stay of the Entente forces in Greece was made. Loose unity of the Allies in the first months of 1916 was used by German propaganda which printed and spread a brochure titled *Historic Truths, According to French Historic Documents*.²⁴ Dr Reiss revealed and made public condemnation of France at the expense of English in the brochure, thus giving his modest contribution to opposing the enemy propaganda. History will remember the strong protest of patriotic forces together with Dr Reiss, directed towards the hesitant representatives of the state administrations they had given the mandate in the elections, as well as the effect of influence upon public opinion in the process of decision making. Thanks to the Allies' decisions from that period and in spite of extremely dishonourable attitude of Italy, the Serbian Army was saved and moved to Corfu. The Allies fortified their positions in Salonika and the preconditions for the Salonika front forming were created.

In his article published on 19 January 1916, Dr Reiss made comments on behaviour of Montenegro, the agreement its representatives had signed with Serbian representatives in Luzern in October 1912, as well as its capitulation under strong assault of Austro-Hungarian Army. In his very short article he was trying to understand the differences in the attitudes of the two peoples with obviously common roots, but also two royal dynasties with different ideas of system of the state after the war completion, with different attitudes towards the Entente Allies, especially the new ally - Italy. He also mentioned the always present bureaucratic procedures between these two countries, saying that more documents were needed for travelling from Serbia to Montenegro than from Switzerland to Serbia. Reaction of this great friend of Serbs was quite understandable, but we must not forget that brave behaviour of Montenegrin Army stopped the 3rd Austro-Hungarian Army sent by General Conrad von Hezendorf to Montenegro and Sandzak in late November 1915, with the aim to cut off the retreat of the Serbian Army. Germany did not approve the General's decision.

In January 1916, Dr Reiss was fighting in Switzerland against the propagandists from Austro-Hungary and Germany who were striving to finish off the Serbian Army, trying to underestimate its successes during the first war year. Having in mind the fact that he always appeared in public with proven arguments, there is an impression that he did accomplish the expected effect among that time readers. It is important to emphasize here, besides spreading of truth about the situation on occupied Serbia, his activities on organizing and forming of the Committee for Help to the Serbian People in occupied Serbia, especially to the Serbian orphans. He initiated collecting of money for buying food and clothes, as well as a separate fund which was used for financing the expenses of Switzerland families who accepted Serbian children²⁵ who lost their parents during the war.

23 "Sufferings of Serbs caused exasperation of the press and public opinion in the Allied countries against their own ruling structures because of their negligence towards their brave ally", Petar Opačić, *Srbija i solunski front [Serbia and Salonika front]*, Književne novine, Belgrade, 1984, p. 23

24 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji, op.cit.*, p.194

25 During three war years around 100 children war orphans were accommodated in Switzerland; the

During his stay in Switzerland Dr Reiss was carefully following the destiny of the Serbian people and their Army. Learning about obviously inhumane behaviour of Italians in the port of Valona after coming of the first Serbian units which had crossed Albania, he published the article *Italy and Serbia*.²⁶ Hoping that his article would have the desired effect, primarily directed towards Italian political and military leadership, he stressed up the fact that Serbs were not Italo-phobic people and that their wish to unite Serbs, Croats and Slovenes into one state was not to be understood in that sense. He concluded that the Italian were not to be Serbo-phobic, hoping that the tragedy on the coasts of Albania would be solved as soon as possible. With similar intentions was his article *Serbs and Albanians*²⁷ where with arguments, especially referring to the statements given by the Prime Minister Nikola Pašić, he tried to explain to the Albanian people that Serbia was not against the existence of independent Albania. Serbia wanted to cooperate with Albania which would be ruled by its representatives, for example Esad Pasha, but not by the imported princes like the Prince Vid and his associates. The achieved effects of his texts published in this period of time cannot be measured and defined, but if he managed to influence upon at least one Italian sailor or Albanian citizen to help a Serbian soldier in his struggle for survival that would be success worth of attention.

In April 1916, Dr Reiss intended to publish the brochure titled *The Way in Which Austro-Hungarians Conducted the War in Serbia* in Switzerland. Unfortunately, he himself said that it was intolerable for his democratic and neutral Switzerland to censure the brochure. At the same time, Switzerland authorities did not censure the brochure published by Austro-Hungarians under the title *Collection of the Testimonies on the Cases of Violation of Human Rights Committed by Some States in the War against Austro-Hungary*. As the war progressed, Dr Reiss's prognoses that it would be very difficult for Switzerland to stay completely neutral were confirmed, due to the fact that certain people from the state political and military leadership were proclivities of Germany and Austro-Hungary. Similar situation was the reason why Dr Reiss left Switzerland counter-intelligence structures after his initial engagement in 1914, and devoted his attention to his engagement in the Kingdom of Serbia.

Reorganized Serbian Army was transferred from Corfu to Salonika from April to July 1916, and Salonika front was already formed in August of the same year. On 12 September 1916, Regent Aleksandar himself fired an artillery projectile which hinted the end of the Central Powers on the Balkan front as well as victorious coming back of the Army to the homeland. It was in a way a signal for return of Dr Reiss among Serbs. In late October 1916, Dr Reiss joined the 3rd Army Staff, but during the combat activities he also visited other units of Serbian, French and Russian Armies. In the period from 24 October to 19 November 1916, when Eastern Army conquered Bitola, Dr Reiss concentrated on interrogation of war prisoners, Bulgarian and German soldiers. The data he gathered were very important for the Allied forces on Salonika front, and all his police capabilities and knowledge in the field of counter-intelligence activities were proved in the best possible way. Dr Reiss's activities in the beginning of 1917 were directed to recording and documenting of the cases of war customs violations because of criminal shelling and systematic destruction of the open town Bitola, as well as to investigation of position of the civilians on the territories under Bulgarian occupation. Besides the already mentioned, three articles²⁸ written by Dr Reiss in early 1917 were interesting because he described the attitude of the Entente Allies. In these articles he

activities were organized by the Committee in Vaud canton founded by Dr Archibald Reiss. He was awarded Medal of Bravery for everything he did for Serbian people.

26 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji*, op.cit., p.183

27 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji*, op.cit., p.188

28 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji*, op.cit., (*The End of the Year on the East Front on 23 January 1917.*, *Italian-Serbian Cooperation*, 27 January 1917 and *What Have Been Done and What Is To Be Done*, 10 March 1917)

warned the Allies about hostile attitude of Greece which was to be solved urgently; he described the meeting of Serbian and Italian soldiers on the front hoping that Italy would send the demanded reinforcement; in the last one he emphasized the attitude of General Sarrail towards the politicians saying that – *they should let the guns speak, and the words should be left to diplomats for their post-war activities and peace conferences*²⁹. Unfortunately, the Allies were extremely disunited during 1917; the Salonika front was treated as defensive-bounding, the authorities of General Sarrail were limited. That is why Dr Reiss's texts published in European newspapers were not seriously supported by the decision makers, not even about the problem of destroying of Bitola. The only positive change in relation to Serbia and Serbian issue could be seen among Britons in June 1917, in memorandum sent to Prime Minister Lloyd George by Philip Kerr.³⁰

The text published by Dr Reiss on 2 June 1917, on the eve of the "Salonika Process" completion deserved attention for several reasons. In the beginning, he did not want to make comments on the process because the majority understood it as a conflict in struggle for dominance among the ruling political parties. He considered it to be an unfortunate affair, taking place in wrong time and at wrong place.³¹ He was neutral because he knew Regent Aleksandar very well, but he knew Colonel Dragutin Dimitrijević-Apis as well. Knowing very well the persons from the state and military leadership of Serbia, he probably knew the reasons for transfer of Colonel Apis from the position of the SC Intelligence Department Head to the duty of Head of Užice Army Staff and then of the 3rd Army. It is even more possible that he knew about the destiny of former diplomat Miloš Bogičević, who deserted diplomatic service in Cairo in August 1914.³² After that, Bogičević (a good friend of Colonel Apis) declared as commissioner of German intelligence service.³³ Dr Reiss did the best possible he could at that moment and, instead of the "Salonika Process", presented the public abroad with the work and character of an officer especially appreciated and respected by the Serbian Army – Voivoda Živojin Mišić. Soon after that he informed the public about the qualities and capabilities of Voivoda Stepa Stepanović.

It was obvious that Dr Reiss gained enormous trust of the top state and military leadership, having in mind the fact that he was closely cooperating with the SC Intelligence Department of Serbian Army. Dr Reiss's texts about Serbian specialists - Chetniks, the visits he paid to their formations on the first line of the front, as well as his presence at the funeral of one of the bravest among them, Voivoda Vuk, support the fact that he respected them and appreciated their bravery. Since he had a lot of experience in the field of counter-intelligence activities, he contributed a lot to training of the abovementioned formations of Serbian Army for performing of the activities. He was soon engaged by France and Great Britain which wanted him to provide his expert help to their counter-intelligence officers as well. Slightly unnoticed and insufficiently investigated was the success of Serbian counter-intelligence officers, who had been instructed and supported by Dr Reiss in unmasking the spy role of Greek Queen Sophia who was the sister of German Emperor Wilhelm II. Among others, this connection was the main reason for Greece neutrality in the period from the beginning of the war until 30 May 1917. Aware of the fact that Salonika became the centre of spy activities in the period of Greece neutrality, the Serbian Supreme Command formed a special unit whose task was to

29 Reiss, A: *Ratni izveštaji*, op.cit., p.270

30 Opačić, P, op.cit., pp. 50 - 51

31 Reiss, A: *Šta sam video*, op.cit., p 320

32 Mijalkovski M, Tomić Đ, Antić Z, Pesić Z, *Obaveštajna služba Kraljevine Srbije u Velikom ratu (1914-1918)[Intelligence Service of the Kingdom of Serbia in the Great War (1914-1918)]*, Medija Centar "Odbrana", 2015, p.53

33 In August 1914 Dr Archibald Reiss was, as a counter-intelligence officer, especially following activities of German and Austro-Hungarian spies in Switzerland which was as a neutral country centre of spy activities.

stop these activities. A special detachment consisting of about 200 specialists-Chetniks³⁴ was dealing with capturing of the spies and enemy soldiers within the frontage, in own rear parts as well as in the enemy combat disposition. Serbian counter-intelligence officers captured the courier who was transferring confidential information provided by Queen Sophia to German Staff in Macedonia. Information about spy activities of Queen Sophia was given to General Sarraill, Commander in Chief at Salonika front. Greek King Constantine I, who was from the very beginning of 1917 in intensive conflict with the Prime Minister Venizelos and his supporters gathered in the "National Army", could do nothing but abdicate and cede the throne to his son Alexander I. Greece was no longer neutral and it joined the Entente Allies.

In response to fierce Bulgarian propaganda in spring and summer 1917, directed towards the Serbian Army, in which the attitude of the Allies towards Salonika front caused morale decline, Dr Reiss applied contra-propaganda, describing in several texts bad morale condition among Bulgarian soldiers, losing of their faith in victory and Allies, as well as more and more present desire to withdraw from the war. The text directed against *The May Declaration*³⁵ announced in Austro-Hungarian parliament was with the similar aim. These texts additionally worsen the state of the already existing distrust among the Allies of the Central Powers but, as far as patriotic forces of Entente Allies were concerned, they generated the feeling that defeat of German-Austro-Hungarian-Bulgarian coalition was to happen soon. Besides his struggle against the Bulgarian propaganda, Dr Reiss reduced the tensions among the Entente Allies by keeping maximally objective and realistic approach in his texts. He alleviated the critics given by General Duchêne about the Serbian Army because of Lebuk's offensive failure in May 1917, and, on the other side, he defended General Sarraill because it was obvious that he did his maximum, knowing the strategic situation and limitations which obviously did exist in the chain of command and leadership.³⁶

When Dr Reiss came to Serbia for the first time, he went to Topola where he met King Petar I who had spent a long period of his life in Geneva, and after that he also met Regent Aleksandar in Valjevo. A short conversation between the King and Dr Reiss on attempt of spying by a Prussian officer in 1870 while King Petar I was talking to French General Billot and unmasking of the spy proved the hosts were really familiar with the capabilities of their guest. It is a well-known fact that before coming to Serbia Dr Reiss was engaged on the counter-intelligence activities in Switzerland Army, because large number of spies from different countries were concentrated in then neutral Switzerland. Beside Belgium King Albert I,³⁷ King Petar I and Regent Aleksandar were the only sovereigns who shared the same destiny with their soldiers during war. That was really appreciated by Dr Reiss and that is why he was ready to help them. It is important to emphasize that, during the last phase of his activities in the Great War, he contacted several times with Regent Aleksandar in Salonika and at his command post on the front. During one of his visits there he also visited the commander of Russian Brigade Leontiev and tried to hear his opinion on the revolution in Russia.

In January 1918, he attended muster of the volunteers when Vardarska division was transformed into Yugoslav division. "Fresh blood" arrived and it was possible to initiate breakthrough of the front and return to the homeland. Dr Reiss was in "his"³⁸ Morava division from April 1918. The artillery preparation began in the morning of 14 September 1918, and

34 Petković, V.M. *op.cit.*, p. 529

35 Members of Yugoslav Minister Club in Austro-Hungarian Parliament published a statement on 30 May 1917 in which they demanded reorganization of Austro-Hungary, forming of a separated Yugoslav state unit within the Monarchy.

36 Reiss, A: *Šta sam video*, *op.cit.*, pp. 273 and 318-321

37 Reiss, A: *ibid.* p. 38.

38 In his book *Šta sam video*, *op.cit.*, p.279, Dr Reiss stressed up that he considered the Morava division as his division and he developed very strong feeling of belonging to the unit.

penetration of the Allies' infantry began the following day. The front was broken, and Dr Reiss followed the activities of the Allied forces. That was the period in which he concentrated his activities on the investigation of the war prisoners, on gathering of the intelligence information useful for further advance of the Allies and on talks to the civilians in order to collect the information on war crimes and destructions committed by Bulgarian and German armed forces in particular. Thanks to Dr Reiss, the crimes committed by the Central Powers' soldiers in the final part of the war were recorded, documented and presented to the European public. His reports sent to the press, in the same way as all others, had to be approved by the authorized military agencies and then sent to Switzerland via Salonika. Due to the rate of the attack, the Entente Allies were moving away from Salonika and in accordance with that, there were fewer articles in the press.³⁹

CONCLUSION

Opposing to non-military challenges, risks and threats to the security of the Kingdom of Serbia before and during the Great War demanded the adequate measures to be taken by its state and military leadership. It was necessary to inform the public, especially the international one, to provide information support of political, diplomatic and military actions, to conduct one's own and oppose the enemy psychological-propaganda activities and to undertake the measures for protection of leaking the information which could provide the enemy's advantage over one's own forces. The decision makers in Serbia launched the information operation on the level of Government institutions and Army. The culmination of skill in this activity was relying on the state intellectual elite as well as on the friends abroad. Engaging of one of the three most famous criminologists from the beginning of 20th century who respected truth, justice and freedom, who was devoted to his work and in love with photography, proved to be one of the wisest decisions made by the Serbian leadership. The opinions and attitudes of Dr Archibald Reiss in the field of criminology, forensic photography and judiciary medicine were extremely appreciated and believed to. His approach to cognitive dimension to information environment was open with his "seal" and signatures under the articles, brochures and books he wrote during his short but fruitful life. Due to his being a top professional who turned practice into theory and reverse, all the doors were open to him among statesmen, politicians, military leaders and others, in both Entente members and neutral countries. Dr Reiss made possible for Serbia to make the world hear its voice and see its sufferings and victims further than anyone could even imagine since then. It is obvious, even after partial insight into his engagement, published articles, brochures and books, that he managed to exert influence upon wide public opinion and shape their perception in positive direction when truth and justice which was with the freedom-loving Serbian people were concerned. The achieved influence upon the decision makers in the Central Powers could also be seen and it was one of the aims of the operation. Sharing good and evil with the Serbian people and Army during the Great War formed mutual feelings of trust and respect. That is why the influence of Dr Reiss was so important for preserving the power and spirit of the Serbian Army relating the challenges such as "Salonika Process" and desertions from the Salonika front. By his activities during the war and personal participation in the peace conference in Paris, Dr Archibald Reiss contributed to accomplishment of the war goal – forming of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

³⁹ In the publication *Austro-bugaro-nemačke povrede ratnih zakona i pravila: dopisi jednog praktičara kriminalistike sa srpsko-mačedonskog fronta* [*Austro-Bulgarian-German violations of the war laws and rules: reports of a criminology practitioner from Serbian-Macedonian front*], Corfu, 1918, Dr Reiss informed the international public about violation of war customs and law of war.

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CONSEQUENCES OF USE MINE-EXPLOSIVE DEVICES IN ACTS OF TERRORISM

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Socrates: *“Source of all evil is ignorance.”*

Abstract: Terrorism as a complex form of political violence, in fact “social plague” of the 21st century, that does not choose the means to achieve their goals. Still, abundant funds, which are used by terrorists in the realization of their actions, certain prevalence have mine-explosive devices. Theme of work has in essence a descriptive presentation of these funds, their purpose, characteristics, but the main focus of the paper on the consequences following the use of mine-explosive devices by terrorist groups and/or organizations (direct and indirect). During the preparation work has been used as domestic and foreign literature, several types of theorists (political, legal, military and sociological). The work is a sublimation of theoretical provisions and practical experience of the author when working with mine-explosive devices, as well as the consequences of the use of these funds by terrorists. The consequences of the use of mine-explosive devices by terrorists were analyzed through the prism of the entire society of a country, but through the prism of innocent victims - social nobodies. We learned that can be implemented in a specific type of preventive measures against mine-explosive devices, all in order to boost safety awareness among the people.

Keywords: globalization, terrorism, terrorists, mine-explosive devices, consequences

INTRODUCTION

Globalism is an ideology, globalization is a process based on this ideology, and “new world order” system that is based on them. It occurs as a product of neoliberalism, a new socio-political system of countries, primarily the US and Western Europe.² Neoliberalism, according to Zbigniew Brzezinski, is based on a new revolution, technotonic revolution. Technotronic was coined from two words technology and electronics, which actually constitute the essence underlying the entire forces of neoliberalism. Like any revolution, technotonic revolution has brought some benefit in terms of life and work, but brought a new culture, value system and certainly a new division of labor. It is important to emphasize the fact that more space becomes less central to the progress of society, but also the position taken by: time and knowledge.

Globalization has brought new challenges, risks and threats to the security of not only the state but also of humanity as a whole. After evaluating many theorists security and globalization (Held, Kennedy, Giddens, Milasinovic, Pecujlic, Stojanovic) based on the factors of security in the 21st century there are:

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² Simeunović, D., 2010, *Nacija i globalizacija*, Niš, Zograf

- socio-economic factors,
- economic inequality and asymmetries of life chances,
- limited economic resources,
- population explosion,
- global culture,
- organized crime and criminality,
- military factors,
- total assets of warfare and the militarization of the cosmos,
- engineering conflicts and military interventionism,
- environmental factors,
- technical - technological disasters,
- lack of healthy food and drinking water,
- extremism (national, religious and ethnic),
- expansionism supranational security agencies and
- terrorism.

The paper deals with the phenomenon of terrorism as the greatest “social plague” of the 21st century, where authors pay special attention to one of the types of funds for the implementation of terrorist actions, and they are mine-explosive devices, and the consequences of their use in terrorist actions. Specifying the work is based on themes that, from 11/09/2001, occupied the entire world. Since mankind, because of fear, became in some way obsessed with terrorism by the fact that the measures, activities, actions, processes, strategy and doctrine for combating terrorism became a starting point for action on foreign policy of many countries, especially those most economically developed. The fight against terrorism became the immediate cause for the majority of military intervention in the first decade of the 21st century.

The work is divided into three sections that give a unique image in terms of knowledge of mine-explosive devices means and consequences of their use by terrorists. In the first part of the focus is placed on basic theoretical provisions related to terrorism. The second part provides a brief historical time machine regarding the genesis of the evolution and use of mine-explosive devices, as well as the problems that accompany their use in modern times. The third part is entirely dedicated to reviewing the consequences of the use of mine-explosive devices by means of terrorist organizations.

TERM AND USE MINE-EXPLOSIVE DEVICES

Mine-explosive devices include the entire military equipment containing explosives, nuclear fusion and fission, as well as biological and chemical agents. The term mine-explosive devices includes the following resources:

- bombs and warheads,
- guided and ballistic missiles,
- artillery and mortar shells, rockets and small arms,
- all mines,
- torpedoes and underwater missiles,
- pyrotechnics,
- cluster bombs,

- launching mechanisms,
- charging and resources to initiate rocket fuel,
- electric initiating explosive materials,
- illicit and improvised explosive devices and
- all other items or components which are by nature explosive.³

Mine-explosive devices have a very long history of use in armed conflict. Thanks to its basic characteristics, the explosive effects and the effect that has on opponents, the use of mine-explosive devices throughout the history of warfare have been constantly increasing. With every new armed conflict in the world of mine-explosive devices have been improving, with the result that in the world today we have a number of different mine-explosive devices.

The history of development and improvement of weapons and military equipment, but also the progress of science (the ratio of weapons and military equipment-science is bidirectional and causal), recorded the following characteristic dates for the development of mine-explosive devices:

- 1190 BC - Trojan troops have used incendiary devices against the Greek Navy.
- 500 – 470 BC - The tactics of Chinese people Fau Li Jena describes the use of stone balls and incendiary balls during the siege of towns.
- 160 – 122 BC - The Chinese have found black powder, mixture composition: 76.2% of potassium nitrate, 15.4% of charcoal and 8.4% sulfur.
- 222 - The Romans began to use in naval battles, made of a flammable mixture of limestone and asphalt which is burned in contact with water.
- In the middle of the 7th century Greek Callinicos has perfected the Roman flammable mixture and found “Greek fire”, which consists of oil, sulfur, tar, and lime.
- 1073 - during the siege of Belgrade, black powder was used for the first time in Europe. The siege and capture of a town was carried out by the Hungarians.
- 1250 - monk R. Bacon makes a black powder, with the following composition: 41.2% of potassium nitrate, 29.4% sulfur and 19.4% of charcoal.
- 1326 - in Venice metal guns are made that could shoot cannonballs pressure gases produced by burning gunpowder.
- 1627 - K. Wiendl first used black powder for mining ore
- 1654 - J.R. Claubert found the ammonium nitrate (which is used as an oxidizer in commercial explosives).
- At the end of the 17th century - J. Lowestern found the mercury fulminate.
- 1780 - CL Berthollet found potassium chlorate.
- In 1845 - discovered nitrocellulose, A. Sobrero found nitroglycerine.
- 1853 - Austrians replaced black powder nitrocellulose gunpowder that put in the batteries of cannons.
- 1867 - the Swedish mining engineer, Alfred Bernhard Nobel found dynamite.
- In 1873 - was found plastic explosives (mixture of nitrocellulose and nitroglycerin).
- 1884 - was found dibasic gunpowder.
- 1870 - French chemist Eugene de Turpin finds trinitrotoluen (trotil or TNT) explosive detonations whose strength is taken as the standard for all other explosives.
- 1891 - T. Curtis found the lead acid.

³ Radić, N. V., 2001, *Minsko ratovanje*, Beograd, Vojnoizdavački zavod

- In 1894 - Prepared PETN.
- In 1944 - has started production of cast double base propellant to propel missiles.⁴

The most massive development of new mine-explosive devices of all types, was during Second World War, which resulted in a large number of deaths and injuries, as members of the armed forces and the civilian population, but regardless of this fact during, and in local armed conflicts since the Second World War, development of new types of mine-explosive devices in the world is not stopped, but on the contrary rapidly continued.

In order to obtain images of the dangers of mine-explosive devices in the world, an international organization for the implementation and monitoring of demining in the world has drawn up a report on mine clearance. The report said indicators dangers of mine-explosive devices and what has been undertaken on the issue of demining in the world, of which the issue of eliminating the threat of mines emphasize the following facts.

- In 2009, a total of 3,956 new victims of mine incidents, which is 28% less than in 2008, and at least since 1999 or since the start of monitoring (because of incomplete data, it is assumed that the number of victims higher than the results shown).
- 66 countries and 7 areas of the world have been confirmed and/or suspected of having a problem with dangerous territory, which is less by three countries since last year.
- In 2009 198 km dangerous territory were demined, which is by far the most of cleared areas on an annual basis, during which he removed a total of 255,000 pieces of anti-personnel mines and 37,000 pieces of anti-tank mines.
- Clearance of at least 359 /km/ areas where they waged an armed struggle and removed some 2.2 million parts mines.
- Most demining projects conducted in Afghanistan, Cambodia, Iraq, Croatia and Sri Lanka, which makes up more than 80% of demining projects.
- Mine Risk Education continued to be implemented in many countries and areas that have problems with mine danger.
- Donors were submitted in 2009 about 449 million US dollars for demining, of which Germany submitted about 61% of the above.
- Only one country in the world is raising anti-personnel mines (Myanmar).
- We identified 12 manufacturers of anti-personnel mines, most notably in India, Myanmar and Pakistan.
- Antipersonnel mines were used by non-state armed groups in six countries - Afghanistan, Colombia, India, Myanmar, Pakistan and Yemen. It is so far the smallest number of armed forces or armed groups that used antipersonnel mines.

Also, statistics indicate the following:

- to set up a mine it is necessary from 3 to 30 US dollars, while the cost of removal of 300 to 1000 US dollars,
- in the world every 50 /min/ new mine accidents happen,
- every month killed about 800 people, 1200 people are injured by the same 300 thousand people were disabled due to mine accidents.

Overview of countries that have problems with mines and cluster munitions, and many different types of mine-explosive devices is shown in Figure 1.

⁴ Kovačević, N., 2015, Preventivne mere za bezbedan rad sa minama u multinacionalnim operacijama, *Vojnotehnički glasnik*, 63/4, pp 195-196



Figure 1: World countries, with the threat of mine-explosive devices (marked in red)⁵

Global development and progress of mankind, based on the strong base of society (the development of productive forces and relations of production), or based on the momentum of progress - technotronic revolution, which in turn, is based primarily on the advancement of science and scientific thought, had the consequence that the people in the somehow close? (nejasno). In an earlier presentation, we concluded that the space is no longer an obstacle for people, or through mass media people from different corners of the planet can be a very simple way to be informed about all important events in the world. What is an advantage, is also a disadvantage, because thus, it is easier to manipulate people. Famous american linguist and scholar, Noam Chomsky, in his works, makes a bold claim to CNN for its importance or significance of information placed, should become the seventh permanent Security Council member.

Anti-terrorist measures in many countries include management and control of the mass media (which are primarily made in order to minimize the decrease of spectacle and terrorist activities). Consequently, the terrorists have had to resort to means which will achieve great effects (by the number of killed and wounded victims and/or destroyed or partially damaged), or they had to find the means to which the media will not remain immune, but will have to report about and, consequently, will not be able to hide the vulnerability of the security system certain countries (attacks in France in 2015, best demonstrated and proved the vulnerability of the French intelligence-security system).

Ideal means to carry out such actions is the application of mine-explosive devices, because the characteristics of these resources, in terms of their potential impact expressed through the (destructive), acoustic and thermal performance, and what impression it leaves on the effect of each person is fully compliant the terrorists. We say every man, because no one is immune when you see, for example, mutilated and/or mutilated bodies of children and people, destroyed buildings, destroyed cars and the like. On the other hand, these images or reports that on the same real television stations or amateur recordings of events that occur on a global computer network (often the authors of the images themselves are the perpetrators of action), provide high ratings and increased sales of newspaper magazines. The media are simply competing who would rather report on the events of this type and therefore the mass media unconsciously give full attention to terrorist organizations and help them "free exercise" and publicly state their goals.

⁵ Landmine Monitor, 2010, *The International Campaign to Ban Landmines*, Kanada

CONSEQUENCES OF USE MINE-EXPLOSIVE DEVICES BY TERRORIST ORGANIZATIONS

If we make analysis of realization of terrorist actions in terms of the target, we will come to the conclusion that most of the attention of terrorists in the implementation of actions directed to those actions that cause large numbers of casualties and actions where the victims were prominent figures. This is especially pronounced among suicide bombers, where we have a situation where the perpetrator of the action choose the place and in a straightforward way, the number of victims who want to kill or hurt you.

A particular reason for the use of mine-explosive devices with terrorists is the fact that with the help of modern lighter, the explosive can be activated at a precise place and time, and what is most important from a safe distance. This means that the number of those killed or injured only depends on the subjective assessment of the terrorists, that is, if for example there are not enough people in a certain place, which would have been killed and/or injured as a result of the fact mine-explosive devices, terrorists may postpone action for "suitable" moment, when you can achieve the desired effect.

A factor that helped the terrorists usually opt for mine-explosive devices is that, you do not have to maintain special plans, and this represents a saving in the financial segment of realization of attack, hauling and hiding the perpetrator of the action - if the perpetrator bomber suicide.

The consequences of the use of mine-explosive devices may be reflected in more elements, but in modern literature we prevalence of two elements, which actually represent the essence in terms of evaluating the success of a terrorist action, such as:

1. the effect of the mine-explosive devices in material terms

The effect of the mine-explosive devices in material terms we are divided into two major groups:

- direct (immediate) effects and
- indirect (indirect) effects.

Direct (direct) effect of the mine-explosive devices in material terms is achieved through the creation of shock and heat wave blast, that in front of you is no different material objects, flora, fauna or humans. All that was found in front of the ripple explosion was blown off (broken, torn, etc.), burned or melted. As a result, most often, we have a large number of completely destroyed or partially damaged material objects and vehicles. One, unfortunately, many examples to show the direct effect of the mine-explosive devices in the material terms, in March 2014? (nejasno). Figure 2 shows the effects of the use of mine-explosive devices in New York, Manhattan, corner of 116th Street and Park Avenue. The total damage (refers not only to the direct target of attack, but also damaged buildings in the immediate vicinity of the target) is estimated to several million dollars. The painting was created after more than 20 hours from the execution of the attack, we can only imagine what the effect has had an explosion on the residents of the neighborhood.



Figure 2: *The effect of the mine-explosive devices at facilities in New York*⁶

Figure 3 shows the effects of the use of mine-explosive devices to facilities and resources that are not a direct target of an attack, but in the immediate vicinity of the target. This is another reason why the terrorist organizations most often decide to use mine-explosive devices, they are aware of all the possibilities of these funds, as technical and technological advantages and side effects after use.



Figure 3: *The effect of the mine-explosive devices to the facilities and resources*⁷

Indirect (indirect) effects of the use of mine-explosive devices in the material terms manifested in the fact that if one territory or state was exposed to terrorist actions repeatedly, it becomes in a certain way a potential focus of the new shares and as such it is not safe for the life and work of the people, that is not secure, both for locals and for people coming from other regions or areas of the world. A classic example is Turkey, and its tourist destinations and centers, which are especially in the first half of the first decade of the 21st century were exposed to a terrorist organization (Kurdistan Workers' Party - PKK), which has resulted in enormous losses for Turkish tourism and catering, or Turkish economy as a whole. After these attacks, Turkey was forced to lower prices of holiday packages to reach any kind of revenues from tourism.

As a second example is the Russian Federation; one of the consequences of the war in Chechnya is the creation and development of Chechen Islamic terrorist organizations, whose goals are not only military and civilian facilities in the Russian Federation, but the branches of these organizations to call their "brothers in faith" carry out actions across the globe. In

⁶ <http://www.globalterrorism.com>

⁷ Ibidem.

particular, the Russian Federation, from June 2000 until December 2013, suicide bombers, according to official figures, have killed 372 and wounded more difficult or easier about 600 people. For the majority of terrorist actions responsibility is taken Chechen rebel leader, Doku Umarov. Attacks in late December 2013, in Volgogradu, two women suicide bombers detonated landmines in the trolley or to the railway station, and on that occasion, according to official figures, have killed 36, weight 8, and lightly injuring about 100 people. The attacks were carried out in the span of twenty hours, and the real target of the attack was to prevent the maintenance of the Winter Olympic Games 2014 in Sochi. Maximum involvement of Russian security structures, the games are held during their maintenance there were no incidents.

2. the effect of the mine-explosive devices in psychological terms

The consequences of the effects of effects of mine-explosive devices in a psychological sense, we can also be divided into two major groups:

- direct (immediate) and
- indirect (indirect) effects.

Direct (immediate) consequence of setting up and activating mine-explosive devices in different places, the sense of insecurity that are generated in the population, that leads to the formation of fear and insecurity, which is one of the primary goals of any terrorist organization (causing fear and panic).

The product is the result of fear creating a sense of distrust in the state bodies or state government as a whole, which should be a key holder of the fight against all social phenomena and activities that violate the security of the state and all its citizens. The main reason for people opting to live in the community - the country is such that the community should offer safety and security of all its members. His "successful" actions by terrorists carried out a certain type of propaganda idea works. The terrorists their activities in the most brutal way show how ordinary people are the state government and its authorities are powerless against them.

The practice of true terrorism emerged from the anarchist ideology. The anarchists did not invent the idea of propaganda work, but they were very well aware of the fact that the masses should revive with example - flash explosion, not words. Creator of the modern method of political struggle in which the means of the offense carried a strong propaganda goals that actually want to achieve is considered Italian revolutionist Carlo Pizakane. Among the anarchists who were particularly aware of this fact stands out Johan Most (in particular was delighted with dynamite, as a means to achieve goals).

Most realized that the propaganda of the idea of work is done by relying on operators (carriers) action, but the technical means (it is of course reinforced the misleading to dispense with the support and participation of the masses in action). Most dynamite experiencing as follows: "...the dynamite is a big boon for the poor, because spread among robbers fear and horror. One pound of this matter is worth more than a thousand ballots ...The dynamite has more power to create law and justice ugnjetanij than there are forces in the law to kill or mitigate the spirit of unrest and rebellion." Since then the terrorists will strive technicization revolution and its other large projects often anxious at the same time that some miraculous means devastating compensate their numerical inferiority in relation to the authorities against whom they were fighting. As once dreamed of dynamite today serve profusely Internet, and fantasize about the atomic bomb in their hands.⁸

Frequent actions and take responsibility for them, some terrorist leaders receive attributes and epithets that with the story and retelling only increase and acquire the status "legends". Therefore, the terrorists get bigger foothold in the nation (regardless of whether it is positive or negative). The consequence of fear and panic that their actions caused the terror-

⁸ Simeunović, D., 2009, *Terorizam*, Beograd, Pravni fakultet

ists are and migration, that is, if the population is not safe in a particular territory it is much easier to measure decide to migrate. After that, the territory becomes ideal for settling sympathizers of certain terrorist organizations. A classic example is the migration of large numbers of people from the territory of Syria and Iraq, which are under siege from a special type of hand, the self-proclaimed terrorist formations - Countries of the Islamic Caliphate.

Indirect (indirect) consequences of the use of mine-explosive devices by terrorist organizations reflected the mental disorders that the population was close to the site of action, but also the population that exists in this area. Due to the loss of loved ones, most often in people born feeling of hatred toward the opposite side. Hatred, as a complex feeling which consists primarily of fear, again initiates the creation of a desire for revenge, as one of the primal instincts, and then awareness of injured people, which is clouded by feelings of hatred, can not accept any commonsense explanation. So, after each terrorist actions have more and more supporters of violent solving every problem, no matter whether the cause of religious or ethnic in nature.

In the modern age, we are all witnesses to the acts of terrorism and, in most, based precisely on religious and national motives. In the first decade of the 21st century, we see that, the championship on the territory of Iraq, Afghanistan, the Middle East, and the Russian Federation have a situation with increasing number of bombings and/or to using suicide bombers tend to achieve equilibrium in the number of victims, although to water, and only, increasing the total number of casualties on both, opposing, sides. Figures 4 and 5 are shown the consequences of terrorist actions the Boston Marathon since 15/04/2013, and on that occasion they killed three and wounded 176 people. In the photos we can see the reaction of people who were not directly injured by the effect of mine-explosive devices.



Figure 4: *The consequences of terrorist actions on the Boston Marathon*



Figure 5: *The consequences of terrorist actions on the Boston Marathon*

CONCLUSION

Having reached the unprecedented level of power using asymmetry in all domains, the US lured to themselves dislike those who feel that they are excluded from “new world order” and that American society and values it propagates held accountable for their anxiety, so that the opposition movements who consider themselves victims of globalization and liberal America as its originator, proliferated in recent decades. The escalation of terrorism as a possible major response to the growing power of the US and its allies is the likelihood, the evidence of the fact that in the future will count many innocent victims of terrorist violence. As a method of deterrence and protection only prediction can be used.

⁹ <http://www.globalterrorism.com>

¹⁰ Isto

The fight against terrorism is not easy to lead, but with timely taken preventive measures, such as its inclusion in the global flows of information and cooperation with organizations for many years lead this type of combat, it is possible to prevent and minimize the consequences of the effects of terrorist organizations, and in order to create preconditions for the realization of basic human rights for all members of society.

The ingenuity of terrorist organizations is to focus on the recruitment of suicide bombers, who consciously assume the role of "smart bombs" that are selected when and where they will perform activation of mine-explosive devices, they carry with them, thus causing maximum damage, during which they do not regret giving their life as a kind of confirmation of religious faith or purpose. The ingenuity of terrorists proved to be the case during the hijacking attacks on New York, the Pentagon and Pennsylvania. It should not be confounded with the mind the fact that this is the case with the largest number of victims, who unfortunately are not alone, because they sabotage the planes (during which almost always used mine-explosive devices) and hijackings in the last decade more accurately planned, in response to the increased control and security checks, which are airlines in cooperation with the security services have taken. It introduces measures to combat terrorism: a special kind of control on the airport terminals, special training for pilots in case of abduction, improving the protection of the cockpit, the introduction of undercover companion flights ("heavenly sky marshals"), the right crew to carry firearms during the summer, and the like.

Contemporary terrorism, and elected to take their victims mostly ordinary citizens, innocent civilians ("social anonymous"), which are devoid of the right to defence, totally unaware of what they are and why they happen. Precisely it concerns a large number of victims and asks, almost theoretical axiom - that terrorism is indestructible, that is incurable. Air conditions of general insecurity, show fear and panic in every society, slows down its development, the focus of his interest in themselves, hindering any progress and prosperity, to the extent that it depends on the intensity of terrorist activity, terrorism and forms of expression. As the global threat of terrorism, it requires a global response, or medicine - the involvement of all and everyone. Under present conditions, according to which, and with which the world works it would seem that contemporaries do not have under the current framework of their abilities enough strength the knowledge and willingness to tackle even on the margins of terrorism, with him as the problem. Daily attacks, kidnappings, blackmail... around the world prove it.

All the above mentioned problems need detailed and specific study and devotion each, individually, full attention in order to build our personal response, and building a knowledge that only safe and provides high-quality prevention of possible terrorist acts, directed toward our country and all its citizens, organizations and institutions. The wish of the author of the paper, primarily, was to provide a modest contribution, the development of security awareness among people towards prevention and protection of their own lives and the lives of their loved ones, because the one and only strong individual makes a strong community, and more broadly, and society as a whole.

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ECONOMICS OF POLITICAL VIOLENCE: THE ROLE OF ISLAMIC CHARITIES IN THE GLOBAL TERRORISM FINANCING

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Abstract: In this paper the author analyses one of the most important sources of the global terrorism financing – Islamic charitable organizations. The primary function of Islamic charities is to provide goods and services to Muslim communities in a manner deemed consistent with the teachings of Islam. However, the fact is that the majority of these charities have been used for decades as a central mechanism to divert significant funds from charitable donations and financial activities to fund terrorism. The issue of terrorism financing through the mechanism of Islamic charities is particularly grave because of the opacity of the sources and uses of funds by them. Donations in large measure remain anonymous and there is almost no oversight of them, primarily because they hide behind the fact that they are charities, and rely on the general lack of knowledge, particularly in the West, about the nature of Islamic financing structures, which together means that there is a general assumption that, being charities, they exist to do good works, rather than understanding that, more often than not, these good works are a mask for their other more nefarious activities regarding the financing and support of terrorist organizations. To a certain extent, the adaptability of terrorist organizations in exploiting charities has been encouraged by the inability of the United States, the European Union, and international financial institutions to adopt a common set of anti-terrorist polices, including similar regulatory frameworks, scope of groups targeted, and responses and penalties. The author concludes that, unless the common response to this issue is achieved at the global level, terrorists will continue to structure their financial support activities to exploit jurisdiction-specific advantages, such as the network of Gulf charities in the Middle East, weak financial regulation in the key states in Africa and Southeast Asia, and differences between the US and EU security policies.

Keywords: Islamic charities, Islamist terrorist organizations, terrorism financing, Saudi Arabia, counterterrorism.

INTRODUCTION

Global terrorism is one of the world's biggest political and social phenomena that has an immense impact on our society as a whole. There are many different characteristics of modern terrorism and many factors that influence it and which can be tackled to combat this disastrous form of political violence, one of the most important being the financial network that fuels terrorist organizations. In order to be sustainable, every terrorist group must necessarily be able to build and maintain an effective financial infrastructure to generate income, launder the proceeds and make them available for committing terrorist acts.

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Modern terrorist organizations vary widely, ranging from large, state-like organizations, such as Islamic state and Al-Qaeda, to small, decentralized and self-directed networks that are sometimes composed of only a couple of individuals inspired by radical ideology. Terrorists financing requirements reflect this diversity, varying greatly between organizations. However, what is certain is that no terrorist organization or a terrorist cell can function without a stable cash flow; financing is required to meet broad organizational costs of developing and maintaining a terrorist organization, to create an enabling environment necessary to sustain various organizations' activities, and, finally, to fund specific terrorist operations.

Financial networks of modern terrorist organizations are usually very wide and diverse. It should be emphasized that terrorist groups have shown great adaptability and opportunism in meeting their funding requirements. They have been raising funding from legitimate sources, including the abuse of charity organizations, legitimate businesses and self-financing by the terrorists themselves. At the same time, funding is derived from a variety of criminal activities ranging in scale and sophistication from low-level crime to organized fraud or narcotics smuggling, from state sponsors and activities in failed states and other safe havens.

Despite the concerted efforts of, especially Western, intelligence agencies, considerable mystery and intrigue cloaks the financing of contemporary terrorist organizations, especially those originating in the Middle East. However, what is known with a high degree of certainty is that most active terrorist groups have traditionally relied on Islamic charities for much of their funding. The crux of the matter in combating the exploitation of Islamic charities by terrorist organizations comes down to the fact that the act of charity forms a very important part of Muslim law and tradition. Charitable organizations are also attractive targets for terrorist organizations because of the reluctance on the part of many countries to rigorously scrutinize their activities. Often with limited information, authorities are put in the awkward position of being pressured to discern between legitimate charity organizations and activities, those organizations that are unknowingly used by terrorists to divert funds, and others deliberately engaged in supporting terrorist groups. Leaders of the latter organizations often raise funds both from individuals purposely seeking to fund terrorist groups as well as from contributors unwitting of the group's links to terrorists.²

THE PHENOMENON OF ISLAMIC CHARITIES

As already emphasized, charity forms a very important part of Muslim law and tradition. There is a recognized religious duty in the Islamic world to provide a set portion of one's earnings or assets for religious or charitable purposes (*Zakat*), and otherwise to support charitable works through voluntary deeds or contributions (*Sadaqah*). One of the most convenient ways to fulfil this religious obligation is by giving through Islamic charities "whose funds have been one of the most dominant aspects of Islamic economies".³ The primary function of Islamic charities is to provide basic goods and services to Muslim communities in a manner deemed consistent with the values and teachings of Islam. This includes medical services through local clinics and hospitals, schools, universities and colleges, orphanages, vocational training centres, subsidies for poor families, and other grassroots activities. Islamic charities also collect donations to help Muslims outside their own country and outside of countries with Muslim majorities.

2 Matthew A. Levitt, "The Political Economy of Middle East Terrorism", *Middle East Review of International Affairs* 6:4, December 2002, p. 54.

3 J. Millard Burr and Robert O. Collins, *Alms for Jihad: Charity and Terrorism in the Islamic World*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006, p. 23.

In countries having no established income tax system, such as Saudi Arabia or the United Arab Emirates, the Zakat substitutes as the principal source of funding for religious, social and humanitarian organizations. Funds are collected by the government, local mosques or religious centres. Sadaqah contributions are made directly to the established Islamic charities. Huge amounts of money are collected annually throughout the Muslim world with little demand for administrative transparency, which permits the distribution of significant funds without the need to create a large administrative infrastructure to decide how and where the money will be spent, or to whom it will be given. Charities are not pestered as they are in the West by tax collectors or internal revenue agents, and Muslim governments throughout the world have rarely interfered in the collection of charitable funds. Private and public donors are thus assured considerable confidentiality. Moreover, charitable institutions have traditionally been granted virtual economic autonomy after the funds have been received and in practice are free from government interference.⁴

CHARITY EXPLOITATION BY TERRORIST ORGANIZATIONS

Following the September 11 attacks, U.S. and allied counterterrorism agencies turned their scrutiny to Muslim charities – resulting in the eventual closures of several. For some of the reasons noted above, these have been difficult cases for the government. In large part problems stem from the fact that the Islamic charities fall into two categories: those that have had their funds unknowingly diverted and those that have been corrupted and act as fronts.⁵

In the last few decades Islamist terrorist organizations have penetrated a huge number of madrassas (Islamic schools), mosques, and NGOs engaged in Islamic education, promotion of human rights, and health and relief projects. These Islamic NGOs form a visible part of a much larger invisible network. There are four principal reasons for the terrorist infiltration into Muslim NGOs:

- One-fifth of all NGOs conducting humanitarian work worldwide are Islamic. Such charities have established an active presence in every country in the world with a sizeable Muslim population. In addition to providing excellent cover and global reach, Islamic NGOs enable terrorists to radicalize and mobilize Muslim communities to support their aims.

- These organizations receive and disburse several billion dollars per year. According to the U.S. Embassy in Riyadh, Saudi donations to Islamic NGOs for relief in Bosnia alone in 1994 amounted to 150 million dollars.

- Many Muslims make donations on the basis that their charity of choice is funding relief, education, health or development objectives. However, an unusually high proportion of Islamic NGOs include military aid as part of a humanitarian package. The CIA estimates that one-third support terrorist groups or employ individuals who are suspected of having terrorist connections.

- Neither the authorities nor donors are able to determine or control the ultimate beneficiaries of contributions, especially if they are overseas. For instance, Saudi Arabia monitors NGOs in the kingdom closely, but the ultimate destination of the funds they raised cannot be established by the local authorities alone. However, unless there is a direct and immediate threat to domestic stability or too important overseas relationships, governments are unlikely to develop a framework for closer monitoring.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 23–24.

⁵ See: Matthew A. Levitt, “The Political Economy of Middle East Terrorism”, *Middle East Review of International Affairs* 6, No. 4, pp. 49–65.

As already emphasized, donations given to Islamic charities have created problems for law enforcement in the war on terrorism because of the difficulty of determining whether money collected for a particular humanitarian cause is actually used for the originally specified purpose. Islamist terrorist organizations have taken full advantage of the lack of oversight to open their own front charities and to solicit funds through collection boxes at mosques and Islamic centres. They have also placed operatives in key positions within established charities that are able to do their bidding. Funds raised or allocated by or for terrorists are co-mingled, maintained and transferred with funds designated for legitimate relief and developmental activities. Their ultimate use to support terrorist activities can only become known when the money is transferred or diverted to specific terrorist groups-related recipients.

MIDDLE EASTERN STATES, ISLAMIC CHARITIES AND TERRORIST FUNDING – THE CASE OF SAUDI ARABIA

The reliance of Islamist terrorist organizations on charities to raise, mask, transfer and distribute the funds to fund terror, has been put under close scrutiny by counter-intelligence and enforcement agencies around the world after the infamous terrorist attacks in New York and Washington, and has been closely monitored since. According to the data assembled by counterterrorism officials, the majority of more than 50 most active international and local charities are, or were, associated with some of the major Islamic umbrella organizations headquartered in Saudi Arabia. These organizations have branches worldwide and are engaged in activities related to religious, educational, social and humanitarian programs. But they have also been used, knowingly or unwittingly, to assist in financing terrorist organizations. The list of Saudi sponsored Islamic charities associated with terrorist funding is quite a long one, but there are a few particularly influential organizations that have largely contributed to the spread of extremism worldwide, including the funding of the major Islamist terrorist groups.

One of the most influential Islamic charities in the world today is the Muslim World League. In 1962 the Saudi Royal family established the League in Mecca and provided it funds to support the propagation of Wahhabi Islam. The Muslim World League undertook a series of activities to fund institutions outside of Saudi Arabia, especially in Afghanistan, Pakistan, Southeast Asia and the Middle East. The organization also became active in Europe, countries of the former Soviet Union and North America. Saudi public and private support for these activities has been estimated at over \$75 billion during the last four decades.⁶ Many experts have drawn a link between this conversion effort and the rise in appeal of Al-Qaeda and other Islamist terrorist groups throughout the Muslim world.

The International Islamic Relief Organization is another influential Wahhabi sponsored charity. Established in 1978, it has branch offices throughout the world, including 36 in Africa, 24 in Asia, 10 in Europe and 10 in Latin America, the Caribbean and North America. The bulk of its financial contributions come from private donations in Saudi Arabia. This includes a long standing endowment fund established to generate a stable income to finance its various activities. The IIRO continues to be closely associated to the Muslim World League with which it participates in many joint activities. Many prominent Middle East figures and financiers have supported this mainstream Islamic charity. But the IIRO has also been used to channel funds to terrorist groups. According to a CIA report, funds raised through the International Islamic Relief Organization were used to support at least six Al-Qaeda training

⁶ David D. Aufhauser, Former U.S. Treasury Department General Counsel. "An assessment of Current Efforts to Combat Terrorism Financing", 20, Statement Before the Senate Committee on Governmental Affairs, June 15, 2004.

camps in Afghanistan prior to 9/11.⁷ Evidence produced in Canadian Court proceedings also linked the IIRO directly to groups responsible for the 1998 bombings of the American Embassies in Dar el Salaam and Nairobi.⁸ The former head of the IIRO office in the Philippines, Muhammad Jamal Khalifa, was also accused of links to Al-Qaeda and terrorist activities.⁹

Another Saudi umbrella charity organization that has served as an important funding source for Islamist terrorism is the Benevolence International Foundation. The Benevolence was established in the late 1980s as two separate organizations. One, the Islamic Benevolence Committee was established as a charity based in Peshawar, Pakistan and Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Its titular founder was Sheikh Adil Abdul Battarjee. Its sister organization, the Benevolence International Corporation was set up as an import-export business in the Philippines by Mohammed Jamal Khalifa, who also headed the Philippines IIRO office. Both organizations were engaged in raising funds to support the mujahedeen in Afghanistan. The two organizations appeared to work separately until the early 1990s. In 1992 they became the Benevolence International Foundation and opened new branches throughout Southeast Asia as well as in Europe and America.

The Al-Haramain Islamic Foundation, based in Jeddah, is also one of the Saudi Arabia's most active charities in spreading Islamic fundamentalism. Al-Haramain reportedly funded some 3000 Wahhabi missionaries and concentrated heavily in establishing new Wahhabi Mosques in Southeast Asia, the Balkans, and Africa. Since 9/11 Al-Haramain has come under close international scrutiny as a conduit for Al-Qaeda funding. According to its web site, Al-Haramain operates in some 49 countries. It raises some \$30 million per year drawing its funding largely from Saudi donors. Its founding general manager Sheikh Aqeel al-Aqeel maintained a close relationship with the Saudi Ministry of Islamic Affairs, and the Saudi government was considered one of its principal benefactors.

Past efforts to stem the flood of Saudi jihad money have mostly failed, perhaps because "even high ranking members of the collecting or monitoring agencies in Saudi Arabia ... are involved in illicit activities, including support for terrorists".¹⁰ There are a number of reasons because of which it is extremely difficult to tackle the issue of terrorism financing in Saudi Arabia. First of all, the fiscal structure of the kingdom makes it very difficult to monitor charitable organizations. In Saudi Arabia there is no tax system or internal revenue service, consequently no one is able to audit the accounts and keep track of monetary inflows and outflows. Although companies regularly pay *zakat*, the donation is not an official tax, but a voluntary payment for which records are not required. Another problem is the overall structure of Islamic banking system, which is the fact that most transactions are in cash. Although oil has brought immense wealth to countries like Saudi Arabia, the kingdom is still a tribal society with a strong cash culture.¹¹

Although, in response to U.S. pressure to regulate its charities, Saudi Arabia set up, together with the United States, the Joint Terror Financing Task Force, its results have been very limited. Based on the declared objectives of insuring transparency and regulating the activities of charities in the Kingdom, there is still a lot of work to do on the part of the Saudi officials. There have been some positive steps taken by the Saudis, but in the larger mix of things, the

7 This CIA report was released under a Freedom of Information request. Extracts from the text of the report are available online at <http://www.centerforsecuritypolicy.org/cia96charities.pdf>.

8 See: Minister of Citizenship and Immigration v. Mahmoud Jaballah, Federal Court of Canada, Docket DES-6-99, 2 November 1999.

9 See: Philippine Country Report, UN Security Council Resolution 1267 and 1455, Al Qaeda Sanctions Committee, October, 2004 S/AC.37/2003/(1455)/79 22 October 2003.

10 January 1996 CIA Report on "International Islamic NGOs" and links to terrorism. p. 4.

11 Loretta Napoleoni, *Terror Inc: Tracing the Money behind Global Terrorism*, London: Penguin books, 2004, p. 166.

Joint Task Force has been a relative failure. This is due in large part to the fact that, in order for the Joint Task Force to succeed, Saudi Arabia would have to effectively renounce its Wahhabi religious ideology. Its ideology drives its religious institutions, which in turn drive its funding of radical Islam. Outside of Saudi borders, throughout the Muslim world, as well as Western Europe and the United States, Wahhabi Saudi tracts and publications continue to be exported to mosques, Islamic centres and radical Islamic groups that operate under false veneer as “civil rights” and “charitable” organizations. Thus it can be concluded that, as long as the kingdom functions as an Islamic state based on an extremely strict Wahhabi ideology, little can be done to counter numerous channels of terrorist funding that exploit the political and legal system, based on religion. The line from Wahhabism to Jihadism/terrorism is a very thin one, and easily crossed religiously and intellectually.

COUNTERING TERROR CHARITY NETWORKS

As already noted, it is usually difficult to prove that a charity actually was founded with the intention of supporting terrorist groups, or that officials knowingly did so. As a result, counterterrorism officials are left virtually grasping at straws and seeking novel ways at overcoming the fungibility problem – halting the flow of money to the direct or indirect support of terrorist groups.¹² In part, the adaptability of terrorist organizations in exploiting charities has been encouraged by the inability of the United States, the European Union, and international financial institutions to adopt a common set of anti-terrorist polices, including similar regulatory frameworks, scope of groups targeted, and responses and penalties. No doubt this encourages jurisdiction shopping by terrorists and their financial supporters. If U.S. counter-terrorism legislation is tougher than Europe’s post 9/11, then the incentive is for groups to migrate to the less stringent jurisdiction. Similarly, the failure to achieve a common response at the global level may encourage terrorists to structure their financial support activities to exploit jurisdiction-specific advantages, such as the network of Gulf charities in the Middle East, and weak financial regulation in key states in Africa and Southeast Asia.¹³

Any war on terrorism, including the attempts to shut down Islamic charities involved in terror funding, will ultimately end in failure if there is no joint action on behalf of the most important world political actors, especially in the Western world which has, so far, been one of the main targets of the Islamist terror network. However, the present situation does not look very promising regarding this matter because of the differences in the legislation between U.S. and Europe. While Washington is extremely rigorous in relation to the charity organizations suspected of supporting armed Islamic movements, the Europeans do not stop insisting on the opportunity to distinguish the organizations infiltrated by terrorists from those that carry out a real humanitarian purpose, for fear of influencing the legitimate activities of the latter.¹⁴ Certainly, in this globalized world that lacks a common legislation, it has been easy for Islamist terrorist groups to take advantage of the different approaches between Europe and the United States. As Loretta Napoleoni emphasizes: “The greatest advantage that the financiers of terrorism find in Europe is, without a doubt, the absence of a global and homogenous legislation comparable to the American ‘Patriot Act’. This gap is explained above all by the fact that the degree of political integration of the European Union members is much

12 Jeremy Lippart and Karan Bokhari, “The Finances of Terrorism”, *Stratfor*, October 22, 2004.

13 Jeanne K. Giraldo and Harold A. Trinkunas, “The Political Economy of Terrorist Finance and State Responses”, in Jeanne K. Giraldo and Harold A. Trinkunas, eds., *The Political Economy of Terrorism Finance and State Responses: A Comparative Perspective*, Stanford: Stanford University Press, 2006.

14 See: Anne C. Richard, “Europe Can Do More to shut Down Terrorist Funds”, *International Herald Tribune*, 8 March 2004.

weaker than that of the American states. Europe does not possess the equivalent of a federal legislation. The EU can only decree directives and codes of conduct that later on will be, or will not be, applied by the member states”¹⁵

It should be emphasized that the reluctance of some, especially Western European, counterterrorism officials to effectively tackle the issue of Islamic charities who sponsor terrorism lays in the very name and nature of these organizations, that is the fact that they are both *Islamic* and *Charitable*. The desire to be politically correct (especially when dealing with Muslim minority issues) and the necessity to respect (European) ideas and laws dealing with sensitive human rights issues creates a great obstacle in the fight against the global terrorism. On the other hand, charities that sponsor terrorism take a full advantage of the protection guaranteed to them by the democratic and human rights laws, as well as the “political and ethnic correctness”, which are crippling European security forces, preventing them from being more efficient in the fight against global terrorism and its sources of financing.

CONCLUSION

The vast quantities of money flowing into Islamic charities, together with a large number of these organizations with links to terrorist organizations suggest that this is a long-term problem. Despite the intense public focus on the role of Islamic charitable groups in financing and recruiting for terrorism following 9/11, those same organizations nonetheless clearly continue to be manipulated by various terrorist organizations.

Because both Zakat and Sadaqah are viewed as personal religious responsibilities, there has traditionally been little or no government oversight of these activities. Donations in large measure remain anonymous. Both conditions combined with the often opaque financial and operating structure of Islamic charities provide an ideal environment for exploitation by terrorist groups. Indeed, they are the conduits through which billions of dollars reach the Islamist network every year, such that it is reasonable to assume that a large portion of charity funds act as a sort of international pool of money, ready to be channelled to whichever armed group is in need in the Muslim world¹⁶.

Given the underlying complex web of financial and personal relationships, such agile front groups are notoriously difficult to clean out or shut down. Several conceptual problems arise in assessing the extent to which Islamic charities have been exploited by terrorist groups. Clearly the direct financial support of terrorist groups and their operations are clear-cut cases. On the other hand, money is quite fungible and some charity organizers are adept at creating grey areas. Indeed, the combination of humanitarian aid and illegal activity is typical of Islamic charities.

Part of the problem lies in the enemy’s ability to use globalization to its advantage; the other part lies in the inability of the governments to carry out, under the aegis of an international organization like the United Nations, a global policy that seeks to prevent the financing of terrorism. On one hand, there are governments of some countries, such as Saudi Arabia and Iran, which openly support charities associated with terrorism funding. There are also a number of key states in Africa and Southeast Asia whose weak financial regulation benefits terrorist groups and their sponsors. On the other hand, situation in the Western world is also very complex regarding this issue. Some countries, the first being the United States, have ad-

15 Loretta Napoleoni, “Terrorism Financing in Europe”, *Journal of Middle Eastern Geopolitics*, Vol 1, No. 2, 2005, p. 53.

16 Loretta Napoleoni, *Terror Inc: Tracing the Money behind Global Terrorism*, London: Penguin books, 2004, p. 223.

opted special anti-terrorism laws and regulations. But these measures have not resulted in the creation of a similar legislation in the rest of the Western world. Europe, in particular, has not been successful in preventing the financing of terrorist organizations and money laundering on its territory. Regarding the United States, the European answer has been, up until now, weak, partial and, finally, little effective. But the lesson of past failures is that, in a globalized world, the measures aimed at fighting the financing of terrorism must be global in order to be crowned a success.¹⁷ Unfortunately, at this point it seems like a distant and hardly achievable goal due to different security policies of various, particularly European, states. Whether the rising terrorism threat, which will undoubtedly result in more devastating terrorist attacks, will sober up the officials in some countries and change the security policies of their governments, remains to be seen.

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11. Philippine Country Report. UN Security Council Resolution 1267 and 1455. Al Qaeda Sanctions Committee. October 2004 S/AC.37/2003/(1455)/79 22 October 2003.
12. Richard, A. C., "Europe Can Do More to shut Down Terrorist Funds", *International Herald Tribune*, 8 March 2004.
13. <http://www.centerforsecuritypolicy.org/cia96charities.pdf>.

¹⁷ Loretta Napoleoni, "Terrorism Financing in Europe", *Journal of Middle Eastern Geopolitics*, Vol. 1, No. 2, 2005, p. 47.

NATO'S PUBLIC IMAGE AND THE ROLE OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: The process of transformation in the post-Cold War period brought new roles, activities and an overall expansion of NATO's field of interests. Actorness in some new, non-traditional areas shifted NATO from a defensive alliance to the organization that has the form and content of the security community. New roles and activities that NATO has embraced in the post-Cold War era changed the nature of NATO and thus the public image of the alliance. NATO has been creating a new image in accordance with the impulses from its environment and pursuant to the new roles. That image has its roots in humanization of NATO activities and in promotion of humanitarian approach to conflict prevention and solution. The "crisis management approach" emerged in NATO's agenda during 1990s, but only after the Strategic Concept from 2010 crisis management (with humanitarian operations) became one of three core tasks of NATO, coming eventually to be the backbone of NATO activity nowadays. Taking into account this trend of NATO transformation, this paper aims at analyzing the ways in which crisis management discourse influences NATO public image. The method used is the discourse analysis, and the data sources are media statements and transcripts of NATO officials' speeches on the topic of crisis management operations.

Keywords: Cold War, public diplomacy, NATO, crisis management.

INTRODUCTION

The end of the Cold War and events that followed, particularly including September 11 terrorist attacks, remarkably altered the practices and rhetoric of NATO. Unlike the period of the Cold War when its prime role was collective defense, NATO has taken a more proactive approach since then. Generally, NATO went out of traditional area and become "very different than the military alliances formed by the great powers prior to the Second World War".² It is considered that NATO by its very nature differs from all the previous forms of alliances, given that it is based on common values and a clear aim to "strengthen free institutions and bring about a better understanding of the principles upon which these institutions are founded and to promote conditions of stability and well-being".³ These broad sets of principles made

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² Thies J. Wallace, *Why NATO Endures*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2009, p. 287.

³ The North Atlantic Treaty, Washington, 1949, available at: http://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/stock_publications/20120822_nato_treaty_en_light_2009.pdf, January 12, 2015.

NATO resilient to the changes in the environment and thus have kept its relevance during the time. NATO is considered to be the most adaptable alliance ever, so the reason of its endurance lies in its capacity for change.⁴

Furthermore, thanks to its adaptability to the needs of the surroundings, NATO has played quite different roles, some of them not having much in common with traditional collective defense. In accordance with the new roles undertaken, NATO has changed its organization and structure, as well as rhetoric following the practices. In addition to the military image, NATO has tried to build and maintain the image of the organization aimed at protecting specific values, norms and institutions, so Williams and Neumann rightfully point that the challenge for NATO is “the absence of specific democratic cultural and political institutions that cause instability.”⁵ Collective defense became eventually one of several NATO tasks. Instead of being only a defensive mechanism against external threat, NATO turned into a subject of action. In that sense, NATO changed its Cold-War “practice of talking” into more proactive post Cold-War “practice of doing”, recognizing transformation as imperative for its continued existence.⁶ NATO kept being a collective defense organization, but also the political forum to discuss global security challenges and to solve them with different instruments. That is why Zbigniew Brzezinski pointed out that “NATO’s real power now derives from the fact that it combines the United States’ military capabilities and economic power with Europe’s collective political and economic weight.”⁷ It might be added that NATO now presents rather a political community of like-minded states gathered around common goals, resilient enough to face different kind of threats. Therefore, in one of his speeches, NATO Secretary General stressed that NATO “*is more than a collection of nations, it is a unique community of shared values and interests.*”⁸, claiming the importance of that “unity of values” for the Euro-Atlantic peace and stability over years.

New roles and activities determine the way NATO acts and presents itself in public. Pursuing a new set of roles it has embraced since the end of the Cold War, NATO progressively changed its public image. Shift to security practices such as conflict prevention, peacekeeping, peace building, humanitarian operations and disaster relief altered the historical image of NATO. In order to reach global scope and retain credibility, NATO has to convince the audience in the necessity of its involvement in different kinds of crises situations worldwide. Therefore, an important part of a new NATO is public diplomacy and promotion of its positive image.

Following the trend of NATO’s transformation, including multitude of security tasks and activities, the goal of this paper is to outline the new image that NATO is creating through the involvement in some new security practices. In order to achieve this goal, the paper is organized in two sections. The first section focuses on NATO’s post Cold-War agenda and new security tasks of NATO. The second section makes an inquiry into how often crisis management is used in NATO communication with public (public in general, but particularly population of NATO member states) through press releases and NATO officials’ speeches in order to create a supportive story or backup for a new NATO image. Finally, the paper concludes that

4 Gartner Heinz, Europe Security, Transatlantic Link and the Crisis Management, in: Miroslav Hadžić, *Reforma sektora bezbednosti (zbornik radova)*, Institut G17 i Centar za civilno-vojne odnose, Beograd, 2003, p. 397.

5 Williams C. Michael, Neumann B. Iver, From Alliance to Security Community: NATO, Russia and the Power of Identity, *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, Vol. 29, No. 2, 2000, pp. 369–370.

6 Flockhart Trine, Towards a Strong NATO narrative: From a “practice of talking” to a “practice of doing”, *International Politics*, Vol. 49, No. 1, 2012, p. 79.

7 Brzezinski Zbigniew, An Agenda for NATO: Towards a Global Security Web, *Foreign Affairs*, Vol. 88, No. 5, 2009, p. 10.

8 NATO 2020 - shared leadership for a shared future, Speech by NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen at the Brussels Forum (with Q&A session), March 23, 2012.

after Strategic Concept 2010 was adopted, NATO has been avoiding unilateral approach and NATO's public image is based mostly on partnership with other actors and their involvement in crises situations and humanitarian affairs.

NATO'S POST-COLD WAR AGENDA AND NEW SECURITY TASKS

NATO's transformation over the time seems like an answer to a repeated question "what now" that comes up every time when NATO is faced with the end of an era or with any social, political or other change in its environment. Given its purpose to protect common values and keep the western world united for the upcoming security challenges, NATO has to be adaptable. Adaptation mostly includes new tasks, but also gaining public support for them. For that reason, the most acceptable way of NATO's development and a guarantee of its endurance is the embracement of practices and narratives that are in accordance with public's expectations. Public opinion surveys are therefore important indicators for NATO's future engagement. Public opinion survey conducted by *Transatlantic Trends* in the years before show that NATO enjoys undiminished support by public in USA and Europe member states as they define NATO as essential for their security.⁹ This leads us to the claims of some experts that "the question isn't whether NATO is relevant, but what NATO is relevant for?"¹⁰ And that has been the most important question for NATO since its inception.

Long time after Washington treaty was assigned NATO was defensive organization aimed at defending Western, particularly USA's interest from Soviet threat. It was the time when NATO practiced a narrow approach to security based mostly on deterrence, so the NATO of the Cold War was "organization where NATO forces were not involved in a single military engagement".¹¹ However, Washington treaty is found to be the document which might be regarded as a bastion for protection of Western values and a personalization of the "double logic of international security: to achieve a synthesis of the inside and outside security needs of the Euro-Atlantic area."¹² For that reason, it is not surprising that post Cold War period has brought about some changes and turned to a "values-based security order to which the Allies ultimately aspire".¹³ With the Strategic Concept from 1991, NATO embraced a broad approach to security, recognizing the importance of management of crisis and conflict prevention for the success of NATO's policy of preserving peace in the new political and strategic environment in Europe. Today, as NATO Secretary General declared at the opening of the NATO Transformation Seminar held on March 25, 2015, NATO do not have the luxury to choose between collective defense and crisis management: "*For the first time in NATO's history we have to do both at the same time.*"¹⁴

9 See: Transatlantic Trends Reports from 2003 to 2014 at: <http://trends.gmfus.org/archives/>

10 The sentence by Derek Chollet from the German Marshall Fund, see in: Erlanger Steven, NATO Nations No Longer Question Need for Alliance, *The New York Times*, http://www.nytimes.com/2015/12/16/world/europe/nato-nations-no-longer-question-need-for-alliance.html?_r=0, accessed February 5, 2016.

11 Flockhart Trine, Towards a Strong NATO narrative: From a "practice of talking" to a "practice of doing", *op. cit.*, p. 78.

12 Gheciu Alexandra, *NATO in the "New Europe": The Politics of International Socialization after the Cold War*, Stanford University Press, Stanford, 2005, p. 38.

13 Moore R. Rebecca, *NATO's New Mission: Projecting Stability in a Post-Cold War World*, Praeger Security International, Westport and London, 2007, p. 55.

14 Keynote speech by NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg at the opening of the NATO Transformation Seminar, March 25, 2015.

One of the biggest concerns of NATO regarding its security now comes to be the problem of “spillover” of conflict and insecurity from the Europe’s periphery.¹⁵ NATO Secretary General confirmed in October 2014:

“*Crises and conflicts beyond NATO’s borders can pose a direct threat to our security, so we will engage to prevent and manage crises, to stabilize post-conflict situations and to support reconstruction*”.¹⁶

Such a shift in the perception of security problems resulted in NATO’s adaptability to new challenges occurring in the immediate surroundings that may destabilize Euro-Atlantic area if not adequately treated.¹⁷ NATO policy during 1990s was built around this concern, so NATO took part in the “out of area interventions” to prevent refugee crisis, economic problems, human rights abuse and instability coming from the periphery. This was a completely new approach to security problems that assumed interconnection between security of NATO member states and the stability of their periphery.

The Strategic Concept from 1999 also recognized the importance of crisis management for “enhancing the security and stability of the Euro-Atlantic area”.¹⁸ This time NATO went a step further, putting crisis management as a forth fundamental task of the Alliance, becoming eventually the second most important task of the NATO alliance after collective defence and before cooperative security in the newest Strategic Concept form 2010.¹⁹ NATO’s focus was primarily on the non-article 5 military operations that came as a response to crises situations in the Balkans. Disagreements over proposed solutions of Kosovo crisis led to a state of dissolution within NATO. This brought about a realization that NATO “came out of Kosovo conflict with a damaged self-perception on its practical ability to perform as a cohesive actor in a military demanding environment”.²⁰ Cohesion seemed recovered after September 11 attacks when NATO invoked article 5 for the first time declaring the global war on terrorism. In the first years of involvement in Afghanistan NATO enjoyed a significant public support from both European and American public. The report presented by *Transatlantic Trends* in 2007 stated that the “large majorities of Europeans (64%) and Americans (64%) supported contributing troops to international reconstruction efforts in Afghanistan”.²¹ According to the Report from 2008, the support continued for “providing security for economic reconstruction projects (73% and 79% respectively), assisting with the training of Afghan police and military forces (76% and 68%), and combating narcotics production (70% and 76%). When it comes to the combat operations against the Taliban, public opinion was not that undivided, given that 76% of Americans also supported this kind of activity, opposite to 43% of Europeans.”²²

15 Asmus D. Ronald, Kugler L. Richard and Larrabee F. Stephen, *Building a New NATO*, *Foreign Affairs*, Vol. 72, No. 4, 1993, p. 29.

16 *NATO: a unique Alliance with a clear course*, Speech by NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg at the German Marshall Fund, Brussels, October 28, 2014.

17 Popovic Marija, *Proširenje tradicionalnih uloga Severoatlantskog pakta: politika borbe protiv trgovine ljudima, Suprotstavljanje savremenim oblicima kriminaliteta: analiza stanja, evropski standardi i mere za unapređenje*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija i Fondacija Hans Zajdel, Beograd, 2015, str. 371.

18 *The Alliance’s Strategic Concept*, Approved by the Heads of State and Government participating in the Meeting of the North Atlantic Council in Washington D. C. on 23rd and 24th April 1999.

19 *Strategic Concept for the Defence and Security of the Members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization*, adopted by Heads of State and Government at the NATO Summit in Lisbon, 19–20 November 2010.

20 Flockhart Trine, *Towards a Strong NATO narrative: From a “practice of talking” to a “practice of doing”*, *op. cit.*, p. 89.

21 *Transatlantic Trends 2007*, p. 17, available at: http://trends.gmfus.org/files/archived/doc/2007_english_key.pdf, January 25, 2016.

22 *Transatlantic Trends 2008*, p. 13, available at: http://trends.gmfus.org/files/archived/doc/2008_english_key.pdf, January 25, 2016.

However, the long-lasting operation with no clear prospects for successful termination started to cause the opposite effect in the eyes of both American and European citizens. This resulted in a public turmoil regarding the military mission in Afghanistan, which meant even louder support to withdrawal of all the troops.²³ On the other hand, more than 50% of Americans and Europeans, according to *Transatlantic Trends Report 2013*, supported keeping troops in Afghanistan but if their mission is to train the Afghan army and police.²⁴ Finally, on December 28, 2014 NATO officially ended its mission started in 2001 by withdrawing its forces from Afghanistan. Instead of a military mission, NATO's engagement since 2014 has had three inter-related components: a NATO-led Resolute Support mission to train, to advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions; a contribution to the broad effort of financial sustainment of Afghan security forces and institutions; and the NATO-Afghanistan Enduring Partnership.²⁵

NATO's Strategic Concept from 2010 was a big challenge because both scholars and practitioners, but especially public, expected to see the future role and future tasks of the alliance. Afghanistan lesson divided these audiences between the two competing visions: that of global NATO with multitude of security tasks that would be solved by military and political means and the one of NATO with restricted, regional scope, focused toward its traditional article V tasks and best described by the slogan "Come home, NATO".²⁶ Given that "come home policy" could leave NATO "out of business" (because most of the crises situations happen outside Euro-Atlantic area), NATO is by all means striving to outreach global scope and undertake important global tasks. During one of his speeches in 2011, NATO Secretary General stressed that emerging security challenges like missile attacks, cyber attacks, terrorism, and proliferation of weapons of mass destruction also make part of modern territorial defence, so the Alliance need to adapt to protect effectively its populations against these new threats.²⁷ Therefore, NATO Secretary General rationalises NATO transformation, stressing that NATO has not lost traditional identity, but that defence itself has been transformed nowadays.

When it comes to the expected roles, *Transatlantic Trends Report 2014* showed that the public agreed that NATO should work towards stability in places like Afghanistan, but without military intervention. They also agreed upon the fact that NATO should use force to prevent other states (like Iran) from developing nuclear programs only if all other means do not give any results, preferring sanctions over war.²⁸ The overall conclusion is that NATO strategic orientation and the lines of development depend strongly on public opinion and the impression they create over its roles and activities. Public opinion has shaped NATO during the years, as NATO changed its roles in accordance with public expectations. Today, NATO is an actor in the area of crisis management, devoted to comprehensive approach, more prone to engage in activities that include political instruments and protection of human values, striving to get greater public support.

23 Although there was some slight disagreement between Europeans and Americans over Afghanistan question, *Transatlantic Trends Report 2011* shows that a difference disappeared in comparison to 2010, so in 2011 more than 60% of both parties were for the withdrawal from Afghanistan. See: *Transatlantic Trends 2011*, p. 23, available at: http://trends.gmfus.org/files/archived/doc/2011_english_key.pdf, January 25, 2016.

24 *Transatlantic Trends 2013*, p. 34, available at: <http://trends.gmfus.org/files/2013/09/TT-Key-Findings-Report.pdf>, January 25, 2016.

25 NATO's commitment to Afghanistan after 2014, http://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2014_09/20140901_140901-Background-Afghanistan_en.pdf, accessed February 5, 2016.

26 Ringsmose Jens, Rynning Sten, Come home, NATO? The Atlantic Alliance New Strategic Concept, *DIIS Report No. 4*, Danish Institute for International Studies, Copenhagen, 2009.

27 "Strengthening European security" Speech by NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen, March 17, 2011, Warsaw.

28 *Transatlantic Trends 2014*, available at: http://trends.gmfus.org/files/2012/09/Trends_2014_complete.pdf, January 25, 2016.

CRISIS MANAGEMENT AND NATO'S PUBLIC IMAGE

Military missions have always been an issue of legal, political and moral concern. When talking about NATO, its activity is mostly associated with military missions. However, challenging sovereignty that comes with this type of missions has not always been well understood and accepted. This is the reason why NATO often has difficulties in obtaining public sympathy, which is highly important for the support of NATO activities. Therefore, NATO engages in a set of activities in the area of public diplomacy in order to improve self-image. NATO's public diplomacy strategy is implemented by the Committee on Public Diplomacy (CPD), which aims at sharing information about NATO's goals, policies and activities with the public, so they can better understand what NATO do and for what reasons.

Presenting NATO in a positive light implies commitments and activities that are socially acceptable and desirable, so they can live up to the expectations of different types of audiences. Since Strategic Concept 1991, NATO embraced a broad approach to security in order to be prepared for the diversity of challenges and for facing them at the early stage. Meanwhile, crisis management became a backbone of NATO activities, given its involvement in many missions and operations that include not only military, but also political means. Since 2010 until now, NATO has been following the path of a new Strategic Concept, which assumes participation in activities that go out of area and beyond military operations. During one of the panels at Brussels Forum 2014, Andres Fogh Rasmussen **stated**:

*"We can't effectively protect our population and our territory unless we are also capable to go out of area if needed and defend against non-traditional threats and help non-NATO countries to defend themselves."*²⁹

This demonstrates that NATO is reshaped, more proactive and adaptable to the needs and expectations of its surroundings. The 21st century NATO is trying to build the image of a trustworthy organization capable not only to defend and attack with its massive military potential, but to protect, to support and to solve a wide range of crises, from conflict prevention and peace building to disaster relief operations. Although NATO's "organisational culture, procedures and doctrines are foremost military and currently leave little room for a civilian approach"³⁰, NATO's commitment to comprehensive approach to crisis management contributes to this concept by putting at disposal its military capabilities for solving both military and civilian crises. Those activities are helping NATO to reshape its public image from an intimidator and global policeman to a capable and reliable partner for solving problems around the globe. This is a precondition for NATO's global influence as well as for more public comprehension and approval. In addition to planning and conducting operations, training, education, exercises and enhancing cooperation with external actors, NATO is dedicated to public messaging in order to make its work visible.³¹ Therefore, crisis management and the NATO's role in it is often presented in NATO's press releases and NATO officials' speeches in order to create a supportive story or backup for a new NATO image.

How important crisis management is for NATO representation is best illustrated by just searching NATO's official website, where there are 2100 entries for the word "crisis management" opposite to 1970 entries for the word "defense".³² This is a good indicator of how often crisis management is used for communication with the audience. Crisis management is most-

29 Panel discussion with NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen and former NATO Secretaries General Lord Robertson and Jaap de Hoop Scheffer at the Brussels Forum, March 21, 2014.

30 Wendling Cecile, *The Comprehensive Approach to Civil-Military Crisis Management: A Critical Analysis and Perspective*, Institut de Recherche Strategique de l'Ecole Militaire (IRSEM), 2010, p. 39.

31 A "comprehensive approach" to crises, available at: http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_51633.htm?selectedLocale=en, February 10, 2016.

32 <http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/search.htm>, Accession date February 14, 2016.

ly connected to joint activities that NATO undertakes with partners around the globe. Working with other actors contributes to political legitimacy and operational success of NATO's missions, so partnerships are considered to have been "a unique tool for crisis management."³³ Therefore, through the partnership and crisis management activities, NATO is trying to build a position of a "seminar leader" which, as Charlotte Wagnsson claims, signifies that NATO "becomes less concerned with Russia and more focused on other partnerships."³⁴ Being focused on different types of crises, but in cooperation with other significant actors, must be a safe path for NATO to enhance its reputation and gain trust.

Devotion to cooperation and crisis management makes NATO an indispensable part of the global security equation. It undoubtedly indicates that NATO is capable of acting in every part of the world whenever is necessary. NATO made commitments to a wide range of crises, trying to present its activities indispensable for protection of all those values of highest importance for humans. For that reason, NATO always stresses the potential of NATO capabilities to bring peace and save people's lives.

*"The success of our forces in Libya, Afghanistan, the Balkans and in fighting piracy is a vivid illustration that NATO remains unmatched in its ability to deploy and sustain military power to safeguard the security of our populations and to contribute to international peace and security."*³⁵

Participation in many crisis operations like the one in Libya called into question the identity of NATO as a collective defense alliance, as it broadened its field of action even to humanitarian aid. However, Secretary General of the Alliance explained that "NATO remains first and foremost a defense Alliance"³⁶, but with additional responsibility (given the Alliance's wealth, power and system of values) and that is to prevent human suffering "when we can, where we can, and if our help is requested."³⁷

NATO's management of Ukrainian crisis also indicates again that NATO goes beyond territorial defense tasks, always trying to construct the situation in which NATO capabilities and experience are necessary to protect the values that are in the nature of NATO, no matter where crisis occurs. That way NATO reaffirms its support to any commitment to democracy and the rule of law. Although Ukrainian crisis basically is a territorial question of national importance of a non-NATO state, NATO is trying to rationalize interference in question by stressing the importance of stable Ukraine for Euro-Atlantic security and stability. Besides, it also strives to emphasize its contribution to providing basic humanitarian needs:

*„Ukraine is grateful for the humanitarian assistance being provided to the internally displaced population, and the substantial cooperation through the Science for Peace and Security program... The Alliance continues its full support for Ukraine's sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity within its internationally recognized borders."*³⁸

In addition to continuous adherence to humanitarian approach that NATO stresses, what gives legitimacy to NATO activities is avoidance of unilateralism and thus cooperation with other respectable agents in solving crises. During the Libyan crisis, NATO highlighted "...a clear UN mandate, determination and means with the right combination of military, political

33 NATO's Partnership policy in a changing security environment

Speech by NATO Deputy Secretary General Alexander Vershbow at the conference on "NATO Partnerships: achievements and prospects", Chisinau, Moldova, May 14, 2014.

34 Wagnsson Charlotte, NATO's role in the Strategic Concept debate: Watchdog, fire-fighter, neighbour or seminar leader?, *Cooperation and Conflict*, Vol.46, No. 4, 2011, p. 492.

35 Summit Declaration on Defence Capabilities: Toward NATO Forces 2020, May 20, 2012.

36 "Hungry for Security: Can NATO help in a humanitarian crisis?" Speech by NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen, Erasmus University, Rotterdam, the Netherlands, March 30, 2011.

37 Ibid.

38 Joint statement of the NATO-Ukraine Commission, December 2, 2014, Brussels

and economic pressure to bring an end to attacks on civilians.”³⁹ The same pattern can be noticed in the Ukrainian crisis, where NATO demonstrates “*full support to the efforts of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) to contribute to de-escalation and pursuing a peaceful solution to the crisis.*”⁴⁰ Furthermore, in Ukraine case, NATO Secretary General has claimed that NATO is part of a broad international effort to support Ukraine and there is a general agreement that there is no military solution to the crisis in Ukraine.⁴¹

Finally, NATO’s continuous efforts in fostering the image of a partnership organisation that aims at protecting and supporting common values improve public perception and may significantly affect NATO’s future path. NATO often stresses its contributive, but indispensable role in crisis situations, claiming that “*NATO is not the only solution to every crisis in Euro-Atlantic region, but it is part of every solution*”, because it provides three elements crucial for facing modern security challenges: political legitimacy, tried and tested structures and military strength.⁴²

CONCLUSION

In the post-Cold War period NATO is faced with many challenges. This is the time for NATO to search for a new “*raison d’être*”, after losing its distinctive axis of action – a Soviet threat. Starting with the end of the Cold War, NATO has undergone significant transformation, aimed at promoting new roles, enhancing its public image, gaining trust and maintaining credibility.

For this reason, NATO gradually shifted from collective defense alliance to community of states gathered around common values and aimed at protecting them. This line of transformation brought new security tasks to NATO, demanding it to be more proactive and to participate in solving different types of crises. New security tasks, in addition to traditional collective defense, that have been progressively embraced by NATO made this alliance (and community) resilient and adaptable to the environment, in order to provide NATO’s continuation and to reconfirm its relevance. Along with this line of transformation, NATO also changed its conception of rivalries, fostering partnerships and striving to turn rivals into strategic partners. All these novelties regarding NATO seem to put traditional defense in the second plan even in public speeches, briefings, statements or opening remarks, especially after the Strategic Concept 2010 was adopted.

Emphasizing crisis management and partnership in communication with the public through press releases, NATO is trying to build a new image that is consistent with the new security needs of the environment. That way, NATO not only keeps on being relevant and necessary Euro-Atlantic security actor, but also shows aspirations towards global actorness in a wide range of crises situations. Therefore, public diplomacy plays a significant part in the process of making new, adaptable, competent and globally relevant NATO.

39 Statement on Libya, Following the Working lunch of NATO Ministers of Defence with non-NATO Contributors to Operation Unified Protector, June 8, 2011.

40 Joint statement of the NATO-Ukraine Commission, December 2, 2014, Brussels

41 NATO Secretary General statement on the extraordinary meeting of the NATO-Ukraine Commission, Press Release Issued on January 26, 2015.

42 “Why NATO Matters to America”, Speech by NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen at the Brookings Institution, March 19, 2014.

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INTERNATIONAL SECURITY: THE EXPLANATORY POTENTIAL OF REALIST THEORY¹

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Abstract: The author's research purpose is to set forth and analyze the contemporary status of realist theory – understood as a guideline for creation and realization of foreign and security policy, as well as a large part of theoretical core of security studies itself; primary effort is directed toward giving an overview of the theory's development and main criticisms addressed to it. In the first part of the article, the basic conjectures of realist theory are being exposed, and the theory itself is being classified through the display of historical development of particular scientific disciplines (international relations, security studies, foreign policy as a scientific subfield). Realism is being considered in its classical form (Edward H. Carr, Hans J. Morgenthau), structural form (Kenneth N. Waltz, John J. Mearsheimer), as well as its neoclassical form (Stephen M. Walt, Jack Snyder, Randall L. Schweller, Fareed Zakaria, Aaron L. Friedberg). In the second part of the article, the author presents and analyzes various critiques of realist (Waltian) approach to international security and security studies, including those concerning broadening and deepening the concept of security after the Cold War, as well as more specific methodological remarks. In the third section, the author argues that realist theory is persistently a useful tool for achieving scientific explication as a scientific goal, aiming to establish causal relations and determine universal social generalizations, especially regarding state behavior in the sphere of international security. The reasons for this are to be found within wide applicability of realist theoretical concepts, which represent key elements for understanding the international security problems, usually not dealt with – enough or even at all – by other theoretical approaches, like the issue of trust (security dilemma) or the concept of balance (equilibrium) in their various forms.

Key words: international security, international relations, realism, neorealism, neoclassical realism, security dilemma.

INTRODUCTION

Realism, as agreed by most of its proponents and critics alike, represents “the oldest and most prominent paradigm in international relations”³ and thereafter, also in security studies. In this context, we regard security studies as “a sub-field of International Relations which is concerned with the elucidation of security, its implementation in foreign policy making and its consequential effect upon structures and processes in world politics”.⁴ Stemming from the

1 The paper was developed within the project No. 179009, „Demokratski i nacionalni kapaciteti političkih institucija Srbije u procesu međunarodnih integracija“ [Democratic and National Capacities of Political Institutions of Serbia in the Process of International Integrations], funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of Republic of Serbia.

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3 Jeffrey W. Legro and Andrew Moravcsik: “Is Anybody Still a Realist?”, *International Security*, 24(2), Fall 1999, p. 5.

4 Graham Evans and Jeffrey Newnham: “Security Studies”, in: *The Penguin Dictionary of International Relations*, Penguin Books, London, 1998. p. 496.

philosophical tradition of epistemic foundationalism and scientific realism, the realist theory in international relations supposes that outside the human mind there is an observable real world, and that scientific theories “comprise statements that accurately reflect about how the world operates”.⁵ Although it appears in manifold and mutually very different versions, realist theory in all its forms rests on certain fundamental presumptions. The realist tradition in political theory is bound together by “three central beliefs”:⁶ that politics is always conducted in groups, that these groups behave egoistically, and that “the central aspect of politics, within groups as well as among them, is power”.⁷ According to Dunne and Schmidt, the core elements of realist theory are statism (since the state is considered central and most important actor in international relations), survival (as the ultimate goal of states in international politics) and self-help (given that within the anarchic structure of international politics, in the absence of a supreme power in charge of it, security can only be achieved by engaging one’s own capabilities).⁸ Also recognizing the multitude of versions of realist theory, Robert Jervis underlines their two common features: the position of states as primary actors, and their tendency to focus primarily on their own security.⁹

To the presented core of realism in international theory, one must add the permeating pessimistic, or at least skeptical, views on the possibility of international cooperation and the over-coming of (actual or potential) conflicts. Although realism mostly does rest upon various forms of the concepts of balance of power and opposing international military-political alliances, the said addendum has to be taken with reserve: a number of authors within the realist theory emphasize that this tradition of thought in no way excludes the possibilities of international cooperation, neither at descriptive-explicative, nor at prescriptive grounds – by analyzing the very circumstances which are to make cooperation a viable and/or desired form of behavior.¹⁰

Thucydides (c. 454 BC–c. 396 BC),¹¹ Kautilya (Chanakya or Vishnu Gupta, 350 BC–283 BC),¹² Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527) and Thomas Hobbes (1588–1679) are usually mentioned as the forefathers of realism as it exists in the modern international theory. Relying on many centuries of heritage in political and social theory, modern realism represents a complex and multidimensional theoretical construction, within which there exists a large number of, occasionally even significantly different, schools and approaches of thought.

MODERN REALISM, HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEORY

The first of many forms of modern realist theory in international relations is classical realism – or, as it is sometimes called, human nature realism, due to the approach of anthropological pessimism by which it explains competitive and conflictual behavior or states. Among the

5 John J. Mearsheimer and Stephen M. Walt: “Leaving Theory behind: Why Simplistic Hypothesis Testing is Bad for International Relations”, *European Journal of International Relations*, 19(3): pp. 432-433.

6 Filip Ejodus: *Međunarodna bezbednost – Teorije, sektori i nivoi*, Službeni glasnik – Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku, Beograd, 2012, p. 72.

7 *Ibid.*

8 Brian C. Schmidt and Tim Dunne: “Realism”, in: John Baylis *et al.* (eds.): *The Globalization of World Politics – An Introduction to International Relations (4th e.)*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2008, pp. 100-103.

9 Robert Jervis: “Realism in the Study of World Politics”, *International Organization*, 52(4), Autumn 1998: pp. 980-984.

10 See: Charles L. Glaser: “Realists as Optimists: Cooperation as Self-Help”, *International Security*, 19(3), Winter 1994-1995: pp. 50-90; Robert Jervis: *op. cit.*, pp. 986-987.

11 Thucydides: *The Peloponnesian War*, Oxford, 2009.

12 Kautilja: *Artašastra*, Koraci, Kragujevac, 2009.

most prominent authors of this approach, one must mention Edward Hallett Carr, Hans Morgenthau, John Herz and Arnold Wolfers. Two grand names of American diplomacy, George F. Kennan and Henry A. Kissinger also represent classical realism in international relations. The authors whose academic background is not strictly within the science of international relations, like the famous journalist Walter Lippmann or theologian Reinhold Niebuhr, are sometimes noted as classical realists.

British historian and social scientist Edward Hallett Carr is a pioneer figure, not only within realist theory but in the field of international relations in general. In his wide-known book *The Twenty Years' Crisis*, Carr has made a plea for realism in international theory, claiming that the cause of previous domination of idealism (or, as he called it, utopianism) lies in the fact that in social sciences "teleology precedes analysis",¹³ to which purpose gives "both its initial impulse and its direction".¹⁴ On the one hand, international reality (along with all the horrors brought before the face of mankind by World War I) and on the other hand, the development in the field of international relations studies, contributed to the abandonment of primitive, utopian phase of the discipline, and to the victory of realism as a triumph of 'thinking' over 'wishing'. According to Carr, "in the field of thought, it [*realism, M.L.*] places its emphasis on the acceptance of facts and on the analysis of their causes and consequences. It tends to depreciate the role of purpose and to maintain, explicitly or implicitly, that the function of thinking is to study a sequence of events which it is powerless to influence or to alter. In the field of action, realism tends to emphasize the irresistible strength of existing forces and the inevitable character of existing tendencies, and to insist that the highest wisdom lies in accepting, and adapting oneself to, these forces and these tendencies".¹⁵ Carr states that "three essential tenets are the foundation-stones of the realist philosophy. In the first place, history is a sequence of cause and effect, whose course can be analysed and understood by intellectual effort, but not (as the utopians believe) directed by 'imagination'. Secondly, theory does not (as the utopians assume) create practice, but practice theory. Thirdly, politics is not (as the utopians pretend) a function of ethics, but ethics of politics. Men 'are kept honest by constraint'. [...] Morality is the product of power".¹⁶

As opposed to Carr, whose *magnum opus* was published between the world wars, American theorist Hans J. Morgenthau strongly marked the post-World War II years, most of all by the first edition (1948) of his masterpiece *Politics among Nations – Struggle for Power and Peace*.¹⁷ (The previous year, yet another important Morgenthau's book had appeared: *Scientific Man vs. Power Politics*; however, since it grew out of a series of lectures held in New York in 1940, it cannot be regarded as part of the author's post-war work. Also, ingenious as it was, the scope of academic influence of *Politics among Nations* is, arguably, significantly larger.) Although Carr's seminal work predates Morgenthau's, over the course of time *Politics...* has become some kind of realist Bible (and as newer forms of realism emerged, perhaps, more appropriately, the Old Testament). Morgenthau has put forth, or reaffirmed interest in, some of the basic classical realist notions, such as balance of power, or the very elements by which the measurement of national power is achievable (according to Morgenthau, these are geographical position, natural resources, industrial capacity, military preparedness, population, national character, national morale, the quality of diplomacy and the quality of government).¹⁸

13 Carr, E. H.: *The Twenty Years' Crisis – An Introduction to the Study of International Relations*, Palgrave, Basingstoke – New York [NY], 2001, p. 7.

14 *Ibid.*, p. 4.

15 *Ibid.*, p. 10. Nevertheless, Carr acknowledges that this may result in "sterilization of thought and negation of action". Thus, utopianism might be needed as a corrective to realism in political science.

16 *Ibid.*: pp. 62-63.

17 Hans J. Morgenthau: *Politics among Nations: Struggle for Power and Peace*, 4th Ed., Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1967.

18 *Ibid.*, pp. 97-144.

However, Morgenthau had made an extraordinary breakthrough with the second edition of the book, which came out in 1954 and included an introductory chapter called “Six principles of political realism”. Almost seventy years after their initial publication, and regardless of many transformations that realism has gone through over the course of time, these principles have remained a unique *credo* of realist thought in international relations. The principles represent a set of perspicacious statements – and their elaborations – about the world (of) politics, especially positions of power or morality within it. Principles 1 and 2 are of the utmost significance, as they form the groundwork for the entire theoretical construction that Morgenthau has built. The first principle states that “political realism believes that politics, like society in general, is governed by objective laws that have roots in human nature”.¹⁹ It is a strong statement of realist epistemic and ontological beliefs; it also testifies to the roots of the name ‘human nature realism’ – the notion about human nature will be somewhat dismissed in the era of predominance of structural realism, but reinstated after the breakthrough of the neoclassical version of realism. The second principle also represents one of the key points in Morgenthau’s theory, and is worth quoting *verbatim*: “The main signpost that helps political realism to find its way through the landscape of international politics is the concept of interest defined in terms of power”.²⁰ The idea of interest ‘defined in terms of power’, being as elusive as it is comprehensive, was going to remain both a source of inspiration and an object of criticism, by realists and non-realists alike, in the decades to come.

Yet another classical realist drew a lot upon the works of Hans Morgenthau: Arnold Wolfers. His work is especially significant within the realist corpus when it comes to the assessments of the problems of balance of power²¹ (also researched extensively by Morgenthau²² and, previously, Martin Wight²³), and especially security dilemma. Wolfers is credited, by Shiping Tang, as the first author who has “first explicitly articulated the defensive implications of the security dilemma”,²⁴ by recognizing that “self-restraint and taking others’ interest into considerations should be the choice if one accepts the existence of the security dilemma”.²⁵ (Tang’s is, of course, a defensive realist assessment of the issue; an offensive realist, such as John Mearsheimer,²⁶ would assume a significantly different position.) Wolfers posited that the balance of power represents “an equilibrium or a roughly equal distribution of power between two opponents, the opposite, then, of hegemony or domination.”²⁷

The concept of balance of power, reached its peaking in academic importance with neo-realist, or structural realist theory, and subsequent neoclassical replies and criticisms directed towards it. Unlike classical realism, which concentrates on human nature as the root of states’ behavior, neorealism focuses its analysis on the structure of international system as the main source of incentives and, thus, explanations – hence the name: structural realism. Its most

19 *Ibid.*, p. 4.

20 *Ibid.*, p. 5

21 Arnold Wolfers: *Discord and Collaboration: Essays on International Politics*, The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1962, pp. 117-131.

22 Hans Morgenthau: *op. cit.*, pp. 161-215.

23 See: Mladen Lišanin: “Power, Threats, Interests: the Notion of Balance in International Relations Theories”. In: Stelian Scăunaș, Vasile Tabără, Eugen Strauțiu (eds.): *Political Science, International Relations and Security Studies – International Conference Proceedings, 8th Edition*, Lucian Blaga University of Sibiu, Sibiu, 2014, p. 448, fn. 2.

24 Shiping Tang: *A Theory of Security Strategy for Our Time: Defensive Realism*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York [NY], 2010, pp. 175-176.

25 *Ibid.*; Cf. Dragan Živojinović: „Ofanzivni i defanzivni realizam“, in: Milan Lipovac i Dragan Živojinović: *Međunarodna bezbednost: teorijski pristupi – Uvod u studije bezbednosti*, Inovacioni centar Fakulteta bezbednosti – Akademska knjiga, Beograd, pp. 151-152.

26 Mearsheimer, John J.: *The Tragedy of Great Power Politics*, W. W. Norton & Company, New York – London, 2003.

27 As cited by: Mladen Lišanin: *op. cit.*, pp. 449.

prominent author by far is Kenneth N. Waltz, who outlined the defensive neorealist theory in his 1979 book *Theory of International Politics*. In it, Waltz argued that balance of power is to occur “wherever two, and only two, requirements are met: that the order be anarchic and that it be populated by units wishing to survive”.²⁸ There are various ways through which balancing can be achieved: in a system of three or more units, the main tool will be alliance formation, and, according to Waltz, states will tend to side with the weaker party in order to restore the equilibrium. Within two-unit systems, of which Waltz had been a strong proponent, balancing can only be conducted by boosting one’s internal capacities.²⁹

Neoclassical realists³⁰ have built upon the neorealist construction, while criticizing it nevertheless. They restored the classical realists’ interest in internal features of states and personal qualities of their leaders, factors which have been completely excluded from the analysis by structural realists. That restoration earned the name neo-classical realists. Prominent authors of neoclassical realist background include Stephen M. Walt, Jack Snyder,³¹ Randall L. Schweller,³² Fareed Zakaria,³³ Aaron L. Friedberg,³⁴ and others. Within this school of thought, a theoretical *novum* introduced by Stephen Walt³⁵ was based on the notion that it is not the power that states balance against – rather, it is an actual and/or perceived threat: his modification of balance of power theory is thus called *balance of threat theory*. As a defensive realist, Walt still argued that balancing – siding along the weaker actor and opposing the stronger one – will be a regular strategy and pattern of state behavior. On the other hand, Schweller’s offensive neoclassical realism puts forward a completely different presumption: that in pursuing their own foreign policy goals, states will, more often than not, side with the stronger one. However, in Schweller’s theory, this depends on each state’s goals, or interests, since Schweller has revived the old dichotomy between *status quo* and revisionist states. This is why, in his version, the theory is called *balance of interests theory*.

CRITICISMS TO THE THEORY

A contribution by a (neoclassical) realist author to security studies is best seen through the work of Stephen Walt. He is considered to be the leading representative of traditional school of thought in security studies, which is, as such, regularly criticized by many proponents of broadening and deepening the agenda and a more inclusive theoretical framework of security studies. In a well-known article, originally published in 1991, Walt grasped the historical and academic status of security studies, concluding with the proposition to innovate the research agenda of the field. This included the following steps: 1) pay closer attention to the role of domestic politics, 2) take into account the causes of peace and cooperation, 3) acknowledge the growing power of ideas, 4) apply the tools to explain the phenomenon of the end of the Cold War, 5) thoroughly investigate the relationship between economics and security, 6) redefine existing theories within the sub-discipline, and 7) protect the relevant databases by fighting

28 Kenneth N. Waltz: *Theory of International Politics*, Addison-Wesley, Reading [MA], 1979, p. 121.

29 Kenneth N. Waltz: *op. cit.*, pp. 163-170.

30 Cf. Gideon Rose: “Neoclassical Realism and Theories of Foreign Policy”, *World Politics*, 51(1): October 1998: pp. 144-172; Dragan Živojinović: „Neoklasični realizam u teorijama međunarodnih odnosa“, *Godišnjak Fakulteta političkih nauka*, 2(2), 2008: str. 367-392.

31 Jack Snyder: *Myths of Empire*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, 1991.

32 Randall L. Schweller: *Deadly Imbalances: Tripolarity and Hitler’s Strategy of World Conquest*, Columbia University Press, New York [NY], 1998.

33 Zakaria, Fareed: *From Wealth to Power: The Unusual Origins of America’s World Role*, Princeton University Press, Princeton [NJ], 1999.

34 Aaron L. Friedberg: “Ripe for Rivalry: Prospects for Peace in a Multipolar Asia”, *International Security*, 18(3), Winter 1993/94: pp. 5–33.

35 Stephen Walt: *Origins of Alliances*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, 1987.

against official institutions' tendency to restrict access to information.³⁶ However, given that he had previously defined security studies as "the study of the threat, use and control of military force",³⁷ going on to state that "it explores the conditions that make the use of force more likely, the ways that the use of force affects individuals, states and societies, and the specific policies that states adopt in order to prepare for, prevent or engage in war"³⁸, the 'deepeners' and especially the 'broadeners' of the concept, who tended to include various subjects/objects of security (like individuals or groups) and various risks, challenges or threats (like environmental issues or massive epidemics) in the analysis, could not have been satisfied.³⁹

Realism and realists have been involved in several other important debates on the theory and history of international relations. Most of the important debates took place on the pages of the prestigious journal *International Security*. Of course, the end of the Cold War brought about the first correspondence, between John J. Mearsheimer on one side, and Stanley Hoffmann and Robert O. Keohane on the opposing side.⁴⁰ It represented another episode in a realist-institutionalist debate, in which the opponents criticized an alleged realist inability to explain, let alone predict, the important outcomes in world politics – aiming at Mearsheimer's prospects for war in Europe in the expected absence of superpower rivalry, or a reduced strength and role of institutions like the EU and NATO. Some actors and much of the topics were the same several years later, in a debate between Mearsheimer and several authors of either liberal-institutionalist or social-constructivist background.⁴¹ The social-constructivist arguments have proven to have features that, in the dialogue with realism, come up as both strengths and weaknesses: namely, their radically different ontological and epistemic stance provides social constructivists with the ability to offer a strong alternative to realist assumptions of international system; however, this very feature makes an actual inter-paradigmatic dialogue pretty complicated, due to the lack of a significant common denominator.⁴² Mearsheimer came out of the debate as a more successful party, after the events in the reality of international relations have proven to assume the direction he had predicted. It is fair to say that, instead of a great power war in Europe, there was a great war of minor powers (for Yugoslav succession), and that the weaknesses of the EU and NATO became apparent more than two decades later, with the migrant crisis and the crisis involving Russia and Turkey, regarding Syria, at the end of 2015 – but these outcomes are much closer to Mearsheimer's predictions than to those of his opponents.

36 Stephen Walt: "The Renaissance of Security Studies", *International Studies Quarterly*, 35(2), June 1991: pp. 224-228.

37 *Ibid.*, p. 212.

38 *Ibid.*

39 Edward Kolodziej: "Renaissance of Security Studies? Caveat Lector!", *International Studies Quarterly*, 36(1), December 1992: 421-438; Keith Krause and Michael Williams: "Broadening the Agenda of Security Studies: Politics and Methods", *Mershon International Studies Review*, 40(2), October 1996: pp. 229-254.

40 John J. Mearsheimer: "Back to the future: instability in Europe after the Cold War", *International Security* 15(1), Summer 1990: pp. 5-56; Stanley Hoffman *et al.*: "Correspondence – Back to the Future, Part II: International Relations Theory and Post-Cold War Europe", *International Security* 15(2), Fall 1990: pp. 191-199; Bruce M. Russett *et al.*: "Back to the Future, Part III: Realism and the Realities of European Security", *International Security*, 15(3), Winter 1990/1991: pp. 216-222.

41 John J. Mearsheimer: "The False Promise of International Institutions", *International Security*, 19(3), Winter 1994/1995: pp. 5-49; Robert O. Keohane and Lisa L. Martin: "The Promise of Institutional Theory", *International Security*, 20(1), Summer 1995: pp. 39-51; Charles A. Kupchan and Clifford Cupchan: "The Promise of Collective Security", *International Security*, 20(1), Summer 1995: pp. 52-61; John Gerrard Ruggie: "The False Promise of Realism", *International Security*, 20(1), Summer 1995: pp. 62-70; Alexander Wendt: "Constructing International Politics", *International Security*, 20(1), Summer 1995: pp. 71-81; John J. Mearsheimer: "A Realist Reply", *International Security*, 20(1), Summer 1995: pp. 82-93.

42 See also Wendt's assessment of Waltz's notion of structure in Alexander Wendt: *Social Theory of International Politics*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1999, *passim*.

After being exposed to the criticism by the ‘broadeners’ and ‘deepeners’ of the concept of security, Stephen Walt was once again involved in a debate in 1999. This time the issue of contention was methodological, along the lines of the so-called Second Great Debate in International Relations, and the argument took place in *International Security*, only to be collected afterwards and published as a monograph.⁴³ Stephen Walt has argued against the overwhelming use of quantitative, formal models in international relations and security studies, criticizing the increased prominence of formal rational choice theory. Walt offers a threefold criterion for evaluating social science theories, acknowledging that the “fundamental aim of social science is to develop useful knowledge about human social behavior”.⁴⁴ Walt’s tools for judging a theory are logical consistency and precision, degree of originality and empirical validity. In spite of the efforts invested by the proponents of formalization, their approach can get a passing grade only within the first criterion (especially regarding precision), while within the other two it fails miserably.⁴⁵ This is the line of arguments that has been modified and re-applied in a newer article by Walt and Mearsheimer.⁴⁶

The least successful criticism has been presented within an otherwise fruitful debate at the end of 1999, once again in *International Security*, with Jeffrey Legro and Andrew Moravcsik trying to reassess almost the entirety of contemporary realist thought, while providing their own (re)classification of international relations theories, to include realism, liberalism, institutionalism, and so-called epistemic theory.⁴⁷ This correspondence served as a good occasion for some notable realists (including Randall L. Schweller, Jeffrey W. Talliaferro or William C. Wohlforth) to reemphasize their own affection for realist theory and to further demonstrate the variety and diversity of approaches within realist tradition, while insisting on the steadiness of realism’s theoretical foundations.⁴⁸

CONCLUSION: THE ENDURING RELEVANCE OF REALIST THEORY

Even when confronted with a fruitful and complex criticism from the liberal, constructivist or post-structural wing of theoretical spectrum,⁴⁹ realist theory remains a strong theoretical edifice, well-endowed for providing scientific descriptions, explanations and predictions about international politics. Sometimes realist theory proves to be resistant to the arrows shot by other paradigms; at other times the arrows miss it completely. Each time, international theory gains, since all of the intra- and inter-paradigm debates contribute significantly to the development of ‘useful knowledge about human social behavior’ (Walt), or at least to the improvement of tools to reach it.

Special quality of the realist theory lies in its ability to acknowledge the transformations within the international arena, which instigate the changes of the theory itself. Furthermore, some of the key concepts or issues, such as balance of power or security dilemma, are insufficiently, if at all, explored by non-realist paradigms. Still, as has been demonstrated in the cases

43 Michael E. Brown *et al.* (eds.): *Rational Choice and Security Studies – Stephen Walt and His Critics*, MIT Press, Cambridge [MA], 2000.

44 Stephen Walt: “Rigor or Rigor Mortis? Rational Choice and Security Studies”, *International Security*, 23(4), Spring 1999: p. 8.

45 *Ibid.*, pp. 8-44.

46 John J. Mearsheimer and Stephen M. Walt: *op. cit.*, pp. 427-457.

47 Jeffrey W. Legro and Andrew Moravcsik: “Is Anybody Still a Realist?”, *International Security*, 24(2), Fall 1999: pp. 5-55.

48 Peter Feaver *et al.*: “Correspondence – Brother, Can You Spare a Paradigm? (Or Was Anybody Ever a Realist?)”, *International Security*, 25(1), Summer 2000: pp. 165-193.

49 Filip Ejodus: „Poststrukturalna kritika realizma: tri strategije“, in: Dejan Jović (ed.): *Teorije međunarodnih odnosa: Realizam*, Politička kultura, Zagreb, 2013, pp. 213-227.

of authors like Carr, Morgenthau and Glaser (and it stands for many others as well), realism does not reject other theories in general; it analyzes and sometimes absorbs their most important stances in search for a more solid and mature theory. Notable authors have observed that “International relations theory is unnecessarily impoverished by exclusivist claims and by forgetting its history. Both Realist and Liberal theories have something to offer. Our current predicament is too serious to ignore either”.⁵⁰

On most occasions, realist aims to establish causal relations and determine universal social generalizations in the behavior of actors in international politics have been successful. Sometimes, objections originating from other paradigms or schools of thought have helped realism improve the precision of its analytical instruments. Fruitful theoretical debates aside, however, if we accept Imre Lakatos’s statement that theories can only be overturned by the development of a superior theory,⁵¹ it would seem that realism is here to stay.

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EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS AND RESCUE SERVICES AIMED AT RESPONDING TO CBRN THREATS RESULTING FROM USING DANGEROUS GOODS

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Abstract: Potential use of dangerous goods as one of the most inaccessible weapons would pose a serious form of chemical-biological-radiological-nuclear (CBRN) threat to national security. Globalization, the fluctuation of the population, the migrant crisis, the existence of war hot spots on one side and the necessity of using hazardous substances to maintain the stability of today's civilization are all preconditions and point to the high probability of their use as a potentially highly destructive weapons. Therefore, all countries must set up a system of preventive action, preparedness and training for effective response.

In this paper, we focus on practicing with the appropriate equipment, explain the types of hazardous materials, and then point to the potential use of hazardous substances. We aim to give an insight into current organizational and technical readiness of the heritage protection and rescue and in the field of preparedness and train members for an adequate response to the existing CBRN threats. Finally, we provide recommendations for improvement in this area.

Keywords: CBRN threat, use of hazardous materials, technical systems to work with hazardous materials, training for responding to CBRN events

INTRODUCTION

The number of dangerous goods, as a result of the development of science in the technology industry is growing. One of the security risks is certainly dangerous goods that daily threaten large numbers of people, the environment and property around the world, in the case of its use, or potential use, in the form of chemical- biological - radiological nuclear weapons (CBRN). The state as a carrier for social organizations, economic, social, general security environment carries the responsibility.

Despite the current existence of and improvement in security and protection against hazardous substances in the process of their production, transportation and distribution, the governments of all countries must take measures for an adequate response and reaction in case of misuse of dangerous goods by terrorists and terrorist groups and organizations. Preparedness and preventive action of the state is reflected in the counterterrorism intelligence and operational activities, and to take all measures to thwart potential terrorist attacks prior to their implementation, casualties and material damage. Another significant segment

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of the state's preparedness is planning, and obtaining system equipment for technical systems and making sure the forces and factors of protection and rescue systems in the country are able to do their job. In Serbia, the operating power of the Sector for Emergency Management (SEM) and Fire and Rescue Units (FRU) represent the protection response and rescue system for existing threats and risks, and give adequate response inappropriate transport of dangerous goods and the use CBRN for terrorist purposes.

HAZARDOUS MATERIALS AND CBRN THREAT

The classification of dangerous goods under the international agreement on the safe transport of dangerous goods which has been adopted by the legislative bodies of the Republic of Serbia, as defined within the European Agreement concerning the International Carriage of Dangerous Goods (ADR - European agreement concerning the international carriage of dangerous goods by road). In this sense, dangerous goods are classified in: Class 1 - explosive materials; Class 2 - Gases; Class 3 - flammable liquids; Class 4.1 - flammable solids; Class 4.2 - substances liable to spontaneous combustion; Class 4.3 - substances that in contact with water, releases flammable gases; Class 5.1 - oxidizing substances; Class 5.2 - Organic peroxides; Class 6.1 - toxic substances; Class 6.2 - Infectious substances; Class 7 - radioactive materials; Class 8 - corrosive substances and Class 9 - Other dangerous substances.

Defining dangerous substances and describing their potential use in terrorist activities is necessary as a measure in preparedness and response to CBRN. The most common types of dangerous goods are: Industrial chemicals, Biological agents and organisms, Nuclear and radiological materials, Flammable substances, Chemical agents and Explosive substances.

Industrial chemicals are readily available and are frequently transported. In combination with flammable or explosive material, they can become a deadly weapon.

Biological agents and organisms lead to deferred health, but their effects and symptoms may take a few hours, days, even weeks. If there is no specific information on pollution, the public is not even aware that the biological agent is present.

The radioactive material is any material which contains an unstable, radioactive atoms that are cleaved and emit radiation. The most dangerous radiation is ionizing radiation because it can cause short-term and long-term changes to human cells, such as cancer and leukemia.

Combustible compounds are made of one or more materials. Simple incinerators consist of fuel and an oxidizer. Arsonists use flammable materials in a way to cause fire and reduce the time required for reaching high temperatures, so that the fire spreads quickly.

Chemical agents are chemical compounds produced with the intention to be used as a weapon or as incapacitating agent to control the masses. Chemical agents have specific and predictable characteristics that make it easier to react to them than to biological agents. In many cases, the reaction to the incident involving chemical weapons equals the standard response to industrial chemicals incidents.

Explosive is a chemical compound, mixture or device designed as an explosive. Explosive materials decompose rapidly and produce gases under high pressure and heat rapidly expands and pushes the air around. This sends real energy shock in the air, which consists of positive and negative pressure pulses.

OPTIONS FOR THE USE OF DANGEROUS GOODS AND THE REALIZATION OF CBRN THREATS

When considering the security risks of a wider spectrum of terrorist targets, taking into account flammable liquids and gases, explosives and toxic - inhaled substances is a priority as a potential weapon of mass destruction - WMDs. In addition, we can mention pesticides that can be used to contaminate water or food supplies. Also, liquid oxygen can be used for enhancement of fire or explosion. Nuclear materials prepared and intended for medical items may be used to attack the administrative and other significant objects. Critical infrastructure can be damaged by strong corrosive substances. Flammable solids may be used for providing conditions for creation and maintenance of intensive fire.

FRU of the SEM in the period from 2001 to 2015 on average reacted to around 35,500 events per year, with a tendency of increase in the number of interventions. Of the total number of events, 0.3% are technical interventions involving dangerous substances (60 to 103 interventions annually). These figures suggest that the risk of chemical accidents, technical interventions with dangerous goods or the CBRN event is a reality.

CBRN THREATS RESPONSE HOLDERS

The security of each country is based on these four pillars: intelligence services, police, army, fire and rescue units with the civil defense units. Figure 1.



Figure 1: *Necessary vision of CBRN threats holders of response of Republic of Serbia*

Conventionally the response in the Republic of Serbia on CBRN threats comes from three organizational components: the Army of Serbia, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Security - intelligence (Security-Information Agency and military security services).

Security - intelligence system is the totality of the intelligence and security services and other state institutions that are engaged to collect, evaluate and distribute intelligence information, and to carry out other requests that are placed in their jurisdiction. Timely collection and processing of information gives the necessary information about potential targets and possible CBRN attacks, which represent the most important preventive measures from CBRN threats. The holders of security - intelligence system are the Security Information Agency and military security services. The Agency is a separate organization for protecting the security of the Republic of Serbia and detection and prevention activities aimed at undermining or destruction of constitutionally regulated system, as well as in research, data collection, processing and evaluation of the security-intelligence data and information relevant for the security of the Republic of Serbia.

Military security services are the Military Security Agency and Military Intelligence Agency. As part of the government, they are the integral part of the Ministry of Defence and accordingly, in addition to cooperation with other departments, they collect and analyze data that represent a threat to the country's occupational safety. The data is submitted to the General Staff of the Serbian Armed Forces and Minister of Defense.

The Ministry of Internal Affairs carries out statutory tasks of the state administration, with a goal to improve the safety of citizens and property, through providing support for the rule of law. In response to CBRN events in terms of direct conflict with terrorists and other factors, there are specialized units for fighting terrorism – SAJ, as well as special units of the police. The holder Affairs impairment effects CBRN events and prevents the spread effects of CBRN weapons, dangerous materials in their entirety, regulated establishment of the SEM.

The Army of Serbia defends vital state and national values and interests against armed attacks from outside and perform other missions and tasks in accordance with the constitution, the law and the principles of international law governing the use of force. The scope of the response Serbian Army has highly qualified, internationally recognized and respected special unit to fight with the effects of nuclear - biological - chemical weapons.

ORGANIZATION OF SECTOR FOR EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT

SEM, which is an integral part of the Ministry of the Interior, is responsible for its co-ordination activities of all entities of the protection and rescue systems. The Sector represents the basic and main carrier of activity in the emergence of a CBRN event, with the basic objective of preventing the spread and activity of CBRN weapons and dangerous materials in general.

In the center of the SEM following organizational units have been formed: Department for Preventive Protection, Department for FRU, the Department for Risk Management, and Directorate for Civil Protection. Organizational units outside the center of the SEM, depending on the formation and territory threat were formed as the Board and the SEM.

The task of preventive action within the Directorate for Preventive protection lies with Department for traffic control and transport of dangerous goods. The department is responsible for overseeing the production, sale and transportation of explosive materials.

Risk Management Department within the Directorate manages the risk of technical and technological accidents and consequences of terrorist attacks. Management addition conducts risk assessments of the accident, develops registers of companies and other legal entities that manage hazardous materials or building owners who are vulnerable in terms of terrorist attacks and prepares contingency plan in the Republic of Serbia.

OPERATIONAL FORCES OF THE SEM IN RESPONSE TO REALIZED CBRN THREATS

The main strength of the operational structure of SEM in response to technical and technological accidents and the consequences of CBRN terrorist attacks is the Department for FRU. Directorate coordinates operation and use of FRU throughout the Republic of Serbia. FRU is organized within the Department or the Division of Emergency Management in FRU platoons, companies, battalions and brigades. On the territory of the Republic of Serbia there is a total of 186 regional FRU, with a total of 4,524 positions.

The secondary level of response is organized through coordinated work of the Directorate for Civil Protection. The operability of this organizational unit is identified in two ways. The Civil Protection Department for Emergency Management is the holder of the formation and equipping of specialized civil protection units (in addition to others and for RCB protection²). Within the Directorate for Civil Protection there is a special department for the protection of unexploded lethal devices - ULD that performs daily destruction of unexploded lethal devices on the territory of the Republic of Serbia.

Specialized civil protection units for RCB³ protection are also included and they are in charge of: performing RCB reconnaissance, monitoring, laboratory analysis, decontamination, material - technical resources, equipment, land and buildings in the case of the use of radiological, chemical or biological weapons, participate in protection and rescue in occurrence of breakdowns and accidents RCB origin, participation in extinguishing the small fire, pumping water from flooded buildings, supplying citizens with drinking water, disinfection, pest and rodent control and sanitization, as well as other tasks related to the protection of RCB.

SECTOR FOR EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT EQUIPMENT

FRU give an adequate response to emergency events with dangerous goods and, following the event, they quickly deliver the necessary equipment and resources to the site which was a target of terrorist attacks and technological accidents. To do so, they use the dedicated transport means - fire trucks. After standardization (SRBS EN 1864) fire trucks are divided into several types on basis of their technical requirements and characteristics. In the terminology of we use here, it is seen as a vehicle for special purposes - "the vehicle for interventions involving dangerous substances." Department of Emergency Management has four special vehicles for technical interventions involving dangerous substances.

Commando - operative centers were formed as regional organizational units outside the head office of the Department for Emergency Management, within the operations and implementation of the tasks of FRU. As an integral part of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, SEM is with a unique ID connected to the information system of the Ministry of Interior, overnight Intranet⁴.

2 Radiological, chemical and biological protection (RCB).

3 Rules on the organization and use of specialized civil protection units ("RS Official messenger", No. 26/2011)

4 An Intranet is a system of networked computers, use of technologies based on the Internet within the organization, and to support communication and access to information. Intranet occurs when within a company network Internet application solutions, when using TCP / IP protocol, Web server, mail server and other servers. Intranet provides the ability to easily publish information necessary for the work of employees within the company, where should establish strict safety requirements in order to

Intranet as means of communication makes transmission of information necessary for the operation of emergency departments and organizational units of the Ministry easier. Strict safety requirements have been established in order to prevent its abuse and use by unauthorized persons.

In addition to the above Command - Operating Center has the necessary information technology and a sufficient number of personal computers with a large number of databases and modular software intended for work with dangerous goods. The database enables us to quickly and efficiently identify the materials in case of accidents, the danger it carries, as well as the procedure to neutralize and rehabilitate.

The command centers operating in use of software packages for modeling the hazards of chemical accidents are: ERGO 2004, OPMat2000, ERICards, CAMEO and ALOHA software ARGOS CBRN.

In addition determining what kind of matter works, and if it is present in the atmosphere, we must find out its concentration. Based on the way the presence or concentration of hazardous substances is determined, present technical systems for the detection and dosimetry can be divided into three main sections: devices for visual detection of the presence of hazardous substances, devices for detecting vapors and aerosols of hazardous substances and Dosimeters - radioactivity detectors.

One of the basic safety measures during treatment of chemical accidents is to define hazards released or spilled hazardous materials. The success of the measures taken for safety and protection of participants in replying to chemical accidents depends largely on when the danger is discovered. The group of devices for visual detection of the presence of hazardous substances are classified in two groups: optical equipment and thermal imaging cameras.

FRU needs technical equipment to respond to CBRN event, and addresses world renowned producers of equipment in the field of detection and monitoring, for a number of their devices such as Dräger, MSA, Hazmat KIT Dräger colorimetric system, Dräger 1000 Quantimeter, explosimeter Dräger Pac Ex2 and Dräger Combiwarn C, multi-gas detector Dräger X-am 2000 Dräger X-am 7000, "Multiry" APD 2000 and Mini weather station Silva.

The most exposed and most vulnerable organ system to the effects of dangerous substances in case of chemical accidents is the respiratory system, (together with sight), technical systems and devices for respiratory protection represent basic protection. FRU of the SEM are primarily equipped with appliances for respiratory protection based on the principle of isolation, and it is a priority. All FRU have devices for respiratory protection based on the principle of isolation, of which 98% are semi open systems.

FRU of the SEM have the necessary number of first-level protection so-called chemical protective suits. The suits are produced by world-renowned manufacturers, namely Tecimax, Trelleborg, Trellechem TLU, Dräger Master Team, MSA Auer and others.

When FRU first comes on the scene, in addition to other tasks in response to a CBRN - chemical accidents, they have the task to stop spills and leaks of dangerous substances from a transport tank or storage capacity – in this task, VETTER and SAVA products are used.

Emergency services activities in responding to the terrorist attack and in cases of the transport of dangerous goods or the chemical contamination, involve work on removing the bulk hazardous materials from the site. Streaming and collecting is done with special-purpose equipment and for this purpose FRU have 16 special pumps DEPA ELRO FLUX, "MAST" Ziegler "3/1 and others. Technical system transports the equipment with which they perform streaming dangerous substances from one container to another. Some of the equipment for loading has a dual function, and with them they can both stream and collect.

prevent abuse and their unauthorized use. You must control the disclosure of information to prevent imprecision and prevented the flow of inappropriate information.

Decontamination is the process of removing or neutralizing dangerous particulate matter with the people, protective equipment and techniques. Decontamination can be treated partially or fully. The equipment fire - rescue unit applies for decontamination is VETTER equipment, and decontamination device "Hot Box".

As part of improving the work of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, as the holder of responses to CBRN threats, TETRA was introduced - European standard for professional radio communications. As a result of user requirements and Schengen telecom regulatory working group, the European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI) has created the first truly open standard for European PMR (Professional Mobile Radio) called TETRA⁵.

In order to improve and modernize the equipment, at the end of 2014, the SEM obtained four special devices in cooperation with the Russian - Serbian humanitarian center⁶. It is the MVF-5 multifunction robotic system with remote control.

This technical system is used to identify and detect the presence of gases and vapors at the site. Surveying and conducting the initial triage activities, fire extinguishing and disposing of hazardous materials from the scene, removing the danger, photographing the site and sending images to the operational Staff follows. Next is drawing (traction) of other vehicles in the existing zones of increased concentration of hazardous substances.

Multifunctional robotic system is equipped with highly sophisticated surveillance and multi-purpose tools, such as functional detection sensors (heat, explosive gases and oxygen), chemical biological detectors, several functional cameras to monitor the job, tools for hazardous materials transfer and traction systems. MVF-5 system is operated from a safe distance up to 1,500 meters. The device has a built-in GPS - INS (global positioning system - inertial navigation system) which enables autonomous return to home position if there is an interruption of contact with the control device or the person who manages the system, even if it loses radio communications. Sophisticated video system allows the operator to have full control of the vehicle during operation.

TRAINING FOR RESPONSE TO CBRN THREATS

The effectiveness of response to CBRN realized threats that arose as a result of terrorist attacks with the use of hazardous substances, depends mostly on the skills and competences of members of the forces involved in the response. Sector for Emergency Management provides and implements training and professional development to all structures of protection and rescue system for preparation, planning and emergency events and situations, planned operations and activities of the National Training Center for Emergency Situations. The process of implementing education, training and development is in accordance with the Law, ISO 10015⁷ and other European standards.

5 Mladen V., „TETRA - evropski standard u profesionalnim radio komunikacijama – korak ka efikasnijem i kvalitetnijem radu službi javne bezbednosti,” Professional conference EXPO 112, Belgrad, 2012

6 Russian-Serbian humanitarian center was established in accordance with Art. 120. 3 and 4 of the Law on Emergency Situations (Official messenger no. 111/09, 92/11, 93/12) Humanitarian Centre is a legal entity established in accordance with the Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Serbia and the Government of the Russian Federation on cooperation in the area of humanitarian emergency response, prevention of natural disasters and technogenic accidents and elimination of their consequences (“Official messenger of RS - International Treaties”, No. 10/10) and operates in accordance with the regulations governing the public service based in Niš.

7 ISO 10015 international standard for quality management in training.

The training of operational forces of fire and rescue unit of the Sector for Emergency Management for response provides four different types of training related to CBRN threats (typically chemical accidents and other forms of threats from hazardous substances).

The first type of training is Basic course for working in fire-rescue units⁸ for the operational forces. The program was adopted by the Minister of Interior⁹. The course is organized in educational centers for training of fire - rescue units. During the training attendees become familiar with the basics of working with hazardous substances. Through theoretical and practical training with the technical systems and equipment, they are prepared for interventions in events with hazardous substances. All 3,200 (at the time) firefighters - rescuers of the Emergency situation have passed the basic level.

Another type of training is to maintain and improve the existing knowledge and conducted in so-called regular training of members of fire-rescue units, which is being implemented through "Program of professional training of police officers"¹⁰. The program is carried out each year by the Minister of Interior. The training is being implemented within the means of fire-rescue units or in buildings where the attendees are on duty¹¹ and in regular work. Through this in-service, theoretical and practical training, the attendees refresh their knowledge and skills, as well as adopt new knowledge, arising from the practice, science, or new legal policies necessary for the lawful, efficient and safe performance of the interventions with hazardous substances. Adoption of new ideas is carried out, in addition to training sessions organized by the composition of the FRU, and by the National Training Center for Emergency Management through the one-day seminars held in fire-rescue units. Since the establishment of the National Training Center for Emergency in 2009, training was organized for 1230 operational managers of FRU.

The third type of training is the training and qualification of operational managers within the fire - rescue units. Training is carried out according to the "Program for the specialist course work interventions with hazardous substances" 01 - 172-2 /, 2008. The program was adopted by the Minister interior Affairs. During the training operational managers of FRU train for management interventions with hazardous substances. Training is carried out in educational centers for the training of FRU. Through the implementation of this training, since the adoption of the program in 2008, 106 operational level managers have been trained.

The fourth type of training is organizing and presenting at international seminars and exercises, as well as sending members of fire - rescue units to training in international centers. An example is permanent organization Command- simulation exercise response system with a scenario of chemical accidents and CBRN events. Support for this form of training comes from international organizations and initiatives such as: OESC Mision in Serbia, CMEP SEE DPPI SEE, DEMA and others.

As part of the implementation of lessons learned in international experience in responding to CBRN events, members of the service are sent to training according to NATO standards (Centre for Professional Training Directorate for fire safety and civil protection Bulgaria, the School for the fire rescue tasks of Lithuania, the Academy for Crisis Management and Civil Protection Germany and etc.)

8 Original title is "Basic specialist course for police officers to work in the fire-rescue units", 01 - 7387 / 13-3
9 Is adopted in accordance with Article 154 paragraph 1 of the Law on Police ("Official messenger of the Republic of Serbia", No. 101 of 21.11.2005, 63/2009 - making and 92/2011)

10 Same - be adopted in accordance to Article 154, Paragraph 1 of the Law on Police ("Official messenger of the Republic of Serbia", No. 101 of 21.11.2005, 63/2009 - making and 92/2011),

11 Duty hours is organized so that it can provide steady work units and always constant mobility and the ability for rapid and effective intervention.

CONCLUSION

The most terrifying concept of endangering national security, which can be imagined in any modern government of any country in the world, is the use of hazardous substances such as CBRN weapons by terrorists and terrorist organizations. There is no country in the world that can state with certainty that it is not a potential target for terrorist attacks.

In the future, the willingness and the ability of members of the competent authorities for preventive action and preparedness, and those in charge of emergency response on use of hazardous substances or CBRN weapons there will be many times put to the test. The future brings increasing challenges for the readiness and qualifications of members of the emergency services to be able to oppose terrorist attacks in an appropriate way. Use of not conventional weapons, especially of hazardous substances as a weapon, complicates the conduct of members of the emergency services.

Above mentioned indicates the necessary improvement and development of the Sector for Emergency Management as one of the basic pillars of security of the Republic of Serbia. (Figure 1). Separation of the service in the self-organization of state government would ensure an adequate pace of development and preparedness state administration for an adequate response to a CBRN event.

The relevant emergency services must be prepared to respond to use dangerous substances, causing emergency and crisis situations. In order to fulfill all that is expected of it, the heritage protection and rescue system of Republic of Serbia, Sector for Emergency Management, must develop procedural actions of the emergency services involved in the response to a CBRN threat, enable all members of the operating structure through training and adequately equip them so they can operate in emergencies involving hazardous substances. The seriousness of the country in preparing for response to the terrorist attacks caused by the use of CBRN materials can be seen through the adoption of national plans and procedures in response to this type of threat. The relevant planning authorities should in time bring and develop plans and procedures for handling all emergency services jointly and severally. There must also be ongoing, regular and frequent functionality checkups of the adopted plans and procedures.

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Topic VI

FORENSIC LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE
FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

THE CV-CLIP AS A META-LEARNING STUDENT - TAILORED ACTIVITY WITHIN CLIL AT FMG

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Abstract: The present study focuses on the video clip as a new modal approach in foreign language learning, striving to move away from traditional methods of foreign language teaching and enabling students to apply their acquired language skills in a more meaningful and realistic way. The arguments for pedagogy are discussed from a three-fold perspective: (a) the didactic practice of student-created authentic materials for improving self-confidence and autonomy in language in the CLIL classroom, (b) the propagation and facilitation of students' meta-cognitive and meta-learning skills (c) facilitating access to the labor market or potential target scientific environment. The research presented in this paper is based on a questionnaire as an instrument for measuring the importance the students from the Faculty of Mining and Geology (FMG) place on the appropriateness and effectiveness of the CV-clip as a language learning tool. The results also provided insights into student understanding of CLIL, especially regarding multimodality and the necessity for independence in language studies for all of their future endeavors, be they academic or vocational. The implications of this research are such that they can be used by foreign language teachers both in CLIL classrooms and in traditional ESP classes bearing in mind that student motivation and meta-cognition are the main driving forces in any FLT context related to higher education and potential career development.

Keywords: CV-clip, CLIL, meta-learning, career development, oral communication

INTRODUCTION

This article elaborates several theoretical bases for using a CV-clip as an authentic video material in foreign language classes. Beginning with the assumption that language acquisition and language use are the two sides of the same coin, whereby every student inevitably plays a proactive role in their language development and fulfillment, the authors of the study describe the advantages of authentic, student-made video footage as a functional attempt to acquire, use, accommodate, improve, and modify the linguistic knowledge, behavior and experience of each and every student. CV-clips permit students to construct an image of themselves in a concrete, realistic context since language itself is always embedded in the context of specific situations in which particular linguistic forms are represented more than universal. Therefore, the CV-clip as a meta-cognitive linguistic tool attempts to confirm the benefits of autonomous learning in which students slowly become aware of the importance of reflecting on their own knowledge construction, improvement and achievement, along with the way the learning occurs.

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What is also important to take into account when discussing the CV-clip utilisation in the ELT environment is that a task conceptualised in this way needs to be constantly fine-tuned and revised so as to meet students' real expectations and needs. In layman's terms- the students need to know what the point of it all is. That is to say, constant positive reinforcement and feedback are required in the form of teacher-student consultations as well as an assessment of student attitudes toward the task once it has been completed, where they are free to voice their opinions on the aforementioned issues. One such assessment, conducted in the form of a questionnaire, shall be discussed later in the paper.

THE CV-CLIP IN THE CONTEXT OF AUTHENTICITY IN THE CLIL CLASSROOM

The argument for the pedagogy of meta-learning by means of CV-clip is intended for the development of a new pattern of language instruction and learning in higher education, or, in other terms, it is intended to create a change in the classroom environment by means of a new didactic tool or activity.

There are many reasons that justify the motifs for a change in school settings, and almost all of them are grouped around the need to reflect on dynamic learning, how technology supports the learning and knowledge, what makes it effective, and why our students ought to devote more of their time thinking about their future career opportunities.

Authentic materials relate to many areas that touch to: language production similar to that of native speakers², personal engagement³, real life tasks and situations⁴, culture and target language group behavior⁵. The multitude of the abovementioned aspects, however diffusive they may appear, can be outlined in a single activity: the CV clip. The first argument in favor of it corresponds to what Hutchinson & Waters called "fitness to the learning purpose"⁶. The purposefulness is reflected not only in taking into account the learning processes as educational goals related to some specific institution, but to gain cognitive maturity and positive self-esteem.

The second argument touches on authenticity where the CV-clip is perceived as a genuine activity, task or material which reflects or represents a student's "stretch of real language produced for a real audience and designed to convey a real message"⁷. The CV-clip serves to illustrate the current potential of the student; it mirrors their good or poor learning, revealing simultaneously the attitudes, hopes and levels of aspiration in life. In this way, both teachers and learners can acquire the necessary knowledge of learning problems with the aim to mutually solve them.

2 Little, D. & D. Singleton (1991). Authentic texts, pedagogical grammar and language awareness in foreign language learning. In C. James & P. Garrett (eds.), *Language awareness in the classroom*. London: Longman, 123-132

3 Van Lier, L. (1996) *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. London: Longman

4 Lewkowicz, J.(2000) Authenticity in language testing: Some outstanding question. *Language testing* 17.1, 43-64;

Van Lier, L, op. cit.; Guariento, W. & J. Morley (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal* 55.4, 347-353

5 Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 279-294

6 Hutchinson, T. & A. Waters (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

7 Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic material and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 40. pp 97-118. doi: 10.1017/S0261444807004144

Another very important aspect of the CV-clip is its holistic nature, in that it can serve a myriad of purposes and be good opportunities to train students' dynamic nature of learning and hopefully self-representation. We can enumerate some of them: identification of the main words/concepts/phrases, underlying key ideas, summarizing, understanding, reasoning, the art of representation, elaboration, organization, affective reaction, etc. Although this separation of different operations may seem artificial, they all refer to one communicative event which is expected to be contextually bound and formally balanced and organized.

Finally but equally important is developing students' self-confidence which is a significant contribution to the existing academic content and skills agenda. It should be noted that embedding the workplace concept and applied learning skills within language courses adds a professional dimension to academia. A good application of the CV-clip activity when it is woven through the entire fabric of language course, threads the learning outcomes with professional experience and competences in the way that if the primary purpose of the learning is to get the knowledge, then the secondary is to get a job and show the knowledge.

META-COGNITION AND META-LEARNING

Having mentioned CLIL, its primary aim is to improve both the learner's knowledge about the subject and their language skills⁸, a seemingly simple duality. More precisely however, the aforementioned duality was further expounded into the four Cs of CLIL by Coyle⁹:

- Communication: improving overall target language competence;
- Content: learning the knowledge and skills of the subject (in this case the knowledge and skills pertaining to the areas of mining and geology);
- Culture: building intercultural knowledge and understanding;
- Cognition: developing thinking skills.

While the benefits of working on the first three Cs are apparent, the authors feel that for the purposes of this paper special focus ought to be placed upon the significance of cognition in the learning process. The propagation of meta-cognition in the CLIL classroom is crucial for students' meaningful knowledge acquisition as well as their becoming effective, lifelong learners¹⁰. The students who are the subject of this paper are sophomores at the FMG and are unlikely to have ever seriously reflected upon their learning strategies or the methods by which they could further their future career prospects. A claim has been assessed via a questionnaire, the results of which shall be presented later in this paper.

It is of crucial importance to develop the meta-cognitive and meta-learning skills of students since it is these skills which allow them to properly process and internalise newly acquired skills and knowledge. Upon reflecting on these, students begin to construct a firm foundation for their knowledge and skills to spiral out further, thus allowing them to expand and build upon them¹¹. Additionally, understanding and being aware of one's own learning abilities, weaknesses, habits, strategies etc. is the first step in being able to enhance and, where needed, rectify them. Since meaningful realisation regarding one's learning skills takes time (not

8 Marsh, D. (2002). *Content and Language Integrated Learning: The European Dimension - Actions, Trends and Foresight Potential*. University of Jyväskylä

9 Coyle, D. 2007, "CLIL: towards a connected research agenda for CLIL pedagogies", *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10:5,543-562

10 Metcalfe, J. (2008). *Evolution of metacognition*. In J. Dunlosky & R. Bjork (Eds.), *Handbook of meta-cognition and learning*. Lawrence Erlbaum

11 Kolb, A., & Kolb, D. A. (2009). The learning way: Meta-cognitive aspects of experiential learning. *Simulation Gaming*, 40, 297-327. doi:10.1177/1046878108325713

to mention initiating a proper course of action and seeing it through to the end), it is of vital importance that students be exposed to meta-learning strategies and given the opportunity to reflect upon and think about their experiences in the classroom in a meaningful, thorough way.

This opportunity is provided by the CV clip because, not only do students employ their knowledge in a real and practical way, they also gain a unique insight into their self-representation skills, language skills, communicative skills both verbal and non-verbal.

Consequently, students are offered the chance to experience and activate their knowledge in a real and practical way which gives them a unique insight into their abilities via self-reflection in a literal sense since they can see and hear themselves in the video clip, probably for the first time, mock-applying for an internship, scholarship, job etc. They are then able to objectively observe themselves without any interference from the language teacher, self-assess and proceed to realise on their own what their mistakes were, thereby exemplifying the core principle of meta-learning wherein learners increasingly become aware of the knowledge they have acquired, begin to take control of the habits and means of achieving it as well as understanding the phenomenon of learning and being able to modify their learning approach to deal with various learning situations¹².

THE LABOR MARKET AND THE CV-CLIP

It is a mistake to assume that provision of theoretical knowledge with practical experience along with a good GPA is an assurance of employability¹³. To have good marks and work experience does not ensure that a student develops various prerequisites such as cognitive, social, practical, and cultural for success in getting a job. Likewise, a repertoire of attributes and achievements in educational settings may have a general academic value which turns out to be insufficient for labor-market situations and suitability for a wide variety of specific posts.

Since this can be seen as a curricular issue and lack of curricular provision, the activity of creating a personal CV, cover letter and CV-clip is an attempt to supply the aforementioned necessity. Understood as a process or a set of activities, this curricular alignment is meant to focus on the students' performance, individual psychological conditions that underpin their performance at the given time, enriched with some specific, vocationally useful elements¹⁴.

The list of skills or qualities is offered more to make students sensible to skills and qualities in the sense that their attention needs to be given not only to the content to be learned, but also to the processes through which that learning takes place, along with employability-related learning. In such circumstances, study units are not overloaded with expectations, rather realistically address the idea of coherence of progression which should be attained in the first phase of its application.

Personal qualities:

- Self-awareness: awareness of own strengths and weaknesses, aims and values.
- Self-confidence: confidence in dealing with the challenges that employment and life throw up.
- Adaptability: ability to respond positively to changing circumstances and new challenges.
- Willingness to learn: commitment to ongoing learning to meet the needs of employment and life.

12 Biggs, J. (2003) *Teaching for quality learning at university (2nd edition)*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press; Maudsley, D.B. (1979). *A Theory of Meta-Learning and Principles of Facilitation: An Organismic Perspective*. University of Toronto

13 Biggs, J. op. cit

14 Baty, P (2002) Go ahead for corporate degrees. *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, 29 November, p. 1

- Reflectiveness: the disposition to reflect evaluatively on the performance of oneself and others.
- Malleable self-theory: belief that attributes are not fixed and can be developed.

General qualities:

- Language skills: possession of more than a single language
- Listening: focused attention in which key points are recognised.
- Oral presentation: clear and confident presentation of information to a group.
- Explaining: orally and in writing along with justifying a point of view.
- Creativity: ability to be original or inventive and to apply literal thinking.
- Global awareness: in terms of both cultures and economics.

Process skills:

- Commercial awareness: operating with an understanding of business issues and priorities.
- Political sensitivity: appreciates how organisations actually work and act accordingly.
- Ethical sensitivity: appreciates ethical aspects of employments and acts accordingly.
- Applying subject understanding: use of disciplinary understanding from the high education programme.
- Prioritising: ability to rank task, qualities, skills according to importance and situation.
- Planning: setting of achievable goals and structuring action¹⁵.

QUESTIONNAIRE

As most students have never undertaken a task such as this before, it is important that teachers remain sensitive to student attitudes and feedback while developing ways to include the CV-clip into the ELT courses. Hence, a questionnaire was deemed the most useful for assessing student attitudes toward the CV-clip as a tool for expanding their cognitive and meta-cognitive abilities, gaining new language and technical skills as well as reinforcing and expanding existing linguistic, academic and vocational knowledge.

The questionnaire was distributed among 2nd year students who had successfully completed their English course at FMG. The language of the questionnaire is Serbian so as to ensure that the received feedback is as accurate and reliable as possible. The students were both male and female, approximately 21-22 years old. Additionally, as far as their English language ability is concerned they may be ranked from basic to independent users.

The questionnaire itself is of a Likert-type and comprises 9 statements evaluating students' opinions on the CV-clip's effectiveness in:

- Improving and reaffirming language skills (vocational and academic).
- Enhancing meta-cognitive abilities.
- Inspiring students to consider future career prospects.

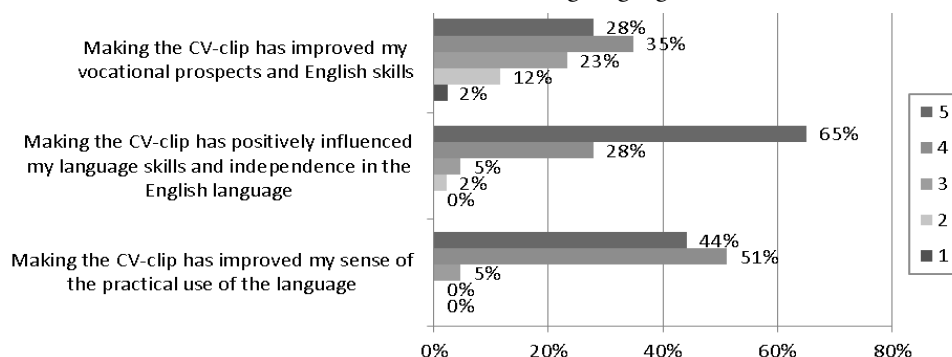
The respondents of the questionnaire were then asked to signify the degree to which they agree with the statements by circling a number from 1 to 5 where 5 corresponds to 'I completely agree' and 1 to 'I completely disagree'. 43 questionnaires were distributed and all were returned.

¹⁵ Bennett, N., Dunne, E. and Carré. C. (2000) *Skills development in higher education and employment*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Given the overall enthusiasm with which they approached the task and the quality of the clips submitted at the exam, it is not surprising that student response to the CV-clip in respect to all of its multi-modal purposes was generally positive. It is likely that the novelty of the task played a great part in why the CV-clip was met with such approval.

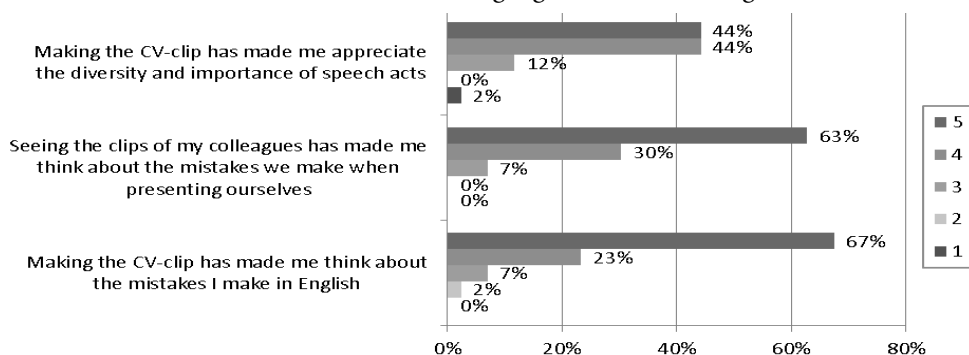
Table 1: *Statements concerning language skills*



Regarding the domain of language independence and offering students a valuable insight into possible, practical uses of the English language, students responded favourably. The CV-clip task had a positive effect on students from all levels of the language spectrum, proving to be both a confidence booster as well as facilitating the role of ELT as something that can be used in a real-life situation for the benefit of the speaker.

On the other hand, one of the weak spots of the CV-clip in its current iteration has proved to be its capacity to improve students' vocational knowledge of English (language related to mining engineering in this case). Since the CV-clip is still being piloted, the main focus is still on familiarising students with its concept as well as focusing on professional and career-related vocabulary. Nonetheless, this feedback is definitely valuable as it provides information on which segments of the CV-clip multi-modal nature need to be expounded in future courses thereby rounding out its true potential.

Table 2: *Statements concerning cognition and meta-cognition*

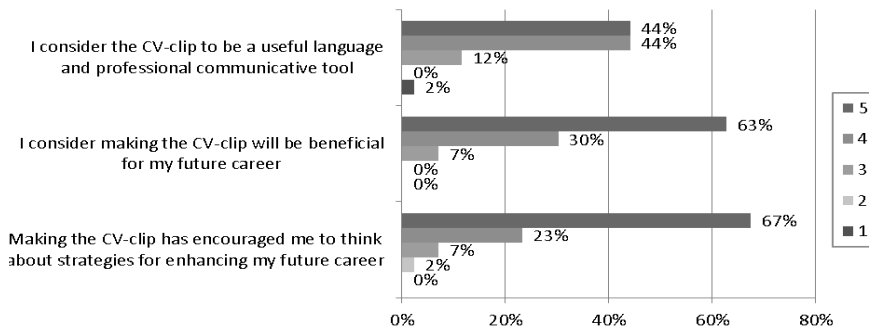


The questionnaire results from the domain of cognition and meta-cognition indicate that the CV-clip provided a unique opportunity for students to gain insights into their own mistakes as well as those of their colleagues. This, in turn, enables them to form a more authentic image

of themselves as real speakers of the language and to take more responsibility for their mistakes after having seen them on the screen of a monitor, loud and clear for everybody to see.

The importance of such authenticity has been recognized by the respondents of this questionnaire. Once again, the majority of students have come to recognise the weight of speech acts and just how crucial even the tiniest mistake could be when faced with producing near-flawless English or looking professional enough for a potential scholarship interview or prospective employer. Whichever might be the case, it would seem that, according to the responses herein, the CV-clip could be viewed as a useful instrument in developing students' meta-cognitive abilities overall.

Table 3: *Statements concerning career development*



Finally, in the segment of the questionnaire concerning career development, students were once again of the opinion that the use of the CV-clip is a positive development. Venturing slightly into the territory of meta-cognition, the overwhelming majority of respondents has been inspired to think of more ways of enhancing their future careers. Similarly, most feel that the CV-clip is already one of those tools that might be advantageous for their future career prospects.

Additionally, and tying in well with the realization of the importance of speech acts, respondents also recognise the usefulness of the CV-clip as a means to this very end, as a tool which is not only useful for language but for professional communication as well.

CONCLUSION

We have discussed the use of the CV-clip in the CLIL classroom from multiple standpoints. It may tentatively be concluded that the CV-clip has been well-received by students despite it seemingly being uncharted territory, both for students and the professor. What the CV-clip has done though, is raise the overall language confidence of students of all profiles, offer students the opportunity to practice their English in a more authentic/simulated environment and make them see the usefulness of ELT in a real situation.

This overall increase in the quality and confidence is further facilitated by providing students the chance to objectively and maturely assess their own knowledge, as well as that of their colleagues and not only learn from that corpus of mistakes, but to develop and adjust their learning strategies as well. Most interestingly however, it would seem, given the feedback received, that the students were also cognizant of the progress made and meta-cognitive strategies and skills employed. What all of this ultimately leads to is young professionals who approach their future career plans in a thoughtful, profound way, one which utilises the CV-clip as its integral part.

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DRUG ADDICTS' SLANG THROUGH PRISM OF FORENSIC LINGUISTICS

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Abstract: The process of counteracting drug abuse entails continuous improvement of methods and instruments for detecting crimes related to the abuse of narcotics and other psychoactive substances. One of the most important functions of criminal slang is to ensure secrecy of criminal activities. In the process, the study of criminal slang as a non-standard linguistic variety may be very useful in combating crime. This paper presents linguistic properties of slang used by drug addicts. The knowledge and understanding of this linguistic variety may facilitate the detection of criminal offenders involved in narcotics abuse and contribute to the prevention of drug abuse. In particular, this paper focuses on semantic and syntactic characteristics of drug-addicts' slang, considering their importance in criminology and criminalistics. The aim of this paper is to underscore the need for a multidisciplinary approach in combating drug addiction as well as the need to ensure active participation of criminologists, criminal investigators and forensic linguists in this process. These issues are particularly important given that the potential and developments in forensic linguistics (in general) and the linguistic analysis of slang used by specific criminal offender groups (in particular) have been insufficiently explored in theoretical studies and applied in practice.

Keywords: forensic/criminal linguistics, slang, drug addiction.

INTRODUCTION

Forensic linguistics is a branch of applied linguistics² which deals with analyzing linguistic issues relevant to judicial/court proceedings. Forensic linguistics includes a special discipline of criminal linguistics which studies the language of criminal groups and individuals demonstrating different forms of delinquent behavior with an aim to facilitate the detection of crimes and their perpetrators. Criminal linguistics is a distinct criminological discipline aimed at identifying, studying and interpreting the language and script used by criminal offenders; it focuses on the interpretation of specific linguistic terms and expressions for the purpose of ensuring a more efficient detection of deliberately planned criminal offences and/or providing evidence for committed criminal offences.³ In a nutshell, forensic linguistics involves the application of linguistic knowledge, methods and techniques in uncovering those criminal acts that are committed exclusively by using language. Forensic linguists can help solve all those cases involving a disputable meaning of words, sentences or text, or the author identification, regardless of the type of dispute (criminal or civil), judicial procedure (pre-trial, criminal trial or appeal proceedings), or the party (prosecution or defense) seeking such expertise.⁴

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2 See: Forensic linguistics, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Forensic_linguistics, Accessed 12.01.2016.

3 Jovašević, D. *Leksikon krivičnog prava* (Criminal Law Lexicon), Službeni glasnik, Beograd, 2006, p.263

4 Manojlović, D, Nikolić-Novaković, L., *Forenzička lingvistika - uporednopravni i kriminalistički*

Unfortunately, the potential of this scientific discipline has been insufficiently recognized and used in criminal proceedings in the Republic of Serbia. The reasons are many but the most significant one is certainly the fact that Serbia has very few experts in this area; according to the available information, forensic linguistics is neither taught as a separate course of study nor included in the university curricula at any higher education institution in Serbia. The fact that forensic linguistics is still underdeveloped and ill-positioned in legal theory and practice, particularly those pertaining to criminal and police law in Serbia, speaks for itself. The lack of forensic linguistic specialists in the police is a consequence of inability to resolve the enduring problem of job specification, which is a great challenge in the development of contemporary police activities. The introduction of modern methods for combating crime imposes the need to recruit specialists in this field. The process of transcribing, analyzing and transferring an intercepted piece of communication from electronic devices into written form by experts of other professional profiles, rather than forensic linguists, is not conducive to the efficiency of either criminal investigation or criminal justice proceedings.⁵ In all these areas, the work of forensic linguists is essential as they assist the police, the prosecution office and the courts in combating increasingly sophisticated types of crimes, such as various forms of organized crime and cybercrime.

Inter alia, a subject matter of study in criminal linguistics is slang used by criminal offenders. By definition, slang is a colloquial deviation from the standard linguistic usage, which is often imaginative, lively and inventive in its construction. It especially appeals to those who want to be linguistically different from others. Criminal slang is a direct result of this desire as it makes it impossible or at least difficult to detect the crime and prosecute criminal offenders.⁶

An important task of criminal linguistics is to study slang used by criminal offenders. Slang is a non-standard, non-literary linguistic form. As such, it has its own linguistic features that make it distinct from the standard language. From the standpoint of criminal procedure, the analysis of criminal slang in each specific criminal case entails the expertise of a criminal linguistics specialist. The expertise implies procedural evidence-finding activities regulated by the criminal procedure legislation, the results of which may be the factual grounds for the offender's conviction. The expertise is required when the establishment or assessment of relevant facts call for obtaining an expert opinion from a competent person who has the necessary professional knowledge or skills in this area.⁷ When it comes to providing expertise in the slang or jargon used by the perpetrators of certain crimes, forensic/criminal linguists are the experts who have this kind of professional knowledge and skills. In developed countries, such as the United States, the knowledge in the field of criminal linguistics is extensively used in the process of crime detection and prosecution of criminal offenders involved in the commission of diverse criminal offences. In Serbia, criminal linguistics is still at the beginning of its development and practical application.

The paper provides an overview of linguistic features of slang used by drug addicts. The knowledge and understanding of this linguistic variety may facilitate the detection of criminal offenders involved in the abuse of narcotics and contribute to the prevention of drug abuse. Given the fact that criminal offences involving narcotics abuse are on the rise, the focal point of social reaction should be on an effort to combat this type of crime. In particular, this paper focuses on the semantic and syntactic characteristics of drug-addicts' slang, considering their

aspekti (Forensic Linguistics: comparative and criminal law aspects), *Strani pravni život*, no. 3, 2009, pp. 109-128

⁵ Manojlović, D, Nikolić-Novaković, L., op. cit, p. 126

⁶ Kristal D. *Kembrička enciklopedija jezika* (Crystal D., Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language), [edited by Hlebec G., Terzić B., Jovanović M., et al.], Nolit, Beograd, 1987, p.53

⁷ Đurđić, V. *Osnovi kriminalistike* (Introduction to Criminalistics), Centar za publikacije Pravnog fakulteta u Nišu, Niš, 2012, p.103

importance in criminology and criminalistics. The primary aim of this article is to highlight the need for a multidisciplinary approach in combating drug addiction as well as the need to ensure active participation of criminologists, criminal investigators and forensic linguists in this process. It is particularly important given that the positive potential and developments in forensic linguistics as a whole, and the linguistic analysis of slang used by perpetrators of certain crimes in particular, have been insufficiently explored in theoretical studies and applied in criminological practice.

LINGUISTIC PROPERTIES OF DRUG-ADDICTS' SLANG

One of the significant features of membership in criminal organizations is a special language (slang, argot, jargon) used by the group members. Slang is actually a feature of the specific criminal subculture. It means that identity is expressed through a specific subculture featuring a specific linguistic style, which becomes an external manifestation of identity; thus, the interaction of these two factors contributes to the development of a subculture featuring a number of distinctive characteristics arising from cultural patterns of minority groups: mindset, standpoints, values, beliefs, norms, rules of conduct, aptitude, sensibilities, preferences, symbolism, temper, specific sensitivities and linguistic peculiarities).⁸

Criminal slang, and particularly the slang used by drug addicts, has not been subject to an extensive study in Serbia. The author's examination of criminological and linguistic literature shows that there is a lack of research on this topic. All the data available to the Serbian criminological scientific community in the field of criminal slang and jargon is restricted to citing and explaining the meaning of individual slang terms used by drug addicts. Whereas the understanding of these terms may actually facilitate crime detection of offenses against public health involving the abuse of narcotics as well as the prosecution of these criminal offenders, the general overview of the obtained data and a scientific analysis of the results calls for a further examination of the syntactic and morphological characteristics of criminal jargon in general and the slang used by drug addicts in particular. Such studies are in extremely short supply in Serbia. Unfortunately, the criminal linguistics studies conducted in other countries are quite useful to Serbian linguists and criminologists because each language has its own peculiarities, which are clearly reflected in different use of slang or jargon. Therefore, this issue should be given greater attention, especially because the study of criminal slang, including the slang used by drug-addicts, is a highly significant subject matter in the area of criminalistics, criminology and criminal law policy.

An example of slang may be the slang pertaining to the non-medical use of drugs, which developed in the USSR in the early 1980s as a result of a spreading use of drugs and psychoactive substances. The major creators and users of slang were young people interested in using these illegal substances. A significant part of these slang terms was related to the purchase and cheap methods of synthesizing drugs and toxic substances in pharmacies or stores selling household chemicals. Some slang words were borrowed from the slang in English speaking countries. The use of slang was also quite common in literature, music and film.⁹

Drug addicts use a special language, junkie slang or jargon, a linguistic variety which significantly differs from the standard language. Due to the illegal drug-related activities they are involved in, drug addicts have to keep away from the public eye, which certainly contrib-

8 Božilović, N. Identitet i značenje stila u potkulturi (Identity and Significance of Style in a Sub-culture), *Filozofija i društvo* no. 2, 2006, pp.233-250, <http://www.doiserbia.nb.rs/img/doi/0353-5738/2006/0353-57380630233B.pdf>, Accessed 10.02.2016.

9 Сленг наркоманов (Drug-addicts' slang), https://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki/%D0%A1%D0%B%D0%B5%D0%BD%D0%B3_%D0%BD%D0%B0%D1%80%D0%BA%D0%BE%D0%BC%D0%B0%D0%BD%D0%BE%D0%B2, Accessed 28.01.2016.

utes to the need to develop a special language that can be understood only by the members of that social group. Given the fact that slang is prevalent among the youngest drug addicts, the understanding of its linguistic characteristics is an important tool in combating drug abuse among minors. Junkie slang plays a significant role in the process of identification with the drug-addicts' subculture; it is a kind of a "passport" into this social group or a "hallmark" for distinguishing group members from outsiders. Thus, upon being initiated into the world of drug addiction, a prospective drug-addict gradually acquires the drug-addicts' slang, which ultimately becomes their communication "safe-haven" because it conveniently provides secrecy and confidentiality in all kinds of communication in front of other people, particularly in telephone conversations which may be tapped.

Junkie slang is based on general slang rules, some of which are: secret codes (e.g. "white" is a slang word for cocaine); ambiguity (e.g. "You got a Vespa?" – *Vespa* is "*vesparasketa*", a sleep-inducing drug causing stupor), associations and derogatory words (e.g. a postman is a "*kangaroo*"), surrealist collocation and compounds (e.g. "*stroke-hit cactus*" or "*acid-head*" are slang words for "overdosed"), nonsensical phrases (e.g. "*rape by negligence*" – forced injection of drugs into the vein), resonance and onomatopoeia (e.g. "*džidžibudžiti*" – to get high), vivid imagery (e.g. "*red wine*" – strong opium), contrast (e.g. "awesome" or "bloody" are slang words for "wonderful, delightful"), etc.¹⁰

As compared to the standard language, slang words often have a completely different meaning. Thus, the secrecy of information among drug-addicts in Serbia is secured by using words like: "*piggy*" (the measuring scales); "*horse-meat*" (heroin); "*jack-up*" (inject drug into a vein); "*housewife*" (home-grown marijuana); "get fixed" (take drugs intravenously); "*healing*" (drug use); "*thyme*", "*milfoil*", "*Maria*" and "*weed*" are slang words for marijuana; "*aunt*" and "*blonde*" are slang words for the vein where the drug is injected.¹¹ Drug addicts often communicate by using very short elliptical sentences with the purpose of conveying the message quickly and reducing the chance of being detected by the police.

The jargon in one language is often influenced by the jargon in other foreign languages. The examples are numerous but here is the most notable one which illustrates the impact of German language on the Serbian jargon. Namely, the Serbian word "*bitanga*" (scoundrel, rascal, rogue) originates from World War II, when the citizens of occupied Yugoslavia coined this word from two German words "*bitte*" and "*danke*" (which were repeatedly encountered in daily communication); the two German words joined together ("*bittedanke*") were subject to further phonetic changes, ultimately resulting in the word "*bitange*" in Serbian. In Germany, the real supra-regional, sub-cultural jargon comes from traditional sources and social institutions (such as: criminal environment, prisons, school, family) and, lately, from the language of computers and the Internet. Generally speaking, it is quite difficult to describe the exact dissemination of jargon. Everyday language and tabloids comprise ample examples of criminal law terminology. For example, in tabloids, the Serbian word "*zaseda*" (an ambush) is often replaced by the slang word "*sačekuša*" (a guerilla-style "bushwhack"). The German variant of the Serbian jargon term "*propevati*" (to start singing) is the jargon word "*singen*", which is equivalent to the Serbian word "*pevati*" (sing). Yet, the German word "*singen*" has a synonym: it is the word "*zinken*", which has been used for centuries to indicate communication in a secret (coded) language; this synonym became part of the Serbian slang in the 20th century, upon adopting not only its original meaning but also the original German sound:

10 These are some examples of drug addicts' slang (available in Serbian). See: Glossary of terms used by drug addicts, cited Milosavljević, M. *Droge, mit, pakao stvarnost*, Udruženje građana „Obrazovanje grada BiH“, Sarajevo, 2000. (Drugs, myth, hell and reality), http://prevencijadroge.tripod.com/rijecnik_narkomana.htm, Accessed 15.01.2016.

11 Stevanović, D. *Svi gledaju, samo forenzičar vidi*, <http://www.politika.rs/scc/clanak/281669/Svi-gledaju-samo-forenzicar-vidi>, (a newspaper article in Serbian), Accessed 15.01.2016.

“zinken” meaning “cinkariti” (to rat on somebody). Such examples are the subject matter of comparative jargonistics¹², a new scientific discipline, whose study contributes to a better understanding of criminal slang used by criminal groups in different countries. This is especially important at present times, when crime and criminals virtually recognize no borders; hence, there are cases where a criminal offence is committed in one country whereas the consequence of the act occurs in a different part of the world.

The knowledge of slang may help both children and parents, and other interested parties interested in detecting the crime and identifying drug addicts or drug dealers, because it provides an insight into the drug-addict's behavior.¹³ The conspiracy of drug addicts' communications and incomprehensible slang may significantly impair and aggravate the police work aimed at detecting the criminal offenders and crimes against public health involving illicit drug-trafficking. As an informal and non-standard linguistic variety, slang is susceptible to rapid changes, just like all other forms of non-standard language.¹⁴ Therefore, the study of the changing slang used by criminal groups is an opportunity to develop and use the full potential of criminal linguistics.

INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

Combating crime is one of the most important tasks in any society. In this regard, the work of criminologists and criminal investigators is supported by the expertise provided by forensic linguists. One of the most important areas of forensic linguistics is certainly criminal linguistics. The study of slang used by drug users is of great importance in the process of detecting crimes involving narcotics abuse. The main purpose of drug-addicts' slang is to ensure secrecy and thus preclude the prosecution of criminal offenders involved in drug abuse. For this purpose, drug addicts and drug dealers develop a criminal jargon featuring a range of distinctive linguistic properties: a greater use of onomatopoeia and resonance; altering the original meaning of words; using contrasting, senseless and surrealistic compounds; a different sentence structure; etc.

The available data show that the Serbian criminal investigation and criminological literature does not include examples of extensive scientific research on the subject matter of criminal slang or jargon in general or the drug addicts' slang in particular. Such studies would significantly contribute not only to a more successful process of combating crime, as a socially dangerous phenomenon, but also to the development of criminal linguistics, as a new scientific discipline which is still underdeveloped and insufficiently applied in practice.

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13 The Association for Combating Drug-Addiction, <http://www.stopdrogama.org/aktuelno4.htm> , Accessed 22.01.2016.

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VERBAL PREFIXES IN SERBIAN AND THEIR ENGLISH TRANSLATION EQUIVALENTS IN POLICE, CRIMINALISTIC AND LEGAL CONTEXT

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Abstract: Verbal prefixes, as a grammatical feature present mostly in Slavic languages, Serbian included, have two functions: one is to convey the perfectivity of the verb and the other, perhaps more important when translating from Serbian, to alter verbal semantics. Though we can find verbal prefixes in English, too, it is not always possible to apply them in English where we would normally use a Serbian verbal prefix. One reason for this is the fact that Serbian verbal prefixes outnumber the English ones, and are therefore used more often in Serbian than in English. The other reason is that English tends to use other constructions and means of expressing the semantic nuances (such as phrasal verbs), where Serbian would use verbal prefixes. Our task here is to see how certain Serbian verbal prefixes, *na-*, *ob-*, *od-*, *pod-*, *pre-*, *pred-*, and *raz-*, which have been present the most in the consulted reference books, are translated into English lexically, i.e. what translation equivalent is the most appropriate in each example from the corpus taken from the context of police, criminalistics and law publications. We will also give some insight into which translation techniques are mostly used when dealing with Serbian verbal prefixes and their English translation, and at the same time give a small contribution to the translation practice.

Keywords: verbal prefixes, translation equivalents, translation techniques, Serbian and English language

INTRODUCTION

In order to fully understand the issue of verbal prefixes in Serbian and how their message is transferred into English, we will have to address the issue of verbal prefixation in Serbian first. Like in other Slavic languages, certain verbal notions in Serbian are necessarily expressed with verbs with prefixes. Such notions can be the perfectivity of the verb, i.e. whether the action is complete or not,² or whether the nuance in meaning, or the complete meaning for that matter, shifts (when verbal semantic features change).³ For verbal perfectivity (verbal aspect), let us take the verb pair *bosti* – *probosti*. The first verb, *bosti*, implies that the action lasts without any clear indication if and when it will complete or not. The second verb implies the instantaneousness of the action, meaning its beginning and end are already predetermined. This is evident in Serbian by the infinitive alone. In English, however, there are several morphological specificities which prevent us from applying the same analogy when discussing verbal prefixes in English. Firstly, having weaker verbal morphology than Serbian, English needs to rely mostly on other constructions and “other devices” to express the message of the completeness of the action. Such constructions can be phrasal verbs or verbs with postposi-

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² Comrie, B. *Aspect: An Introduction to the Study of Verbal Aspect and Related Problems*, Cambridge University Press, 1976: p. 16 ff.

³ Клајн, И. *Творба речи у савременом српском језику. Део 1, Слагање и префиксација*, Београд: Завод за издавање уџбеника и наставна средства, 2002: p. 240.

tions to name a few. In the case of the abovementioned verb pair, we will use a lexical verb and a phrasal verb for the translation: *stab* and *stab through*, respectively.⁴ What construction will be used when translating from Serbian into English depends mostly on the context and the translators themselves. Secondly, though a certain number of verbal prefixes do exist in English (e.g. *co-*, *counter-*, *de-*, etc.⁵), they are not always used to express the perfectivity of the verb.⁶ The same can be said for Serbian, as in most cases, the semantic shift of a verb is imminent (e.g. *pisati*, as opposed to *upisati*, *ispisati*, *otpisati*,⁷ etc.).

This poses a problem to translators and interpreters. Namely, how do we convey a message from one language to another, if there are no similar morphological features between the target language (in this case English) and the source language (in this case Serbian)? Some translation study experts have proposed a variety of translation techniques to bridge this gap between Serbian and other languages, whose verbal morphology is weaker than Serbian (like English or to some degree French⁸).

During the collection of the corpus from the following three publications: *Nobody's Children*,⁹ *Risk Analysis of Corruption within Judiciary*¹⁰ and *Risk Analysis of Corruption within Law Enforcement*,¹¹ the author of this paper noticed that some of the most frequent verbs with prefixes, in police, criminal and legal context, was a group of seven Serbian verbal prefixes. What also caught the author's attention were the versatile possibilities to convey the meaning of the verbs with prefixes from Serbian into English. Such possibilities (or rather, translation techniques) will be discussed in the following parts of the paper, as well as some of the basic semantic features of each of the seven Serbian verbal prefixes: *na-*, *ob-*, *od-*, *pod-*, *pre-*, *pred-*, and *raz-*. Special emphasis will be put on some of the translation techniques and adequate translation equivalents to the abovementioned Serbian prefixes, as well as to their grammatical constructions. Our premise is that in English more periphrastic translation solutions will be present, rather than solutions by means of a verbal prefix. The translation pairs were also taken from the abovementioned three publications. The corpus counts more than 50 verb pairs, which follow the classification of the verbal prefixes. The aim of this paper is to compare and contrast the seven abovementioned Serbian verbal prefixes both on the morphological and the semantic level and to comment on their translation equivalents, as well as to give a small contribution to the translation practice.

AN OVERVIEW OF SOME TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES

As was mentioned above, there are some translation techniques which can help a translator when having to deal with certain types of sentence constructions. According to Krstić, there are three basic translation models: 1) situational or denotative model, 2) transformational model, and 3) semantic model.¹² For the purpose of this paper, we will concentrate on

4 Јовановић, В. „Однос префиксалних глагола у словачком, српском и енглеском језику“ *Ип: Зборник за језике и књижевности*, год. 3, бр. 3, Филозофски факултет у Новом Саду; 2013: p. 81.

5 See more in: Quirk, R, et al. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman, 1985: pp. 981-992.

6 An occasion when a prefix can be used to express the completeness of the action is the verb pair *circle – encircle* (Novakov, P. *Glagolski tip i glagolske situacije u engleskom i srpskom*. Novi Sad: Futura publikacije, 2005: p. 90)

7 Клајн 2002. op. cit. p. 241

8 Krstić, N. *Francuski i srpski u kontaktu*. Sremski Karlovci: Izdavačka knjižarnica Zorana Stojanovića. 2008: p 139ff.

9 Žegarac N. et al. *Ničija deca. Trgovina decom u Srbiji i Crnoj Gori*. Save the Children UK. Beograd. 2005. (translated by: Novica Petrović)

10 Šumi, R. dr i Laličić L. *Analiza rizika o mogućnostima i stvarnim razmerama korupcije u Srbiji*. Savet Evrope. Kancelarija u Beogradu. 2015.

11 Hamilton J. et. al. *Procena rizika od neprofesionalnog ponašanja i korupcije u sudstvu u Srbiji*. Savet Evrope. Kancelarija u Beogradu. 2015.

12 Krstić, 2008 op. cit. pp. 138-209.

the second and the third model, as these two seem to have been present most of the time in almost all of the examples from the corpus.

For the second model, the translational model, Krstić also mentions *substitution* and *omission*, i.e. when certain syntactic rules of the target language (here English) must be respected when we translate from Serbian. Let us take a look at the following examples:

Serbian	English
1a) [...] i tamo se novorođenčce <u>predaje</u> budućim roditeljima iz zapadne Evrope, najčešće Nemačke, [...] (pg. 36)	1b) [...] where the newborn child is <u>hand-ed over</u> to the future parents from Western Europe, mostly Germany, [...] (pg. 39) ^{a13}
2a) Sposobnost dece <u>da procene</u> opasnosti i da se staraju o sebi i svojim potrebama raste sa uzrastom do ulaska u odraslo doba, [...] (pg. 19)	2b) The capacity of children <u>to evaluate</u> dangers and to take care of themselves and their own needs increases as they grow up until they enter adulthood, [...] (pg. 22) ^a
3a) [...] u kombinaciji s pretnjom da <u>će pretrpeti</u> štetne posledice ako tako ne budu postupili. (pg. 14)	3b) [...] combined with the <u>threat of punishment</u> if they do not. (pg. 14) ^c

As we can see, what happened here is that the active sentence in Serbian was substituted with a passive one in English, as this is sometimes a more natural (and preferable) way of expression in English, as is the case in example 1). In example 2), however, due to the specificity in Serbian to sometimes use the *da + prezent* construction, a *to* infinitive form had to be used in English, as the only possible equivalent. For example 3) the translator opted to omit the verb *pretrpeti* altogether in their English translation and use a semantically equal periphrastic expression. This is a good way for the purpose of languages economy in the target language, but only if it does not jeopardise the meaning.

For the third model, the semantic model, Krstić notes that translating of a text should be reduced to linguistic units, which will have specific meanings, and which will thus become the *translation units*. Depending on the type of the text, such units will sometimes be a *morpheme*, a *lexeme* or a complete *phrase or sentence*, for that matter.¹⁴ Let us examine the following examples from the corpus.

Serbian	English
4a) [...] čime dvostruko vežu dete koje kasnije radom <u>otplaćuje</u> dugove [...] (pg. 41)	4b) [...] thereby doubly binding the child, who subsequently <u>pays off</u> the debt through work [...] (pg. 45) ^a
5a) Da bi se što bolje shvatila aktivnost, pre nego što se <u>pristupilo</u> njenom sprovođenju, održan je određen broj bilateralnih sastanaka [...] (pg. 12)	5b) <u>Prior to its execution</u> , the project held a number of meetings [...] in order to better understand such activity. (pg. 12) ^b

We can see from the two examples above a couple of translation solutions. In example 4) the translator opted to use a phrasal verb (*pay off*), as an equivalent to the Serbian *otplatiti*, which is the only possible solution here. In example 5), however, we see a periphrastic solution for the verb *pristupiti*, which is not a bad solution to avoid complex verb structures in English.

In the following parts of the paper, we will analyse the seven Serbian verbal prefixes *na-*, *ob-*, *od-*, *pod-*, *pre-*, *pred-* and *raz-*, through the spectrum of their morphology and some aspects of their semantics as well as compare and contrast their translation equivalents, and the translation techniques used in English from the examples from the corpus.

¹³ For convenience sake, (a) will refer to the examples taken from Žegarac N. et al, (b) to the examples from Šumi, R. dr i Laličić L, and (c) from Hamilton J. et al.

¹⁴ Krstić, 2008 op. cit. p. 212.

VERBAL PREFIX NA-

This prefix bears, among its other meanings, the semantic message of *connection* or *joining*:

Serbian	English
6a) Ovakav nepovoljan razvoj posebno je ozbiljna mogućnost u slučajevima u kojima se aktuelna iskustva <u>nadovezuju</u> na prethodno postojeće psihološke probleme [...] (pg. 50)	6b) Such an unfavourable development is a particularly serious possibility in cases when current experiences <u>follow</u> previous psychological problems [...] (pg. 55) ^a

It is also used to express an action that has just started and is *partially completed*.¹⁵

Serbian	English
7a) Ovakvi oblici korupcije se ne smeju ignorisati jer <u>narušavaju</u> vlast i kaljaju ugled policije kao javne službe i institucije od integriteta. (pg. 42)	7b) Such forms of corruption are not to be ignored, because they <u>lead to a distortion</u> of authority and taint the image of the police as an agency of public service and integrity. (pg. 42) ^b

For some cases, however, the linguists have not found yet the proper reason or explanation of its presence in a verb.¹⁶ Such examples include the following verb pairs from the corpus:

Serbian	English
8a) Ove specifičnosti <u>nastaju</u> zbog činjenice da su deca [...] u većoj meri izložena povredama. (pg. 19)	8b) These specific characteristics <u>arise</u> due to the fact that children [...] are exposed to injuries to a greater degree. (pg. 22) ^a
9a) [...] koliko god to bilo značajno državnim organima, službama i organizacijama koje <u>nastoje</u> da spreče ovu kriminalnu delatnost ili pružaju pomoć i podršku žrtvama. (pg. 18)	9b) [...] however important this may be to state organs, services and organisations <u>striving</u> to prevent this criminal activity or providing assistance or support to the victims. (pg. 21) ^a
10a) [...] nepobitna je činjenica da je mnogo lakše <u>navesti</u> ili <u>naterati</u> dete, naročito mlađeg uzrasta, nego odraslu osobu na prinudnu poslušnost. (pg. 17)	10b) [...] it is undoubtedly easier by far <u>to induce or enforce</u> obedience in a child, especially a young one, than in an adult person. (pg. 21) ^a

As we can see in the examples from the corpus, there are various ways of conveying the message a verb with prefix bears into English. Sometimes, we can use the verb on its own, as it already bears the semantic message a Serbian verb does (examples 6) and 9)). Then we have a periphrastic solution for the verb *narušavati* (example 7)), followed by examples 8) and 10), where again there are no morphological changes to verbs in English, at least on the surface structure.¹⁷

¹⁵ Клајн, 2002 op. cit. pp. 258 and 288.

¹⁶ Ibid pp. 257-259.

¹⁷ Etymologically, and when analysing deep structure, these verbs are composed of a verb and a prefix: *a-* + *rise*, *in-* + *duce*, *en-* + *force*, *Concise Oxford English Dictionary*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2004: 70, 725, 472.

VERBAL PREFIX OB-

This Serbian prefix, too, has a number of meanings of which we will only touch upon those most frequently used in the corpus. One of those meanings is the meaning of *encompassing*:

Serbian	English
11a) Obrasci unutrašnje trgovine u Srbiji i Crnoj Gori <u>obuhvataju</u> i ponude sezonskog posla u turizmu na crnogorskom primorju [...] (pg. 42)	11b) The patterns of domestic trafficking in Serbia and Montenegro also <u>encompass</u> offers of seasonal work in tourism in the coastal region of Montenegro [...] (pg. 46) ^a
12a) Izuzeci se događaju samo kada postoje međunarodni projekti koji <u>obuhvataju</u> organizaciju i vođenje određenih obuka. (pg. 16)	12b) An exception is when international projects <u>are involved</u> in the organisation and conducting of such training. (pg. 16) ^b

Again, there are some verbs, whose verbal prefix motivation cannot be explained, such as in the following examples:¹⁸

Serbian	English
13a) [...] i redovno se moraju <u>objavljivati</u> informacije o broju zaposlenih i u jednoj i u drugoj kategoriji. (pg. 29)	13b) [...] and information about the number of both staff categories should <u>be</u> regularly published. (pg. 28) ^b
14a) Odrasli koji koriste decu za nelegalne aktivnosti ubeđuju i <u>obmanjuju</u> decu da se ona zapravo ne izlažu riziku [...] (pg. 26)	14b) Adults who use children for illegal activities <u>deceive</u> children trying to convince them that they actually do not expose themselves to risk [...] (pg. 29) ^a

In terms of semantics, we can see from the examples that yet again the lexical message the English verbs has is enough, without any morphological changes. In terms of translation techniques, we can see that in some cases a passive construction was needed to transfer the message (examples 12) and 13)), as in these cases (similar to example 1)) it is more natural to express the idea in English. In example 12), however, there was another adaption present. For the same verb in example 11), the translator opted for the verb *encompass*, but, the same verb in a *different context* requires semantic adaption in the target language, which in this case was the verb *involve* in a passive construction.

VERBAL PREFIX OD-

Like in the previous cases, there are several meanings of verbal prefix *od-* (with its allomorphs *oda-* and *ot-*). Some of those were present in the corpus, too.

a) Perfectivity:

Serbian	English
15a) [...] postoje potencijalni razlozi za zabrinutost u pogledu sposobnosti VSS-a i DVT-a da legitimno <u>odigraju</u> ključnu ulogu u sistemu disciplinske odgovornosti [...] (pg. 44)	15b) [...] there are potential concerns about the ability of the HJC and SPC <u>to perform</u> their key roles in the disciplinary system with legitimacy [...] (pg. 44) ^c

¹⁸ Клајн, 2002 op. cit. p. 263.

16a) [...] čime dvostruko vežu dete koje kasnije radom <u>otplaćuje</u> dugove [...] (pg. 41)	16b) [...] thereby doubly binding the child, who subsequently <u>pays off</u> the debt through work [...] (pg. 45) ^a
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b) Ablative meaning:

Serbian	English
17a) [...] dok šira zajednica <u>odbacuje</u> i osuđuje dete zbog učešća u komercijalnom seksu [...] (pg. 30)	17b) [...] whereas the broader community <u>rejects</u> and condemns the child for participating in commercial sex [...] (pg. 32) ^a
18a) Međutim, javni tužilac može <u>odstupiti</u> od načina dodeljivanja predmeta predviđenog tim metodom [...] (pg. 31)	18b) However, the public prosecutor may <u>deviate</u> from this method of allocation [...] (pg. 31) ^c
19a) [...] kao strateška smernica 5.3.3 (tj. cilj) navedeno je rasterećenje sudija u pogledu administrativno-tehničkih poslova koji im <u>oduzimaju</u> značajan deo vremena [...] (pg. 32)	19b) The NJRS Action Plan envisages as Strategic Guideline 5.3.3 (i.e. objective) of <u>relieving the burden</u> on judges of administrative and technical tasks [...] (pg. 32) ^c

c) Of unknown meaning:¹⁹

Serbian	English
20a) [...] priručnik („cook-book“) koji sadrži brojne podteme, između kojih predavači mogu <u>odabrati</u> stavke koje se uklapaju u njihov obrazovni sistem [...] (pg. 36)	20b) [...] a ‘recipe-book’ with all kind of different subtopics from which trainers can <u>choose</u> the items that best fit their own educational system [...] (pg. 36) ^b

In example 15), we see a translation technique where the *da + prezent* construction was replaced with the bear infinitive construction in English. Translation equivalents-wise, we can see that in some cases, besides the verb semantics, English specific verb phrases appear, i.e., phrasal verbs (example 16). An interesting translation solution is in example 19). The phrase *oduzimaju značajan deo vremena* was translated as *relieving the burden*, which is a fine solution. Another possible interpretation could have been *time consuming activities/jobs* (*vremenski neekonomičan*²⁰).

VERBAL PREFIX POD-

This verbal prefix (also sometimes *pot-*) is very specific, as in most of the examples it bears a rather metaphorical meaning. Such examples include:

Serbian	English
21a) Osmišljavanje odgovarajuće politike i programa za borbu protiv trgovine ljudima <u>podrazumeva</u> posebne mere zaštite dece [...] (pg. 18)	21b) Developing a proper policy and programme for combating trafficking in human beings <u>presupposes</u> special measures for protecting children [...] (pg. 22) ^a
22a) Funkcioneri SBPOK-a su takođe <u>podržali</u> dalje reforme politike upravljanja ljudskim resursima [...] (pg. 21)	22b) SBPOK officials also <u>supported</u> further reforms of human resources policy [...] (pg. 21) ^b

¹⁹ Клајн, 2002 op. cit. pp. 263-264.

²⁰ Bujas, Ž. *Veliki englesko-hrvatski rječnik*. Zagreb: Nakladni zavod Globus. 2005: 914.

23a) U celini gledano, navedeni problem su, kako izgleda, <u>podstakli</u> tužilaštva i sudove da primene formalistički „indigo” pristup. (pg. 42)	23b) Taken together, these problems appear <u>to have encouraged</u> a formalistic ‘rubber stamp’ approach by courts and prosecution offices. (pg. 41) ^c
24a) Nedavno objavljeno istraživanje [...] ponovo <u>potkrepljuje</u> ovo saznanje [...] (pg. 21)	24b) Recently published research [...] again <u>corroborates</u> this finding [...] (pg. 21) ^b

In the following examples, there was not any clear explanation in the consulted reference books for the motivation of this prefix.²¹

Serbian	English
25a) Unutrašnja kontrola godišnje <u>podnese</u> oko 150 krivičnih prijava protiv policajaca. (pg. 15)	25b) Annually, there <u>are</u> around 150 criminal complaints against police officers <u>lodged</u> by the Internal Control. (pg. 15)
26a) Poslednji važan oslonac sistema predstavlja pitanje ko je taj ko <u>podučava</u> zaposlene u organizaciji, [...] (pg. 27)	26b) The last important pillar represents the issue of who <u>trains</u> employees within the organization [...] (pg. 27)
27a) [...] kao i da će se njihova nastojanja u tom pravcu <u>podudariti</u> s naporima drugih državnih organa [...] (pg. 21)	27b) [...] and this would <u>coincide</u> with efforts of other state authorities. [...] (pg. 21) ^b

One reason for the metaphorical and vague meaning of this prefix in these examples could be the fact that if we look into the deep structure of some of them, we can see that they were once originally verbs with prefixes, mostly of Latin origin (presuppose, support, corroborate and coincide) or from a Romance language (encourage²²). Some of them may have been subsequently turned into calques in Serbian.²³ In example 21), the translator offered the verb *presuppose* as the equivalent for the verb *podrazumevati*. Another solution could be the verb *imply*²⁴ ([...] trafficking in human beings *implies* special measures [...]).

In terms of translation techniques, we see in examples 23) and 25) passive constructions, which fit into the sense from the source language and at the same time respect the grammar rules of the target language, English.

VERBAL PREFIX PRE-

This prefix is the most versatile one and the one found the most in the examples. Some of its meanings are as follows:

a) To overdo something or do it excessively:

Serbian	English
28a) Istraživanje ukazuje na to da se devijantno ponašanje koje najviše <u>preovladava</u> često naziva „sitna korupcija”. (pg. 42)	28b) The research indicates that the most <u>prevailing</u> deviance is often referred to as “petty corruption”. (pg. 42) ^b
29a) Sem toga, zastupljenost sudova je takva da <u>preteže</u> u korist viših sudova, u kojima radi manje sudija. (pg. 22)	29b) Furthermore, the representation of courts <u>is biased</u> in favour of the higher courts in which fewer judges work. (pg. 22) ^c

²¹ Клајн, 2002 op. cit. pp. 268, 269 and 288.

²² *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* pp: 1137, 1448, 321, 279 and 470.

²³ Klajn mentions this phenomenon for the Serbian verb *poduzeti* (from German *unternehmen*). Клајн, 2002 op. cit. p. 269.

²⁴ Bujas, 2005 op. cit. p.434.

30a) [...] postoje specifične forme koje <u>prevazilaze</u> uobičajena shvatanja trgovine ljudskim bićima. (pg. 31)	30b) [...] there is specific forms that <u>go beyond</u> the usual concept of trafficking in human beings. (pg. 35) ^a
31a) [...] i da se daju uputstva na koji način treba <u>prevazići</u> određene nedostatke. (pg. 31)	31b) [...] and to give directions in which manner certain shortcomings should <u>be overcome</u> . (pg. 31) ^b

b) To repeat the action or do something in another way:

Serbian	English
32a) [...] mehanizam kojim sudije mogu zatražiti od tužioca da <u>preispita</u> svoje odluke, [...] (pg. 11)	32b) [...] a mechanism by which judges may require a prosecutor to <u>reconsider</u> ²⁵ decisions [...] (pg. 11) ^c
33a) Eksploatacija osobe koja je relocirana <u>pretvara</u> ovaj sled događaja u trgovinu. (pg. 17)	33b) The exploitation of a relocated person <u>turns</u> this sequence of events <u>into</u> trafficking. (pg. 20) ^a

c) To endure something:

Serbian	English
34a) [...] sa tako malim platama veća [je] verovatnoća da policijski službenici učestvuju u korupciji i traže načine da zarađe dodatni novac da bi <u>preživeli</u> . (pg. 44)	34b) [...] with such low wages it is highly likely that officers will engage in corruption and seek to make extra money in order to <u>survive</u> . (pg. 44) ^b

d) Of unclear meaning:

Serbian	English
35a) Razne vrste neprofesionalnog ponašanja mogu se <u>preklapati</u> . (pg. 14)	35b) The various types of poor conduct may <u>overlap</u> . (pg. 14) ^c
36a) [...] potrebno je da druga odrasla osoba koja nije roditelj <u>preuzme</u> kontrolu i koristi dete za pribavljanje materijalne ili druge koristi [...] (pg. 18)	36b) [...] another adult person who is not the child's parent should <u>take</u> control and use the child to achieve material or other gain [...] (pg. 21) ^a
37a) [...] ovi upozoravajući znaci se lako <u>previde</u> . (pg. 47)	37b) These warning signs <u>are easily overlooked</u> [...] (pg. 51) ^a

As versatile as the meanings of this verbal prefix are, so are its translation equivalents that we have come across. Interestingly enough, in this category we do have verbs with a prefix in English (*over-*) (examples 31), (35) and (37)). Then there are phrasal verbs and verbs with a post-position combinations (examples 30) and (33)). Again we have verbs which are etymologically made up of a prefix and a verb (examples 28) and (32)²⁵). As for translation techniques, what we can see is a passive construction in example 37) and a *to* infinitive construction for a *da* + *prezent* and a *da* + *potencijal* construction in Serbian (examples 32) and (34) respectively).²⁶

²⁵ From Latin, from *prae-*_{prefix} + *valere* and from *re-*_{prefix} (once more, anew) + *consider*. *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* pp. 1195, 1202 and 1137.

²⁶ Another solution can be re-examine, Novakov, P. *Glagolski tip i vid glagolske situacije u engleskom i srpskom jeziku*, Novi Sad: Futura publikacije. 2005: 95

VERBAL PREFIX PRED-

Two meanings that were found in the corpus for this prefix were:

a) Spatial metaphorical meaning:

Serbian	English
38a) Projektnim odborom <u>predsedava</u> Nacionalni koordinator za borbu protiv trgovine ljudima. (pg. 70)	38b) The Project Board <u>is presided over</u> by the National Coordinator for fighting trafficking in human beings. (pg. 79)
39a) Trgovina decom <u>predstavlja</u> poseban oblik zloupotrebe i kršenja prava deteta. (17)	39b) Trafficking in children <u>represents</u> a special form of abuse and violation of the rights of the child. (pg. 20) ^a

b) Time anteriority:²⁷

Serbian	English
40a) Trgovina ljudskim bićima [...] zahteva specijalistička znanja i međusektorsku saradnju, kako bi se na delotvoran način <u>predupredili</u> rizici i zaštitile žrtve. (pg. 124)	40b) Trafficking in human beings [...] is a [...] phenomenon requiring specialised knowledge and inter-sector cooperation in order <u>to</u> effectively <u>prevent</u> the attendant risks and to protect the victims. (pg. 138)
41a) [...] i sposobnosti društva da proaktivnim merama <u>predupredi</u> faktore koji doprinose trgovini decom [...] (pg. 49)	41b) [...] and the ability of society <u>to forestall</u> the factors contributing to trafficking in children [...] (pg. 54)
42a) [...] kao i odobravanje i operacionalizacija Nacionalnog plana akcije za borbu protiv trgovine decom, koji se trenutno razmatra u Skupštini RCG i koji <u>predviđa</u> posebne mere za zaštitu i pomoć deci [...] (pg. 70)	42b) [...] and the adoption and operationalisation of the National Plan of Action for Combating Trafficking in Children is under way; the Plan, currently being reviewed in the Assembly of the Republic of Montenegro, <u>envisages</u> special measures for protection and assistance to children [...] (pg. 79) ^a

Among other solutions, we can see a verbal prefix *fore-* in English equivalent (example 41)), but also a lexical verb for the same verb in a similar context (example 41)). It means that we can sometimes use two solutions for one verbal prefix in Serbian. As for translation techniques, we can see another example of a *to* infinitive construction in English for a Serbian *da* + *prezent* construction (example 41)).

²⁷ Клајн, 2002 ор. cit. p. 272.

VERBAL PREFIX RAZ-

Lastly, prefix *raz-* (also realised in its allomorph form as *ras-*) bears the following meanings:

a) To divide or separate something (metaphorically, too):

Serbian	English
43a) Voditelj slučaja može da bude i imenovani staratelj deteta, ali je poželjno <u>razdvojiti</u> situacije pravne reprezentacije deteta i organizovanja procesa pružanja pomoći. (pg. 119)	43b) The appointed guardian to the child can also be in the role of case manager, but it is desirable <u>to separate</u> the situations of legal representation of the child from the organisation of the process of providing assistance. (pg. 132)
44a) [...] se <u>razlikuju</u> od onih koja se primenjuju prema odraslim osobama. (pg. 17)	44b) [...] greatly <u>differ</u> from those used against adult persons. (pg. 20) ^a

b) Distribution:

Serbian	English
45a) Neke od zadataka u procesu vođenja slučaja moguće je <u>raspodeliti</u> između centra za socijalni rad, Službe za koordinaciju pomoći žrtvama i nevladinih organizacija [...] (pg. 119)	45b) Some of the tasks in the process of case management may <u>be divided</u> among the centre for social work in charge, the Agency for Coordination of Protection to Victims of Traffic and non-governmental organisations [...] (pg. 132) ^a
46a) [...] a potom se na osnovu toga metodom slučajnog određivanja sudije <u>raspoređuje</u> nekom sudiji specijalizovanom za određenu oblast [...] (pg. 31)	46b) [...] and the case <u>is</u> then <u>allocated</u> randomly to one of the judges specialised in the area to which the case belongs [...] (pg. 31) ^c

c) To do something meticulously and carefully:

Serbian	English
47a) Eventualni pristanak i učešće deteta ne <u>razmatra</u> se čak ni u slučajevima kada nije primenjena sila [...] dok je dete u stanju ranjivosti [...] (pg. 17)	47b) The possible consent and participation of the child <u>is not taken into consideration</u> even in the cases where there is no application of force [...] while the child is in a vulnerable position [...] (pg. 20) ^a
48a) Strateški cilj 2.8 NSRP-a, a pre svega formiranje centralne baze sudskih odluka trebalo bi formulisati/ <u>razraditi</u> kao prioritetni cilj, [...] (pg. 10)	48b) Objective 2.8 of the NJRS, and in particular the establishment of a central database of court decisions <u>should be</u> formulated/elaborated as a more urgent objective, [...] (pg. 10) ^c

Lexically, for each of the examples in Serbian, there is an equivalent in English which fully compensates the meaning. One exception is example 47) where the translator used a periphrastic expression that transfers the message into the target language. As for examples 46) and 48), we can say again that etymologically these verbs were once a prefix + verb construction.²⁸ Translation techniques-wise, we see substitutions with passive constructions in English (examples 45)-48)) which would be a better solution in English.

²⁸ From Latin *al-* + *locare*, *Macquarie Australia's National Dictionary. Concise Dictionary*. Macquarie Dictionary Publisher. Sydney: Australia. 2010: 29; and from Latin *e-* + *laborare*, Source: <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/elaborate> (07/02/2016)

VERBS WITH FOREIGN PREFIXES

We have already seen some cases where deep structure and etymology reveal that some of the verbs in English actually do stem from fossilised verbs with prefixes (mostly from Latin), though in present-day English, those prefixes are no longer recognisable as a part of speech or a fully-lexical morpheme. Some of those prefixes entered the Serbian language, too, during the process of language development. Let us take a look at the following short selection from the corpus of verbs with prefixes in Serbian and how they are translated into English.

Serbian	English
49a) Pravosudne akademije, može <u>demoralisati</u> mnoge zaposlene i podstaknuti vredne i talentovane ljude da napuste sudstvo i tužilaštvo. (pg. 8)	49b) Academy curriculum risks <u>demoralising</u> key personnel and causing valuable talent to leave the judicial and prosecution systems. (pg. 8) ^c
50a) Za decu koja <u>emigriraju</u> u druge zemlje bez pratnje roditelja ili staratelja koristi se termin “deca bez pratnje”. (pg. 21)	50b) Children who <u>emigrate</u> to other countries unaccompanied by parents or a guardian are designated by the term “unaccompanied children”. (pg. 24)
51a) Radnu grupu za borbu protiv trgovine decom <u>koordiniše</u> nevladina organizacija Beosupport. [...] (pg. 65)	51b) The work group for combating child trafficking is <u>coordinated</u> by the non-governmental organisation Beosupport, [...] (pg. 73) ^a
52a) U isto vreme, izabrano je 68 javnih tužilaca, <u>reizabrano</u> je 416 zamenika javnih tužilaca [...] (pg. 20)	52b) At the same time, 68 public prosecutors were elected, 416 deputy public prosecutors <u>re-elected</u> [...] (pg. 21) ^c

In example 49), we see prefix *de-*, whose meaning is that of annulling or undoing an action of the base verb.²⁹ It is the same in English, as evidenced by the translation provided. Next in example 50) we have prefix *e-* in Serbian, an allomorph of *eks-* (from Latin *ex-* and *e-*), meaning removing something or displacing it.³⁰ Again, we have the same root in English, thus the same translation equivalent, although spelling-wise, the word is closer to the original orthography in Latin. In example 51) we see prefix *ko-* (originally *co-* from Latin³¹) with the meaning of doing two parallel actions. As we can see the translation equivalent bears the same root. Finally, and maybe most interestingly, we have a combination of a foreign prefix *re-* and a Serbian verb (example 52)), which has become widely used recently, especially in political and economic contexts (e.g. *reizabrati*, *reosigurati*).³² Ultimately, this prefix comes from Latin³³ but since it is a modern concept, it could be an incomplete calque of the English verb *re-elect*.

29 Клајн, 2002 op. cit. p. 291 and Клајн И. и Шипка М. *Велики речник страних речи и израза*. Нови Сад: Прометеј. 2008: p. 345.

30 Клајн, 2008 op. cit. p. 419.

31 Ibid p. 625.

32 Клајн, 2002 op. cit. p. p. 292. However, the same author states in his other book that this is not the best possible solution to express the idea of electing someone again, though a better substitution for the prefix *re-* in Serbian has not been found yet. (Клајн, И. *Речник језичких недоумица. Осмо (хирилично) издање*. Нови Сад: Прометеј. 2007: p. 219)

33 Ibid p. 1042.

CONCLUSION

Verbs with prefixes in Serbian are a special category of verbs that sometimes influence the duration of the action of the verbs (verbal aspect) (such as in *bosti* vs. *probosti*), but can also have influence on the semantics of the verb (e.g. *pisasti* vs. *upisati*). In English however, though such a grammatical category of verbs with prefix is somewhat present, we cannot rely on it each time we try to translate a verb with prefix from Serbian into English. This is because their syntax and verbal systems differ to a greater degree. One way of translating verbs with prefixes from Serbian into English is by applying certain translation techniques, such as *substitution* (e.g. ...*novorođenče se predaje...* becomes ...*the newly born is handed over...*) *omission* (e.g. ...*u kombinaciji s pretnjom da će pretrpeti štetne posledice.* becomes ...*combined with the threat of punishment if they do not*) and *periphrastic constructions* (e.g. ...*narušavaju vlast...* becomes ...*lead to a distortion of authority...*). Of the seven Serbian verbal prefixes we have analysed here, some of their semantic characteristics have been mentioned, too. For prefix *na-*, we have seen that it can have the meaning of *connecting* two things (...*nadovezuju na prethodno postojeće psihološke problem...* > ...*follow previous psychological problems.*) and *partial completeness* (...*narušavaju vlast i kaljaju ugled...* > ...*they lead to a distortion of authority...*). As for prefix *ob-*, we have seen that it can convey the meaning of *encompassing* (...*koji obuhvataju organizaciju...* > ...*projects are involved in the organisation...*). The meaning of prefix *od-* is, among others, to convey the meaning of *perfectivity* (...*da odigraju ključnu ulogu...* > ...*to perform their key roles...*) and that of the *ablative* meaning (...*dok šira zajednica odbacuje i osuđuje dete...* > ...*whereas the broader community rejects and condemns the child...*). Prefix *pre-* denotes the following meanings: *doing something excessively* (...*forme koje prevazilaze uobičajena shvatanja...* > ...*forms that go beyond the usual concept...*), *to do something in another way* (...*sudije mogu zatražiti od tužioca da preispita svoje odluke...* > ...*judges may require a prosecutor to reconsider decisions...*) and *to endure something* (...*da bi preživeli...* > ...*to survive...*). We have also seen some of the characteristics of prefix *pred-*. One of those is *time anteriority* (...*i koji predviđa posebne mere...* > ...*the Plan [...] envisages special measures...*). Lastly, we had prefix *raz-* whose meanings included: *to divide something* (...*razdvojiti situacije pravne reprezentacije deteta...* > ...*to separate the situations of legal representation of the child...*), *distribution* (...*moguće je raspodeliti između centra...* > ...*may be divided among the centre for social work in charge...*). We also noticed that for most of these prefixes metaphorical or vague senses were present, too (*nastati* > *to arise*; *objavljivati* > *to publish*; *odabrati* > *to choose*; *podučavati* > *to train*; *preklapati* > *to overlap*; *predsedavati* > *to preside over*, etc.), which in some cases could be attributed to the ultimate etymology of the Serbian verb (*podržati* > *to support*, a possible calque from Latin, etc.). There is also one small group of foreign prefixes that have entered the Serbian language, such as: *de-* (*demoralisati* > *to demoralise*) with its meaning in Serbian and in English to annul and undo an action; *e-* (*emigrirati* > *to emigrate*), to remove or displace something; *ko-* (*koordinirati* > *to co-ordinate*), which means to do two actions at the same time; and finally *re-*, which has found its way into the modern political and economic usage as evidenced by some recently coined verbs (*reizabrati* > *to re-elect*).

As for translational equivalents in English, we can say that in most of the cases the verb's lexical features already yield the meaning (*nadovezati se* > *to follow*, etc.), followed by the verbs with prefixes in some cases (*prevazići* > *to overcome*; *reizabrati* > *re-elect*, etc.). In terms of translation techniques mentioned, we can conclude from the examples from the corpus that the mostly used one was *passive construction* of a verb (...*su, kako izgleda, podstakli...* > ...*appear to have encouraged...*), in a total of ten cases, then by the verbs with prefixes (*predupediti* > *to forestall*), totalling to six cases, and the verbs with *to infinitive* for Serbian *da + prezent/potencijal* constructions, also in a total of six cases, followed by *phrasal verbs* (*otplaćivati* > *to pay off*), four examples in total, and finally *periphrastic constructions* with a total of three examples (*narušavati* > *to lead to a distortion*).

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